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CULTURE, EFFICACY, AND OUTCOME EXPECTANCY IN TEACHER PREPARATION: HOW DO THE BELIEFS OF PRE-SERVICE INTERNS, MENTOR TEACHERS, UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS COMPARE?

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CULTURE, EFFICACY, AND OUTCOME EXPECTANCY IN TEACHER PREPARATION: HOW DO THE BELIEFS OF INTERNS, MENTOR TEACHERS, UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS COMPARE?

ABSTRACT

Researchers agree that teachers' attitudes and efficacy beliefs play a significant role in student achievement (Armor et al., 1976; Hoy & Spero, 2005; Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Teachers with high self-efficacy: 1) believe they can positively influence students' learning and achievement despite environmental conditions (Armor et al., 1976; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984); and 2) assume accountability for student learning (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ross, 1998; Siwatu, 2007). On the contrary, teachers with low teacher efficacy have minimal expectations for and fewer interactions with minority students. They are also more likely to feel teacher burnout and abandon the profession (Betoret, 2006; Friedman, 2004; Guerra, Attar, & Weissberg, 1997). Various studies have confirmed that even after successfully completing multicultural courses and field experiences, interns' negative beliefs and low outcome expectancies for minority students remained (Garmon, 1996, 2004; Easter, Schultz, Neyhart & Reck, 1999).

Although little is known about how teaching efficacy develops, it is possible that programs incorporating efficacy-building opportunities assist to create and maintain a pool of quality teachers in culturally diverse schools (Clark & Wegener, 2009; Garcia, 2004; Milner, 2005; Santoro & Allard, 2005; Tucker et al., 2005; Siwatu, 2007; Swearingen, 2009). The purpose of this study will be to examine patterns in culturally

responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancies between interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators in an urban teacher education program.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

There is evidence illustrating the powerful influence teachers have over students'

achievement, including low-income and culturally diverse students (Tucker et al., 2005).

Policy makers, researchers and teacher educators agree that teacher quality, including

teacher efficacy, is a key factor in promoting students' academic success. Researchers

further agree that teachers' attitudes and efficacy beliefs play a significant role in the

student achievement (Armor et al., 1976; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hoy & Spero, 2005;

Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004; Villegas, 2007; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Teacher efficacy, the

"confidence in their ability to promote students' learning" (Hoy, 2000) - was originally

discussed in the study by the Rand Corporation (Armor et al., 1976). The Rand study

suggested that a teacher's beliefs in his or her ability to positively impact student learning

is critical to actual success or failure in teachers' behaviors (Henson, 2001; Protheroe.

2008).

There are varying opinions as to how teaching efficacy develops. However, it is

possible that programs incorporating efficacy-building opportunities assist to create and

maintain a pool of quality teachers in culturally diverse schools (Clark & Wegener, 2009;

Garcia, 2004; Milner, 2005; Santoro & Allard, 2005; Siwatu, 2007; Swearingen, 2009; Tucker et al., 2005). Some colleges have redesigned their teacher preparation programs to better prepare pre-service interns for diverse teaching experiences.

Unlike self-efficacy, outcome expectancy is the result of engaging in a particular behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1993; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Pajaras, 1996; Siwatu, 2007). An efficacy expectation is the individual's conviction that he or she can orchestrate the necessary actions to perform a given task, while outcome expectancy is the individual's estimate of the likely consequences of performing that task at the expected level of competence (Bandura, 1986).

Bandura (1986) explained that through cognitive processes and life experiences, people develop a generalized expectancy about specific action-outcome relationships. Moseley and Angle, (2009) summarized outcome expectancies: "The personal conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to perform the task" (p. 474-475). Teachers with low outcome expectancies often perceive students' external circumstances as serious obstacles to their academic success (Guskey, 1987, 1988, 1998). Researchers such as Tournaki and Podell (2005) and Weinstein and Middlestadt (1979) believed that teachers often provide higher quality instruction to students from whom they expect more. The researchers also stated that students may internalize the teacher's expectations and become motivated to achieve consistent with the perceived expectations (Tournaki & Podell, 2005; Weinstein & Middlestadt, 1979).

Currently, the U.S. teaching force is significantly less diverse than the student population; the majority of teachers are White (Gay & Howard, 2000; Villegas & Davis, 2007). Ogbu (1978) reported that White teachers sometimes use students' race or

ethnicity when developing their expectations of students; they expect White students to outperform Blacks. Expectations based on race or ethnicity present several problems (Weisman & Hansen, 2008). Another example of how race can impact teachers' beliefs can be found in McKown & Weinstein's (2008) study. These scholars found that teachers ranked White and Asian students approximately 7 places higher on a 30-point reading hierarchy and more than 8 places higher on 30-point math hierarchy than equally achieving African-American and Latino students.

Most teacher preparation programs report promoting cultural diversity to prepare pre-service interns for diverse teaching experiences. Scholars have reported that some programs have used immersion and/or field experiences to prepare prospective teachers for diverse classroom settings (Causey, Thomas & Armento, 2000; Blasi, 2002; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Wilkins & Brand, 2005). However, many universities' curriculum reform is simply to incorporate one culturally diverse course into the curriculum, as mandated by national standards. However, helping prospective teachers develop the competencies necessary to meet the needs of and educate diverse learners has been a difficult, complex, yet critical task for teacher educators: It is beyond the scope of one class. Various studies confirmed that pre-service teachers have negative beliefs and low outcome expectancies for minority students even after successfully completing multicultural coursework (Garmon, 1996, 2004; Easter, Schultz, Neyhart & Reck, 1999) indicating that courses alone are inadequate in providing prospective teachers with the skills, knowledge, and dispositions to transform attitudes (Case & Hemmings, 2005; Hill-Jackson, 2007; Milner, 2005; Sorrells et al., 2004).

Teacher preparation programs have been challenged to expose and refine pre-service teachers' attitudes towards diverse student populations (Case & Hemmings, 2005; Gay, 2000; Milner, 2005). Given this reality, teacher preparation programs are researching and sampling tactics to better prepare culturally responsive teachers. These strategies include: Infusing cultural diversity into courses, requiring urban field experiences, assigning students cultural shadowing partners, and mandating urban community visits (Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003; Krei, 1998; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ukpokodu, 2004; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Universities must structure the entire preparation program (all courses) to aid pre-service teachers in bridging subject-matter and cultural diversity (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Milner, 2005). For, understanding the stability and change of prospective teachers' cultural efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs is essential if improving the overall quality of teachers, particularly in urban areas, is a priority (Milner, 2005).Often student teachers mimic the attitudes and behaviors of their cooperating teachers (Zeichner, 1980).

Poorly chosen placements result in feelings of inadequacy, low teacher efficacy and an unfavorable attitude toward teaching (Fallin & Royse, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, 1983), but well planned and positive field experiences can assist prospective teachers develop confidence, and self esteem (Thomson, Beacham & Misulis, 1992). It should not be taken for granted that educators (adult or K-12) regardless of race or ethnicity, adhere to a multicultural or culturally competent curriculum (Banks, 2010). Teacher educators can assist pre-service as well as in-service teachers in viewing multicultural education in such a way that minimizes resistance to teaching it. Teacher education faculty and university supervisors can use multicultural dimensions "(content integration, knowledge

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construction process, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy, and an empowering school culture)" as a guide to assist pre-service teachers in understanding how to incorporate multiculturalism into their curricula (Banks, 2010, p. 23).

Interns' and in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs have been measured the most according to the literature. There is a gap in the research in regards to the efficacy beliefs of university supervisors and teacher educators. There are no studies which address the culturally responsive teaching efficacy beliefs of university supervisors or teacher educators. While there are studies which have examined these beliefs of the pre-service interns and in-service teachers, they are limited. No studies have examined the relationship between culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators.

Hence, this study will present primarily quantitative research investigating the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies of pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher education faculty from one mid-western university's teacher preparation program. Various cohorts of pre-service interns' culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies will be investigated for significant patterns. This study will also examine university supervisors' and teacher education faculty members' perceptions of providing efficacy building opportunities for pre-service interns. Lastly, the influence of demographic variables will be examined to determine their impact of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs.

Problem Statement

Many pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs armed with firm beliefs and prejudices about minorities which persist throughout their teacher preparation program and into their early years of teaching. According to several scholars, these prospective teachers have little to no desire to work in urban or diverse settings (Fajet, Bello, Leftwich, Mesler, Shaver, 2005; Kidd, Sanchez, & Thorp, 2008; Swartz, 2003; Ukpokodu, 2004). Some pre-service teachers have limited or no experience with people from backgrounds other their own. This further complicates the task of preparing culturally responsive pedagogues (Case & Hemmings, 2005; Gay, 2000; Krei, 1998).

After comparing various studies, Pajares (1992) and Milner (2005) concluded that the knowledge prospective teachers acquire in teacher preparation can provide a framework and foundation for how these teachers will teach. Unfortunately, Pajares suggested that at best, teacher education courses only minimally alter students' pre-developed perceptions. Contrary to Pajares' findings, Milner's study used qualitative methods to analyze the change and stability among prospective teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and actions as a result of a cultural diversity course. Several themes emerged: a) Initially, the prospective teachers discussed cultural diversity as a social phenomenon and did not make connections to the subject matter; b) prospective teachers demonstrated high levels of skepticism about the importance of cultural diversity and wanted evidence that cultural diversity was a worthwhile; c) there was stability in the change of the prospective teachers' beliefs and actions about cultural diversity; and d) the prospective teachers had a desire to teach in diverse settings upon graduation.

While the results of Milner's study are promising, regrettably, there is little research to provide evidence of prospective teachers maintaining their level of efficacy when enter the teaching profession (Hoy & Spero, 2005). This is unfortunate, because if teacher preparation programs can provide evidence of altering interns' beliefs, they cannot be sure the beliefs will be maintained when the interns become classroom teachers. There has been an abundance of evidence reporting that teachers' beliefs powerfully influence their teaching effectiveness (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2007) and schools, especially schools with large numbers of minority students need effective teachers (Gay, 2000).

Villegas and Lucas (2002) offer another concern as they stressed that it is the faculty, in some instances, who need professional development to help prepare interns for teaching in diverse settings. Therefore there is a need to explore the cultural and social perspectives of pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2006) as well as the cultural beliefs and outcome expectancy beliefs of those who help prepare them.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study will be to examine patterns in culturally responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancies between interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators in an urban teacher education program.

Research Questions

The research questions that will guide this study are:

1. How confident are pre-service interns and mentor teachers in their ability to be culturally responsive?

2. How confident are supervisors and teacher educators in their ability to provide culturally responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities?

3. To what extent do the demographic variables contribute to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators?

4. Do the culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies of different cohorts of pre-service teachers suggest consistent patterns of responses?

Significance of Study

The findings of my study can add to the existing body of knowledge about the relationship between culture, efficacy, and outcome expectancy in urban teacher preparation programs. Additionally, it can suggest ways that teacher educators can reflect on the degree to which their practice is culturally responsive as efforts to increase the cultural competence of pre-service and in-service teachers increase. As mentor teachers and supervisors are often used in teacher preparation programs to help pre-service teachers bridge theory with practice, this research can provide insights of successful pedagogical practices used in educational settings.

As such, teacher preparation programs can use the results of this study to plan mentoring training sessions to assist mentor teachers and university supervisors guide pre-service interns toward culturally responsive teaching practices. School districts can use the results of this study to as they seek to improve professional development opportunities as a means of supporting teachers' cultural competence. Because it has been widely noted in the literature that the cultural mismatch between teachers and their

students can be problematic, aiding educators at all levels to be cognizant of exploring issues of culture and education can help forge the chasm between teachers and students at all levels.

Limitations of the Study

This research is intended to assess and compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs in a teacher preparation program. This study has several limitations to its interpretations, generalization, and conclusions. This research will be conducted on a voluntary basis. Therefore, the sample population may not be representative of those who are enrolled in urban teacher education programs. Another limitation of this study is that the data collected are self-report measures from a non-random sample enrolled in one urban teacher education program. This limits the ability to infer findings to a larger population. According to Mueller (1986), the use of surveys is always affected by the frankness of the participants who will complete the instrument. Anonymous responding during data collection is intended to discourage participants from answering in a socially desirable way. However, measures taken with the research to minimize contamination by socially desirable responses can not guarantee prevention of contamination.

Self-selection is another possible limitation. It is possible that the participants in the study are the pre-service interns with high levels of self-efficacy. An additional limitation to this study is that the data is primarily quantitative. Interviewing the participants, collecting journal entries, adding a qualitative component to the survey, or creating focus groups for participants to converse about their feelings about culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy would have enriched the research. Wheatley (2005)

reported that a researcher should do more than examine numbers if they are to fully understand teacher efficacy. However, the quantitative results can provide data necessary for future studies on the topic. I believe the population is large enough to provide a sufficient sample. Providing there is an ample sample, the data can provide a vivid, numerical illustration of one of two factors contributing to teachers' classroom behaviors (Bakari, 2000; Freeman, Brookhart, & Loadman, 1999).

Although the purpose of this study is not to generalize the findings to all teacher education programs; it may be possible to use the analyses to inform preparation programs similar to the one that will be used in this study. To create a study which may be loosely generalized to other populations, a detailed, well-written procedures section will be provided, allowing other researchers to make informed decisions about the populations or samples to which the results may be generalized. It is not unreasonable to believe that if the participants, setting, time frame, and procedures are similar, that rough generalizations will be useful (Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

Definition of Key Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following operational definitions were used and were considered germane in understanding this research.

African-American/Black - People of African origin whose ancestry includes involuntary import to American by way of the slave trade (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2011).

Collective teacher efficacy - Perceptions of teachers in a setting [school] that together the schools' faculty can have a positive impact on students (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

Culture - Group's program for survival in and adaptation to its environment; consisting of the shared beliefs, values, attitudes, behavior, language, symbols and interpretations of a human group (Bullivant, 1993; Guy, 1999).

Culturally Diverse - The unique behaviors, norms, customs and beliefs characteristic of a particular social, ethnic, or age group (Bullivant, 1993).

Culturally Relevant Teaching- A pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Ladson-Billings, 1994).

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) – A teacher's belief in his or her capabilities to execute the practices associated with culturally responsive teaching (Siwatu, 2007).

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) – A teacher's belief that engaging in culturally responsive teaching practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes (Siwatu, 2007).

Dispositions - Tendencies for individuals to act in a particular manner under particular circumstances, based on their beliefs (Villegas, 2007).

Dominant Culture - The culture of the social group that historically holds greater advantages, access, and power in society than other groups (Trumbull & Pacheco 2005).

Immersion Experience - "Cultural plunges" where one spends a considerable amount of time in a setting (Zeichner & Melnick, 1996).

Marginalized Groups - Have limited power in social, political, and religious contexts (West, 1993, as cited in Guy 1999).

Mastery Experiences - Performing a task successfully therefore strengthening one's sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994).

Mentor Teacher – A mentor provides vital day-to-day instruction that allows a intern to become a successful educator. This school-based teacher educator does more than "cooperate"; they also "mentor" and "lead." He or she must have a minimum of three successful years of classroom teaching (OFS Handbook, 2010-2011).

Methods Interns - The methods intern is enrolled in education courses with limited field experiences. Methods courses are typically the first opportunity that pre-service teachers have to spend extensive time in a classroom as teaching interns (OFS Handbook, 2010-2011).

Multicultural Education – An educational approach in incorporating multiple cultural perspectives with the curriculum and instruction (Banks, 2007).

Pedagogy – The art of teaching (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2011).

Practicum Intern - The practicum intern's role is two-fold in nature: They are learners, studying the teaching/learning process. They are co-teachers whose instructional duties increase over a fifteen week time span (OFS Handbook, 2010-2011).

Pre-Education Interns - Pre-education students have recently been admitted or are in the process of being admitted to the College of Education. Students usually take general education courses such as, English and Math. The *Introduction to Teaching* course is also considered a pre-education class.

Pre-Service Teachers/Prospective Teachers/Interns (terms are used interchangeably) Students enrolled in a university's teacher education program. An intern is a professional in training (OFS Handbook, 2011).

Social Persuasion – Feedback highlighting effective teaching behaviors while simultaneously providing specific ways to improve (Protheroe, 2008).

Student Teaching Intern/Student Teacher - The student teaching intern assumes the full responsibility of teaching for 15 weeks under the guidance of an experienced teacher (OFS Handbook, 2010-2011).

Suburban Districts/Schools - These districts also surround major urban centers. They are distinguished by very high income levels and almost no poverty. A very high percentage of the adult population has a college degree, and a similarly high percentage works in professional/administrative occupations (ODE, 2010).

Teacher Preparation Programs – University and college programs that provide training for students before their first teaching assignment. Teacher preparation is the first stage of the formal teacher development process (National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality, 2010)

University Supervisor – The university supervisor assumes the responsibility for the supervision of the intern. The supervisor works as the liaison between the Office of Field Services and the school personnel to provide realistic, relevant teaching experiences for the university interns. Supervisors assigned to an intern will observe and evaluate this intern—with assistance by the mentor teacher—during practicum and student teaching experiences (OFS Handbook, 2010-2011).

Urban Districts/Schools - Districts and schools located in an urban area where minority students make up at least 20% of the student population and at least 20% of the students receive free or reduced lunch. This category includes urban (i.e. high population density) districts that encompass small or medium size towns and cities. They are

characterized by low median incomes and very high poverty rates (ODE, 2007).

Vicarious Experiences – Feeling confident to try new strategies because of other observations of other using effective strategies (Hoy, 2000).

White Privilege - Invisible package of unearned assets for the dominant or "privileged" group (McIntosh, 1989).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study will be to examine patterns in culturally responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancies between interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators in an urban teacher education program. This chapter examines the value of developing culturally responsive teaching self efficacy beliefs in pre-service teachers, including literature on acknowledging confronting biases. Information is also included on investigating the role of the: 1) mentor teachers; 2) field experience [university] supervisor; and 3) teacher educators. Concerns surrounding the challenges associated with promoting culturally responsive teaching are also addressed. Transformational learning is highlighted as a model for facilitating learning as a continuous process. This section will begin by examining Traditional models of teacher education. The relationship between the lack of teachers for diverse schools and teacher educations' responses to the need will conclude the review of the literature.

Traditional Models of Teacher Preparation

The call for teacher preparation programs to confront the challenge of preparing a cadre of predominantly White, middle-class, female prospective teachers to successfully work with an increasingly diverse population of students resonates across the country

(Darling-Hammond, 2002, 2006; Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1999; (McFadden & Sheerer, 2003; Risko, 2006; Sleeter, 2008; Villegas, 2007). The constant criticisms of schools, colleges, and education departments (McFadden & Sheerer, 2003; Risko, 2006; Villegas, 2007) has resulted in U.S. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, accusing the teacher education programs of doing a mediocre job at best of preparing teachers for the realities of the 21st century classroom (Duncan, 2009).

Nationally, school districts are experiencing a rapid growth in the number of culturally diverse students. Researcher, Gary Howard's (2007) work with educational leaders allowed him to describe these "diversity-enhanced school districts… as places of vibrant opportunity…as well as meaningful and exciting places in which to work" (p. 16). However, "all is not well, in these rapidly transitioning schools. Some teachers, administrators, and parents view their schools' increasing diversity as a problem rather than an opportunity" (Howard, 2007, p. 16).

Teachers are entering the profession at a time when teacher education is "under severe if not outright vicious attack" (Villegas, 2007, p. 370). Currently, a major issue oppressing America's schools is the lack of teachers capable of successfully teaching in diverse settings (Villegas, 2007; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). Gloria Ladson-Billings (2001), author of *Crossing Over to Canaan,* has warned teacher education programs that the time for change has come: If not already in reform efforts, teacher preparation programs should begin to examine ways to align their preparation with the:

> social and political changes taking place in the K-12 institutions if they
> are to offer prospective teachers a fighting chance to both survive and
> thrive in schools and classrooms filled with students who are even more

dependent on education to make their difference in their life circumstance

(p. 6).

The Abell Foundation (2001) reported that evidence supporting traditional teacher education programs as a vehicle to prepare high quality teachers has been limited. However, Haberman (1995) declared that the traditional model of teacher education is actually counterproductive for many teachers including those working in impoverished areas or diverse settings. Additionally scholars Blackwell (2003) and Risko (2006) reported on the criticism of the entire educational institution has succumb to for failing to demonstrate conclusively that certified teachers are more successful in the classroom than non-certified teachers (Blackwell, 2003; Risko, 2006).

In *A Sense of Calling: Who Teaches and Why*? authors, Farkas, Johnson, and Foleno (2000) stated that the majority of new teachers need additional preparation to confront the challenges of the 'real' classroom supporting other accusations in the literature that only a small number of teacher preparation programs train teachers to be successful in diverse settings (Ladson-Billings, 2001; Villegas, 2007; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). The bottom line, according to several educational scholars, is that teacher education programs are failing to meet challenging standards that adequately prepare teachers for the 21st century classroom (Blackwell, 2003; Duncan, 2009; McFadden & Sheerer, 2003; Risko, 2006; Villegas, 2007).

Preparing Culturally Responsive Teachers

Not only are scholars reporting that teachers are unprepared to meet the needs of diverse students, the teachers [in-service and pre-service] themselves, have consistently reported feeling unprepared to teach in culturally diverse settings (Ladson-Billings, 2000;

National Center for Education Statistics, 1999; Rushton, 2000, 2001). In order to be successful, Knoblauch and Hoy (2007) believe that teachers need more than content knowledge. "Compelling evidence indicates that the beliefs teachers hold regarding their teaching capabilities have a powerful influence on their teaching effectiveness" (p. 166). Scholars, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) defined teachers' sense of self-efficacy as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to design and implement the actions necessary to accomplish particular teaching tasks in specific settings.

Creating educators for rapidly transitioning schools requires a reexamination of the current models of teacher preparation, for "continuing with business as usual will mean failure or mediocrity" (Howard, 2007, p. 17) for the nation's K-12 population as the data related to racial and cultural achievement gaps illustrate (Howard, 2007; National Center for Education Statistics, 2005). As efforts to best prepare tomorrow's teachers for diversity are examined, there is general agreement that a culturally responsive pedagogy is a useful approach (Gay, 2000; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Siwatu, 2006, 2007; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Villegas, 2007),

Preparing culturally responsive teachers involves: 1) Transforming pre-service teachers' multicultural attitudes (Banks, 2001; Gay, 2000; Pang & Sablan, 1998; Phuntsog, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002, 2007); 2) increasing their cultural competencies (Barry & Lechner, 1995; Hilliard, 1998); 3) providing efficacy building opportunities for interns to gain confidence with teaching diverse students (Siwatu, 2006, 2007); 4) helping interns believe in the positive outcomes associated with culturally responsive teaching (Siwatu, 2006); and 6) arming them with the abilities necessary to successfully educate culturally diverse students (Leavell, Cowart, & Wilhelm, 1999).

This is not to suggest that teacher preparation programs are not cognizant of their shortcomings. For, Ladson-Billings, (2001) has credited teacher preparation programs for acknowledging the necessity of reform; however, she contended "rather than dismantling the tried and true practices, some teacher programs trust that adding a course in cultural diversity, workshop, or field experience is sufficient to report that real change has occurred in the profession" (p. 3). Blackwell (2003) argued that the core of teacher preparation should be a rigorous, research-based curriculum requiring interns to understand differences in student learning across disciplines instead of relying on one "disconnected course which often serves as the only exposure pre-service teachers have to witness how students learn" (p. 363). The scholar also argued that information about how people learn has become solid enough for programs to provide this type of transformative experience for interns.

The literature reviewed in this section provides supports for thinking differently about teacher preparation. Scholars who have argued against relying on a single course to equip interns with the dispositions necessary for successful teaching in diverse settings, should not be ignored as teachers have repeatedly reported feeling unprepared to meet the needs of students whose culture is different than their own. It is undisputable that America's schools are evolving into culturally diverse places in which to teach. While some people embrace this rapid growth in the diversity of students, others view it as problematic. The literature has placed teacher preparation programs at the forefront of the problem for failing to provide the type of transformative experiences critical to developing a cadre of teachers confident to work in diverse settings.

Challenges of preparing culturally responsive teachers.

Although armed with new information about how pre-service interns learn as well as data to substantiate what opportunities best offer transformative experiences (Blackwell, 2003), education programs continue to face serious challenges. The following section reviews research that provides insight into these challenges as teacher preparation programs attempt to prepare culturally responsive teachers. Educational frameworks found useful in altering beliefs will be discussed. The remainder of this section will include strategies suggested by researchers who have examined the need for reforming teacher preparation.

Researchers such as Gil (1998), Villegas (2007) and Weisman and Hansen (2008) collapsed the challenges teacher preparation programs face when attempting to prepare teachers for diverse settings into two objectives: Prepare interns to examine and change excessive and unfair "social, economic, and political institutions into just and non-oppressive alternatives" (Gil, 1998, p. 1), and prepare interns to be competent teachers in increasingly diverse classrooms (Villegas, 2007; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). These challenges are inextricably connected by the reality that, while the U.S. society is becoming increasingly diverse, it is also becoming increasingly inequitable (Garcia & Van Soest, 2006).

Part of the problem could be connected to Ladson-Billings and Tate's (1995) report revealing yet another problem in teacher preparation. The researchers explained that teacher education, the term "multiculturalism" is being used interchangeably with "diversity". Another researcher, Goodwin (1997), argued that "multicultural education" is often viewed as synonymous with "minority" education. Among other things, the

disagreement and or the misuse of terminology have allowed, "The core of American education with its attendant white, middle class values and perspectives… to remain intact. Thus, teachers, despite multicultural 'training', continue to function within a Eurocentric framework" (p. 9).

Educational framework.

Fortunately, in light of these challenges, researchers such as Griffin (1997) have provided the academic community with hope. Griffin reported that teacher preparation programs can meet the objectives suggested by Gil (1998), Villegas (2007) and Weisman and Hansen (2008). Programs can help interns meaningfully alter their beliefs if they use an educational framework with a dual focus on valuing cultural diversity and understanding oppression. Such frameworks require interns and their models (e.g. instructors, cooperating teachers, university field supervisors, teacher education faculty) to engage in demanding experiences.

Demanding experiences in this dual-focused framework requires exploring personal experiences, values, and perspectives regarding difference, privilege, and social justice (Griffin, 1997; Villegas, 2007; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). Griffin (1997) warned teacher educators that it was no longer acceptable to simply teach facts about diverse populations: There must be a critical examination of the consequences of injustice and inequity while simultaneously demanding an academic focus on personal issues related to oppression within the context of social power. Griffin further warns that this examination is challenging as it can threaten the core beliefs of interns and their models, causing feelings of anxiety and anger.

Constructive conflicts.

Attempting to genuinely value cultural diversity and understand oppression places enormous demands on both interns and their models (Griffin, 1997). At the intrapersonal level, conflict can arise as interns are challenged to confront unexamined beliefs and experiences (Tatum, 1994). Such a framework can also be problematic as interns' arrive at the interpersonal and inter-group level. For it is here where interns' beliefs and experiences clash with those of others (Weisman & Hansman, 2008). Because of this, Kaufmann (2010) stated that some students may not discuss sensitive topics openly in class, therefore instructors should provide multiple contexts where students can dialogue and share knowledge. These conflicts can be constructive however, if everyone has: 1) A voice - the right to express differing perspectives; and 2) assurance of being listened to and challenged respectfully.

Research indicates that teacher preparation programs face considerable challenges in attempting to prepare teachers to feel confident working in diverse settings. However, this complex undertaking is necessary and can lead to feelings of anxiety. Therefore, leaders in the academy must provide safe places for interns as well as teacher educators to honestly explore personal experiences, values, and perspectives regarding difference, privilege, and social justice.

Multicultural and Cultural Diversity Training in Teacher Preparation

A common theme repeated throughout the teacher education research arguing for the need of some form of multicultural pre-service teacher education is what several researchers have termed "the demographic data," "the demographic imperative," or "the demographic divide" (e.g., Banks, 2009; Cochran-Smith, Davis, & Fries, 2004; Gay &

Howard, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1999, 2001; Melnick & Zeichner, 1994; Paine, 1990; Zeichner & Melnick, 1996). "It has become commonplace to point out that while the U.S. teaching force is increasingly White, middle-class, and female, the nation's PK–12 student population is growing significantly more diverse" (Cockrell, Placier, Cockrell, & Middleton, 1999, p. 351). This demographic imperative, familiar to teacher educators and educational researchers, has been defined repeatedly as the disjunction between the sociocultural characteristics and previous experiences of the typical teacher candidate and those of many of our K–12 students, particularly in our nation's urban schools.

The following section will address the courses in cultural diversity in the teacher preparation programs' course of study. These types of courses have often been the venue for the difficult conversations about race, class, religion, sexuality and gender for example. But some scholars question if teacher educators are "going there" or if they are content with offering a superficial romanticized view of what cultural diversity in educational settings really means.

Labaree (1994) suggested that education programs are driven by the market: Choosing between providing a challenging curriculum which may result in a low enrollment or a simple and superficial curriculum, accessible to the masses, but increasing enrollment. Risko (2006) questioned teacher preparation programs, particularly those driven by the market as to whether they were teaching the "hard stuff": "Are they [teacher educators] teaching interns to respond to students' capabilities regardless of race, ethnicity, linguistic background, and culturally diverse community and home experiences" (Risko, 2006, p. 6)?

Researchers, Villegas and Lucas (2002) argued that traditionally the "hard stuff"

has been resigned to that single cultural diversity course in teacher education (Blackwell,

2003). Villegas and Lucas reported that these are often the only classes used to help pre-

service interns understand that differences in social location are not neutral: Some

positions are afforded greater opportunities than others are. Labaree, (1997) added that

interns need to understand the role of schools in advancing and limiting one's access. The

scholar admitted that this is not an easy task for educators because "admitting that

schools privilege only some students… threatens the heart of one's understanding of

social stratification in the United States, a society most have come to see as a

meritocracy" (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 23).

Despite acknowledging the difficulty involved with helping interns understand

how power and interests is intersected to access in education, educational leaders have

accused teacher educators specifically, of inadequately preparing quality teachers for all

settings (Keller, 2003; McFadden & Sheerer, 2003; Risko, 2006). In fact, according to

Villegas and Lucas (2002), cultural diversity courses are often designed in ways that

restrict instructors to answering 'what' questions. Cultural diversity is more than a field

of study centered on 'what' issues (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). They warned that thinking

of cultural diversity in this way leads to over-prescribed and decontextualized teacher

education models that miss the point because they reduce or trivialize cultural diversity.

This approach can produce superficial interest in another's culture.

Other scholars advocating that pre-service teachers be challenged to address the

"hard stuff" have suggested requiring interns to reflect critically on their attitudes toward

race (Bakari, 2003; Ukpokodu, 2004; Wiggins & Follo, 1999). It has been widely

reported that some pre-service teachers have limited or no experience with people from backgrounds other their own; many of them enter education programs armed with biases and assumptions about minorities (Swartz, 2003; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). For instance, scholars Richman, Bovelsky, Kroovand, Vacca, and West (1997) presented pre-service teachers with photographs of similarly dressed African American and Caucasian students. Participants were asked to assign personal attributes, such as grade point averages (GPAs) to the students in the photographs. Simply by viewing the pictures, the interns assigned lower GPAs to the African American students. The researchers also reported that the pre-service teachers in their study indicated that White students were more ambitious, more confident, and more self-sufficient than the African-American students (Richman et al., 1997). These findings are similar to an earlier study by Irvine (1990) who reported that in general, teachers believe White students have more potential to achieve academic success that Black students. Similar results were also evident in Ilisko and Ignatjeva's (2008) study which revealed although all participants claimed to be open to cultural diversity; they still rated their attitude towards other cultures low and confessed to not trusting members of other cultures and religions.

Findings such as those in Irvine's (1990), Ilisko and Ignatjeva's (2008), and Richman et al.,'s (1997), study may be part of the reason why some interns continue to shy away from teaching in schools with diverse student populations, specifically in urban areas. As a result, it is critical that preparation programs teach the "hard stuff" (Villegas & Lucas, 2004). It is imperative that interns' attitudes toward marginalized populations be exposed: For only then can they be refined (Case & Hemmings, 2005; Gay, 2000; Ukpokodu, 2004: Weisman & Hansen, 2008; Villegas, 2007).

H. Richard Milner IV (2005) studied the change and stability of pre-service interns' efficacy, beliefs, and actions as a result of a cultural diversity course. Several themes emerged from Milner's qualitative study. Initially, interns viewed cultural diversity as a social phenomenon with no connection to content. Milner also reported that while many prospective teachers were skeptical about cultural diversity and seemed to remain unchanged in their beliefs about it, others displayed meaningful changes that ''opened'' their ''eyes'' (Milner, 2005, p. 777). For example one of the participant's reflections connected succinctly with some of the cultural and racial mismatches that often emerge in classrooms between teachers and students. The participant reported realizing that:

> It is necessary for teachers to recognize and understand ''what's meaningful to me [as the teacher] and what's meaningful to them [the students]'' may be very different. Her points suggest that meanings are socially constructed and that conflicts and inconsistencies may emerge because of different beliefs and ways of thinking about issues (Milner, 2005, p. 779).

Milner explained that in short, this participant's beliefs and actions appeared to change as she participated in and completed the requirements of the course. A latter study by Milner (2010) pointed out that "diversity studies curriculum in teacher education requires significant reform in order to more seriously address the multilayered needs of teachers" (p. 118).

There is evidence that interns' beliefs can be altered [at least minimally] if cultural diversity courses are designed appropriately, such is the case with Milner's

(2005) study, Therefore, despite the discomfort involved, cultural diversity courses should help interns recognize ways in which "taken-for-granted notions regarding the legitimacy of the social order are flawed" (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 23). If interns progress through their preparation program without understanding how the 'so-called' meritocracy works mostly for those who are already advantaged by "virtue of the color of their skin" (Villegas & Lucas, p. 23), it is possible they will be unsuccessful in understanding or responding to students who are socioculturally different from themselves (Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Villegas, 2007).

Essentially, Masko (2005) stated, the manner in which faculty members teach about cultural diversity, is in itself, a message about how the institution regards the subject. Does the program consider cultural diverse content merely an accessory to the "real curriculum"? Masko further asked questions such as: Is such material integrated throughout the curriculum? Who teaches the content? What are the roles of faculty and researchers of color in the program? More specifically, is work on this topic valued as scholarship even when unconventional methods are employed? Are students of color welcomed and affirmed or are they somehow expected to adapt to the dominant culture to succeed academically?

Sadly, the extent to which these courses are beneficial in teacher education is unclear. Multicultural education scholar, James Banks, (2000) reported that too often cultural diversity courses reinforce negative stereotypes or biases about cultural groups. Researchers have made it clear however, that courses alone are inadequate in providing prospective teachers with the skills, knowledge (Case & Hemmings, 2005; Hill-Jackson,

2007; Milner, 2005; Sorrells et al, 2004) or/and dispositions to transform attitudes (Monaghan & Cervero, 2006).

According to Abrams & Moio, (2009) effective cultural diversity teaching requires an institutional congruence critiquing the institutional philosophy, its organizational structure, and the curriculum. More than merely teaching students about culture, interns must analyze the institutional arrangements of society, assess how they are shaped by dominant cultural assumptions, and recognize how they may disadvantage members of minority groups. Such an evaluation needs to be applied to all areas of the curriculum; otherwise, cultural diversity content runs the risk of being "ghettoized" and having its institutional nature denied (Abrams & Moio, 2009).

This section reports on cultural diversity courses as a critical component of teacher education. Merely appreciating and understanding marginalized and non-dominant group culture is not sufficient. Teacher preparation reform should consider including research that the stability and change of prospective teachers' cultural efficacy beliefs is essential if improving the overall quality of teachers, particularly in diverse areas, is a priority (Milner, 2005).

Transforming the Beliefs of Prospective Teachers

The following section will examine the literature related to helping pre-service teacher acknowledge, challenge and transform their negative beliefs about working in diverse settings. This section begins highlighting a university that uses the admissions process to gather information about prospective teachers' beliefs. The impact of mastery experiences on pre-service teachers' beliefs will conclude this section.

Before teacher preparation programs can work to transform the beliefs of intern, the interns' beliefs must be identified. The teacher education program at Montclair State University (MSU) has used the admissions process as a way to "seek out evidence of applicants' beliefs about the educability of all children" (Villegas, 2007, p. 376). While the university does not deny prospective teachers access to the preparation program, the faculty allow the students to make an informed decision as to whether their beliefs are aligned with the college's core belief: Teaching prospective teachers to educate all children. Using the results of the interviews, the MSU preparation program consistently reexamines their teacher education program to guide promising prospective teachers through mastery experiences -- courses and field experiences that the pre-service teacher can perform successfully in diverse settings (Bandura, 1986, 1994; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001).

Mastery experiences.

Embedded in the challenge of preparing efficacious teachers for diverse settings is promoting intercultural sensitivity and learning among interns (Causey, Thomas & Armento, 2000). Most of the research on working with culturally diverse students takes an "epidemiological approach" focusing on the presence of deficits correlated with low student achievement (Blasi, 2002, p. 1). Mastery experiences, according to Bandura (1986, 1994) are the most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy. Bandura (1994) warned that failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy. Researchers such as Wilkins & Brand (2005, 2007), Mulholland & Wallace, (2001), Hoy, (2000), Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, (1998) have suggested that some of the most powerful influences on the development of teacher

efficacy are mastery experiences during student teaching. Cognizant of this, teacher preparation programs such as MSU are systematically reviewing their curriculum in an effort to make certain that prospective teachers have opportunities to develop the needed knowledge and skills to teach in diverse settings (Villegas, 2007).

Methods courses.

Some teacher educators such as Professor Virginia Lea (2004) have professed to using teaching methods courses to create the mastery experience for interns. Lea's methods course was designed to help pre-service teachers investigate the correlation between culture and their lived experiences (Lea, 2004), moving beyond deficit beliefs. Participants in Lea's study were required to create a cultural portfolio regarding knowledge of and experiences with culture, race, and class. They were also required to return to one of their original narratives in light of the critical multicultural lens the researcher hoped they had acquired during the semester (Lea, 2005).

Although students wrote and shared 'cultural scripts' including their cultural histories, the course did not offer the type of mastery experience for which the researchers had hoped. The vast majority of the students in her study came from middle-class backgrounds which limited the amount of cultural diversity shared during this experiment. Others experienced culture shock as a result of participating in this course and reported disliking the cultural portfolio assignment. Several of the participants were angry at the suggestion that they had the power to oppress their students. Yet several of student participants returned to the researcher several semesters later to report that it was only after they had completed the course and progressed in their teacher preparation that they were able to see the value of the cultural portfolio (Lea, 2005). Lea noted that:

The assignment was not a blaming assignment. It…should not be

facilitated by teacher educators who do not recognize that they have their

own contradictions worth reflecting on. It requires that teacher educators

be prepared to admit their own frailties, their own Whiteness…It gives

some of them more confidence that one of the intrinsic rewards for the

cultural portfolio journeying is the promise of undergoing the kind of

cultural transformation necessary to becoming a culturally responsive

educator who serves all his or her students (p. 126).

Olson and Jimenez-Silva's (2008) research measured interns' beliefs and

attitudes toward teaching English Language Learners (ELLs) as a result of taking two

consecutive semesters of a Structured English Immersion (SEI) course. Olson & Jimenez-

Silva (2008) concluded that 93% of the interns felt the course changed their beliefs and

attitudes toward teaching ELLs as a result of taking this course. Additionally, Hart (2002)

reported that although several studies' post-test findings reveal a positive change in pre-

service teachers' efficacy, interns' changed beliefs must be tested in actual classrooms.

Hart (2002) was skeptical that interns' changed beliefs as a result of a methods course or

field experience might not be as resilient in the real world. It is possible that any efficacy

gains resulting from participating in a single course may not last past the end of the

course (Hart, 2002; Wilkins & Brand, 2005).

Likewise, Wilkins and Brand's (2005) findings from the study suggested that

participation in the methods course increased interns' self efficacy beliefs. Interestingly,

their study found the rate of change after this single methods course to be similar to the

change reported after a three-semester education program, including student teaching

(Wilkins & Brand, 2005). Wilkins and Brand's (2007) more recent study also reported that mastery experiences that offer substantial field requirements (such as student teaching) have the greatest influence on their efficacy beliefs; vicarious experiences and social persuasion were also identified and factors influencing beliefs.

Immersion or field experiences.

Field experiences have been consistently identified in the literature as the best means to prepare pre-service teachers for the cultural diversity and complexity of the classroom (Goodlad, 1990; Wiggins et al, 2007). Wiggins and colleagues (2007) found the pre-service interns who spent the most time in diverse settings completing field work reported being the most comfortable working in diverse settings. According to the researchers, change in a student's perception of the multicultural classroom issues is possible depending on the nature of the experience.

Darling-Hammond (2006) advocated that teacher education programs create quality field experiences to assist interns with gaining confidence to teach. They cannot depend solely on the interns' grades as an indicator of whether the intern is prepared to teach (Isiksall & Cakiroglu, 2005). Higher scores or grade point averages (GPAs) are not always indicative of higher self efficacy as illustrated in Isiksall and Cakiroglu's (2005) study. These researchers investigated the role of grades in efficacy judgments. Data was collected from 80 pre-service middle school mathematics teachers enrolled in two public Turkish universities. Results revealed no significant relationship between teaching efficacy beliefs and academic achievement. Therefore teacher educators should not assume that higher achieving interns (as determined solely by GPAs), are more efficacious that those with lower grades (Isiksall & Cakiroglu, 2005).

Blasi (2002) used several strategies to examine changes in pre-service teachers' "conceptualizations of potential versus deficiency deficit beliefs" (p. 4) as a result of completing significant field work. The prospective teachers had specific activities to complete each week of the experience including parent interviews, parent liaison interviews, home visits, and team meetings. Results of Blasi's study revealed that the experience helped interns understand students [K-12] in the "context of his/her family, culture, and community" (p. 113). The study's participants also reported learning more about socioeconomic status' role in education, effects of labeling, and understanding 'at-risk' students. The post-test responses indicated increased confidence showing that immersion experiences can make a difference in the perspectives of pre-service teachers: interns' ideas about their roles as teachers had changed (Blasi, 2002).

Another scholar who evaluated a field experience's ability to change the cultural beliefs of pre-service teachers is Omiunota Ukpokodu (2004). Ukpokodu investigated the impact of a cultural diverse field experience on pre-service teachers' dispositions toward diverse students; specifically, the extent to which shadowing culturally different students in cross cultural contexts alter their preconceived notions and negative dispositions toward diverse students and their inclination towards working in diverse school settings. The study revealed that shadowing a culturally different person provided interns with practical experience and knowledge about cultural groups different from their own. An overwhelming 100% of the participants agreed the shadowing experience allowed them to dispel stereotypes, misconceptions, and preconceived notions held about culturally different students. The respondents also agreed the shadowing experience enabled them

to develop new, positive views and understandings of the socio-cultural and schooling experience of diverse students (Ukpokodu, 2004)

Pajares (1992) reported that personal teaching efficacy can increase even when teaching outcome expectancy and pedagogical beliefs remain stable (Pajares, 1992) if the experience is organized and properly implemented.

Adverse effects of immersion or field experiences.

Hoy (2000) reported that although, mastery experiences such as student teaching, can provide interns with opportunities to self-reflect on teaching capabilities, when student teaching is experienced as a total immersion experience without proper reflection and guidance, it is unlikely to build a sense of teaching competence. Furthermore, Hoy (2000) reported that interns often underestimate the difficulty of teaching along with managing their classroom. It has been stated that some interns experienced difficulty separating themselves from students and therefore interacting as peers only to find their classes out of control. Or interns were too strict and disliked themselves as teachers altogether.

Interns also found it difficult to accept the gap between their personal standards and actual performance. This difficulty can result in interns employing self-protective strategies such as purposely lowering their standards to forge the chasm between the requirements of excellent teaching and their own perceived teaching competence (Hoy, 2000). Because increasing self-efficacy beliefs takes time, efficacy building opportunities need to happen in course work even prior to student teaching (Hoy & Spero, 2005; Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003).

While there is evidence that courses and field experiences can impact personal and general teaching efficacy in different ways (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), not all immersion or field experiences are successful. Despite the encouraging results of aforementioned studies (e.g., Blasi, 2002; Causey et al., 2000; Monaghan & Cervero, 2006; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Stipek, 2004; Wilkins & Brand, 2004, 2007), it should be noted that beliefs are difficult to change. Many studies focused on changing interns' beliefs examine changes during one course, field experience, or semester only.

Contrary to studies mentioned above, Causey et al.'s (2000) findings were less optimistic. They found that only a small number of interns reported a change in beliefs as a result of a cultural diverse field experience. Causey and colleagues conducted qualitative analyses seeking patterns of cognitive restructuring between prior beliefs and new learning at the end of the semester. In the beginning of the semester, participants expressed little knowledge of other ethnic heritages and cultural values. Unfortunately, only two of the participants actually showed evidence of restructuring their diversity schema as a result of the experience: The majority of the participants experienced little to no efficacious change, retaining their former belief schemata.

In Weisman and Hansen's (2008) study, several participants reported that the field experience appeared to be helpful in raising their awareness of discrepancies in "cultural resources that exist in schools and affect school success" (p. 667). However, other participants reported that the field experience only reinforced beliefs acquired through previous life experiences. Interestingly, this study reported the role of the mentor teachers' impact on interns' beliefs. Results of their study reinforced the need for

teaching interns to be provided with mentor teachers who model effective practices and respectful attitudes toward students and their parents (Weisman & Hansen, 2008).

Hoy and Woolfolk's (1990) and Aydin and Hoy's (2005) examination of the relationship between the student teaching field experience and the self-efficacy of the interns. Their conclusions were more grim. Interns' general teaching efficacy did not increase, nor did it remain intact during the semester. The participants in their studies appeared to be more efficacious during their coursework, but less confident during student teaching. This suggested that the optimism new teachers possess might diminish when confronted with the realities of teaching tasks, further supporting the need for mentors or support networks for novice teachers (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003).

Recognizing the importance of the mentor teachers' role in teacher preparation is critical to the developing confidence of pre-service interns. Ladson-Billings (2001) found that teacher educators [faculty] may harp on the need for interns to engage students [K-12] in social justice concerns, but fail to investigate the type of activities, mentor teachers and placements before assigning interns to the field. Teacher education faculties, according to Ladson-Billings, are out of touch with public schools. She reported that teacher educators in her reflections of a *Teach for Diversity Program* (TFD) unknowingly over-intensified the program. They did not allow enough time for the participants to reflect, which had been one of the TFD objectives. Hilliard (1995) also discussed the need for reflection opportunities during field experiences. Without them, Hilliard warned, pre-service teachers' negative stereotypes can be reinforced rather than challenged as in Weisman and Hansen's (2008) study.

Facilitating quality field experiences.

There are other limitations to field immersion approaches to prepare teachers for cultural diversity. Even researchers in support of extensive field experiences have confessed that a major limitation of this approach is the amount of time needed to coordinate field opportunities that offer the desired culturally responsive teaching qualities. Villegas and Lucas (2002) presented another limitation as they stressed that it is the faculty, in some instances, who need professional development to help prepare interns for teaching in diverse settings. Likewise, Merryfield (2000) maintained,

> …we know very little about the ability of college and university faculty and other teacher educators to prepare teachers in multicultural and global education. Do today's teacher educators have the knowledge, skills and commitment to teach for equity and diversity either locally or globally? Have the White, middle class, mostly male, fiftyish professors of education in the US had even the minimal kind of experiences with diverse cultures or the basic understandings of inequities…?(p. 430)

In spite of cultural diverse immersion programs' or field experiences' limitations, if designed correctly, these experiences can offer teacher educators a creative alternative to the traditional approach to preparing teachers that mirrors randomly assigning students to field placements based only on availability (Turner, 2008). Successful field immersion experiences (e.g. student teaching) are established through extensive planning and collaboration between university staff, supervisors, and mentor teachers (Turner, 2008).

The results of studies revealed several issues of interest to teacher education programs in regards to the redesign of field experiences. Following, is a list of themes

found in the researchers' analyses. Interns need: 1) opportunities to work in diverse settings to learn about K-12 students in the context of their communities; 2) skilled cooperating teachers; 3) safe spaces to ask questions; 4) chances to engage in serious intellectual work; 5) teacher educators who have the qualifications and beliefs of teacher educators need to be examined; 6) field experiences that have been carefully designed and carried out; and 7) more than one course to deal with all of the challenges interns face (Ladson-Billings, 2001; Merryfield, 2000; Turner, 2008; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Most researchers agree that teachers' beliefs influence their practices (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Richman et al., 1997; Stipek, 2004; Villegas, 2007; Weisman & Hansen, 2008). Thus, it is critical that teacher education programs create experiences that assist interns to develop beliefs consistent with sound teaching strategies for diverse student populations (Causey et al., 2000; Blasi, 2002; Hart, 2003; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Wilkins & Brand, 2005; Villegas, 2007). There is value in offering an immersion-style field experience --spending a considerable amount of time in a setting (Ladson-Billings, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Zeichner & Melnick, 1996). Providing a variety of carefully planned field experiences included in teacher preparation is a good starting point for education programs. There is evidence that a positively affirming environment created by mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators, provide a "contextual base for a mastery experience to occur" (Wilkins & Brand, 2007, p. 313). However, teacher preparation programs should proceed with caution because not all immersion or field experiences conclude with the desired results. The mentor teacher, the curriculum and the site should be examined for the alignment with the teacher education programs' mission. For, time in the field absent of objectives can be counterproductive.

There needs to be more time and focus on designing courses and field experiences where pre-service teachers can make connections and recognize alternative pedagogical strategies that bridge content with cultural diversity (Milner, 2005).

Specifically, the experiences should provide: 1) A raised awareness of cultural diversity issues; 2) an understanding of their culture as well as the culture of their students'; 3) a lens in which to view students' backgrounds as resources not problems; 4) opportunities for interns to develop positive beliefs about themselves as learners; and 5) efficacy-building opportunities to develop confidence to teach diverse learners (Causey et al., 2000; Case & Hemmings, 2005; Taylor & Sobel, 2001; Villegas, 2007; Wilkins & Brand, 2005).

Unpacking Resistance in Teacher Preparation

Although considerable attention has given to transforming the beliefs of pre-service interns, it has been suggested that attention also be given to exploring teacher educators' beliefs and practices (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010). The accusations of failed teacher education programs coupled with criticisms of teacher education faculty to effectively prepare teachers have placed Colleges of Education at risk (Duncan, 2009; McFadden & Sheerer, 2003; Risko, 2006; Villegas, 2007). What is necessary to shift the conversation over the concern and the criticisms of teacher education programs to actually implementing the change needed? The following sections will begin with an examination of reflective teacher education faculty.

Reflective teacher educators.

According to the research, novice teachers need to be taught how to be antiracist educators while in preparation. Teacher educators should help them understand race and

racism in relation to their identity and the identity of others (Banks, 2001; Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2000). Several scholars reported that when teaching about race, most teacher educators focus on what 'not' to do. There are limited studies that describe successful strategies associated with quality teaching in diverse schools and provide interns with what 'to' do (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010; Sleeter, 2001).

The teacher educator however, can only go so far in influencing teachers' beliefs about cultural diversity and working in diverse settings. Education professors must stand as on-going partners with public schools to ensure continued development of knowledge and constructive beliefs leading to student success (Causey et al., 2000). Pre-service interns should view themselves as responsible for and capable of educational change to make schools more responsive to all students. Such a framework cannot be imposed from the outside. Villegas and Lucas (2002) agree that it must grow out of faculty negotiations within the teacher education program.

A well-articulated program whereby issues of cultural diversity are examined throughout the entire teacher preparation curriculum instead of in specialized courses (Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Villegas, 2007; Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996) along with a commitment to follow-up programs for graduates, offers the best hope for moving pre-service teachers toward greater cultural sensitivity (Pohan, 1996). This type of program begins with teacher educators reflecting on their own beliefs about practices associated with issues of racism in their courses. More importantly, teacher educators will need to examine how their experiences "reflect, confirm, or trouble their understanding of their practices and beliefs" (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010, p. 226).

So what is keeping some teacher preparation programs from implementing genuine change? Ladson-Billings (2001) offers several possibilities. First, she believes that teacher educators experience trouble teaching interns to work in diverse settings because working in culturally diverse settings is unfamiliar to them. Second, she adds that researchers and practitioners must challenge what it means to be a 'good' teacher of all children and investigate causes that are keeping these 'good teachers from working in settings with underprivileged populations (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Using cultural frameworks to promote change.

Martin Haberman's (1995) research focused on characteristics contributing to the success of some teachers' and those factors, which seem to limit the success of others. Haberman's work rejected conventional teacher preparation: For him, the teaching context mattered. This is a significant tenant of the critical race theory (CRT). A critical race perspective supports the idea that the conditions under which students learns can be compared in a fair and equitable manner (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Critical race theory.

Critical race theory has become the 'adopted' theory of many educational researchers interested in the relationship between culture, race, and achievement (Hollins, 1990; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Critical race theory asserts that racism is a normal and permanent part of life (Bell, 1992) specifically focused on how society has remained infested with racism (Parker & Lynn, 2002). Critical race theorists are committed to examining injustices and offering a voice to the groups that find themselves limited because of their proximity to the dominant group (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Delpit, 1996; Solórzano & Yosso, 2001). Scholars, Ladson-Billings and Tate are "credited with

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introducing critical race theory to education and its use as a powerful theoretical and analytical framework within educational research" (Iverson, 2007, p. 588).

Researchers Ortiz and Jani (2010) cautioned other scholars that critical race theory should be taught as a distinct theoretical model, not as an accessory to other theoretical paradigms. As a critical theory, critical race theory "promotes a structural approach to addressing the problems of a diverse society, rather than merely expanding access to existing resources and opportunities" (Ortiz & Jani, 2010, p, 176). Critical race theorists seek to transform social injustices instead of simply accepting that racial assumptions have become part of life (Abrams & Gibson, 2007). Although critical race theory recognizes culture as a powerful influence on forming one's identity, proponents of the theory assert that is equally important to examine the social location of the culture. Social location helps one to understand how a person's life chances are impacted by culture. Similarly, critical race theory recognizes that marginalization is greater than a product of racial or ethnic identity: Embracing the notion of intersectionality (Abrams & Gibson, 2007; Ortiz & Jani, 2010).

Transformative action in pursuit of social justice is an important objective of critical race theory. In fact, using the theory as a teaching paradigm can lead to transformational learning (Ortiz & Jani, 2010. Historically, adult educators and others have viewed transformational learning through lenses provided by Freire (1970) or Mezirow (1991). However, Freire's focus while oriented toward the transformation at the societal level, did not fully address America's social systems. In contrast, Mezirow focused largely on the transformation of the individual in isolation to society. Critical race theory was not formulated as a basis of learning, but as a tool to restructure the

power inequities in our society. Scholars Ortiz and Jani believed that critical race theory could to move beyond both of these earlier transformational learning models offered by Freire and Mezirow.

Critical race theory is a race-based critical paradigm that assesses power differentials at all levels. It is committed to social change by 'leveling the playing field' (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Its critique is designed to uncover racism and other patterns of injustice at the assumptive as well as overt levels. The researchers pointed to these examples of assumptive disadvantages in higher education: 1) patterns of teaching, and 2) evaluating learning outcomes. Both of which are based on dominant-group ways of knowing (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001).

Scholar Haney-Lopez (2000) stressed that sometimes the dominant group uses socially constructed mechanisms such as scientific knowledge and the judicial system to promote and protect its interests. According to Ortiz and Jani (2010), definitions of race and racial groups surfaced to establish an individual's 'place' in relation to the dominant group. Inexorably, those whose place is farthest from the dominant group have minimal access to resources and opportunities (Ortiz & Jani, 2010).

According to Delgado and Stefancic (2001) critical race theory assumes that there are several 'truths' (e.g. race is a social construction; all aspects of life are permeated by race). Race issues in the U.S. have often been viewed in terms of a Black-and White (Masko, 2005). Delgado and Stefancic explained that, "The color line is not the work of a few racist individuals but a system of institutions and practices" (p. 616). Guinier and Torres (as cited in Vaught, 2008, p. 578) these "current institutional arrangements do not work for people of color because they were not created with their assumptive worldview

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in mind and it is impossible to address the racial hierarchy without addressing these institutional arrangements". It is typical for some members of the dominant group to have a place in the existing institutional arrangement; this is not true for members of marginalized groups (Delgado & Stefancic, 1997; Vaught, 2008).

Critical race theory has become a popular theory for many educational scholars examining culture, race and achievement. Critical race theorists are committed to investigating injustices as providing a voice to marginalized populations. Scholars, Gloria Ladson-Billings and William Tate IV are credited for introducing critical race theory to the field of educational research. In addition, scholars Ortiz and Jani have made the argument that the theory is not to simply be added on to other theoretical paradigms, for it is a distinct theory with specific characteristics. Scholars who support using this theory in education have explained the theory's usefulness in higher education such as: 1) Challenging racist assumptions; 2) transforming injustices, 3) examining ways one is affected by culture; and 4) assessing hierarchies of power.

Institutionalized whiteness: A barrier to change.

According to Gibson and Abrams (2007), critical race theorists exposed the race-neutral and color-blind ways in which the law and policy are conceptualized with respect to their impact on people of color. Critical race theory forces one to self-reflect on their privilege or lack of it in relation to the institution of education. Hence, discussions about the use of CRT are not complete without discussing Whiteness, White identity, and White privilege. While teaching about White privilege will certainly not eradicate its manifestations on a national or global level, addressing it in teacher preparation can assist students regardless of race, to recognize, discuss, and discover ways to deal with its

vicissitudes as it permeates micro and macro social work concerns (Gibson & Abrams, 2007).

Scholars Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, and Cervero (2005) reported that in general, White Americans have refused to "view institutional and systematic connections between White privilege, power, and success and a tendency to promote a colorblind viewpoint that views achievement as totally meritorious and tied to individual achievement" (p. 1246). Higher education is an example of an institutional-individual relationship (Manglitz et al., 2005; Mohan, 2009): "Within the discipline of education, discourses have emerged to study racism not from the perspective of the "other", but from the perspective of whiteness and White privilege" (Manglitz et al., 2005, p. 1245). Mohan (2009) reported that "Universities are the citadel of Euro-American values. They are vestiges of White privilege [and] continue to promote mediocrity on the one hand and demoralization on the other" (p. 117). Institutional design, governance, teaching pedagogy, assumptions about styles of learning, course content, and preferred methods for inquiry reflect Euro-American educational values and interpretations of the world (Parker & Villalpando, 2007).

Considering the institutional-individual relationship represented in higher education and despite well-intentioned efforts, teacher education programs continue to fall short of preparing prospective teachers to work successfully in diverse classrooms. Blackwell (2003) has called attention to the idea that some teacher educators are fearful of being marginalized by their colleagues for supporting the type of radical change thought to be necessary for "real" reform to take place. It is possible that the fear of marginalization is one of the reasons why some teacher preparation programs have failed

to offer interns transformative experiences in regards to challenging their preexisting

cultural beliefs (Garcia & Van Soest, 2006; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2008; Ortiz &

Jani, 2010). Additionally, institutionally as well as personally, Whites have been

permitted to claim a lack of racial understanding "in the face of a racial structure of

oppression while at the same time continuing to benefit from it" (Galman, Pica-Smith,

Rosenberger, 2010, p.226).

White identity.

Teacher preparation programs frequently refer to Janet Helms' (1990, 1995)

theory of "White racial identity development" when assessing students' progression

towards an antiracist stance when working with diverse populations. According to Gibson

and Abrams (2007), members of the dominant group move fluidly through Helms' stages

of racial identity formation. Helms' stages are aligned with Piaget's developmental

stages, particularly Helms' disintegration and immersion/emersion stages. In the first

stage of Helms' (1990, 1995) model, people claim to be unaware of racism -a color-blind

mentality. When people begin to become educated about Whiteness, they typically

progress toward the second stage - disintegration. In this stage, former beliefs are

challenged. Piaget refers to this as accommodation (Case, 1996).

It has been suggested that through Piaget's accommodation stage (Case, 1996)

and Helms' (1990, 1995) process of disintegration, that pre-service teachers will

construct new knowledge. According to Piaget, accommodation is the process of

reframing one's mental representation of the world to fit a new experience.

Accommodation can be understood as the catalyst that allows humans to learn through

failure. If pre-service teachers accommodate new experiences and reframe their model of

the way the world should operate, then learning has occurred even if it is through 'failure' (Case, 1996). Helms (1990, 1995) reported that if people fail to challenge their former beliefs, they may enter the reintegration phase and minimize racism, failing to take responsibility for their role in solving racial injustices (Gibson & Abrams, 2007). The immersion/emersion stage is when one is actively involved in stopping institutional racism. The last stage, autonomy, is when one is able to understand his or her new self and others (Gibson & Abrams, 2007; Helms, 1990, 1995).

Using Piaget's process of accommodation (Case, 1996) and Helms' (1990, 1995) theory of White identity development, some teacher training programs try to move "White students past the reintegration phase and into the pseudoindependence and autonomy phases of identity development" (Gibson & Abrams, 2007, p. 7). There are scholars who have argued that White teachers who have more fully developed racial identities are likely to have more success in their work with diverse student populations (Carter & Goodwin, 1994). So, rather than accepting the mainstream color-blind ideology, pre-service interns should understand how Whiteness affords unearned privileges so they can begin to create an anti-racist identity in their work with students (Lawrence, 1996).

White privilege.

The perpetuation of White privilege is running rampant in teacher preparation. Theories of White privilege have emerged as a noteworthy field of study within post secondary education providing another lens through which to explore race (Solomon, Portelli, Daniel & Campbell, 2005). With regard to teacher preparation, the study of White privilege challenges faculty, supervisors, mentors and interns to examine: 1) An

overall understanding of their racial identity; 2) pre-existing beliefs; and 3) the impact of their beliefs on their teaching practices as well as their interactions with students (Sleeter, 1993; Solomon, et al., 2005; Tatum, 1992).

When educational data is examined, "the history of racism, classism, and exclusion in the United States stares us in the face. Systems of privilege and preference often create enclaves of exclusivity in schools, in which certain demographic groups are served well, while other languish in failure or mediocrity" (Howard, 2007, p. 19). Lawrence and Tatum (1997) reported that once a basic understanding of White identity has formed, teacher preparation programs can expose pre-service interns to the prevalence of White privilege using materials such as Peggy McIntosh's (1989) seminal piece, *White Privilege: Unpacking the Invisible Knapsack,* which offers a personal narrative of a White feminist becoming aware of her unearned privileges due to the color of her skin (Gibson & Abrams, 2007; McIntosh, 1989). Romero's (2008) study supported McIntosh's research. Romero reported that White Americans had been carefully taught not to recognize White Privilege just as McIntosh viewed White privilege as an "invisible weightless knapsack of special provisions, maps, passports, codebooks, visas, clothes, tools, and blank checks" (McIntosh, 1989, p. 1).

Through self-reflection, McIntosh (1989) explained her epiphany of beginning to understand how she could be viewed as oppressive even though she failed to identify herself in that way. She reminisced about enjoying unearned privilege. She recalled being taught that underprivileged people should work to be more like her. It is likely that such memories lead to the creation of McIntosh's list of *Daily White Privileges.* These privileges, she believed were received based solely on the color of her skin. For,

according to McIntosh, "as far as I can tell, my African- American coworkers, friends, and acquaintances with whom I come into daily or frequent contact in this particular time, place and time of work cannot count on most of these conditions" (p. 6). She warned her readers that confronting privilege can cause discomfort because schooling, she stated, "does not provide training for people to view themselves as oppressors, unfairly advantaged people, or as a participant in a damaged culture" (p. 1).

There are several issues concerning teacher preparation in relation to White privilege. Because teacher educators are mostly White, Middle-class females, teaching courses in early childhood education, it is their practices in particular, that dominate teacher education (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010). Adding to Galman et al.'s report of teacher educators, Ladson Billings (2001) offered information as to how this impacts future teachers. She reported that programs often reproduce the same type of teachers that they have always produced: White, middle-class female, early childhood education teachers. Thus, while the K-12 population is becoming more diverse, prospective teachers along with the faculty which prepares them remains the same - monocultural. McIntosh's (1989) list of privileges is not without contradiction. There are exceptions to most of the statements on the list. For example, simply acknowledging that Whites are privileged should not imply that only good things are experienced by Whites. Being privileged does not mean Whites are given everything in life for free.

The National Center of Educational Statistics' (NES) (2008) reported that in 2003, there were over 51,000 full-time faculty and staff employed in the nation's teacher education programs. The report also stated that almost 86% of teacher education faculty is White and 56% are female. Ladson-Billings (1995) stated, that numbers in isolation do

not offer any information about faculties' abilities. However, she has requested that educational scholars not ignore these statistics: "They may cause one to wonder about the incentive of teacher education programs to ensure that all of its graduates are prepared to work in diverse settings" (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 12).

According to Colin & Lund (2010), some White educators make conscious decisions privileging members of their racial group. Baumgartner and Johnson-Bailey (2010) reported that in order for White privilege to exist, "there must be a counterbalance, a system that disadvantages others, namely racism" (p. 27). The study of Whiteness examines ways in which Whiteness and White privilege have become institutionalized and identifies the systemic factors that emphasized its continuous power (Leonardo, 2002; Rodriguez, 2000; Solomon, Portelli, Daniel, & Campbell, 2005). Feminist educational scholar, Erica McWilliam (1994) underscored the problem: she reported that generally,

> The culture of teacher education has shown itself to be highly resistant to new ways of conceiving knowledge… issues of race, class, culture, gender, and ecology will continue to be marginalized while the teacher education curriculum is located in Eurocentric knowledge and practices"
> (p. 61).

The ongoing construction of racial identities has sometimes socialized Whites' in positions of power and authority (Solomon et al., 2005). White privilege and racism are interconnected and cannot be separated in discussion of racism in education. Some White educators allege that they are unaware of the privilege possessed due to their racial membership therefore they are unable to accept a correlation between this privilege and

racism. Furthermore, they are unaware of how it influences their attitudes and behaviors (Colin & Lund, 2010). It continues to be an ongoing struggle for some Whites to identify White privilege and actively seek to change racist perceptions, actions, and institutional policies and practices (Helms, 1990).

Intrigued by McIntosh's (1989) report, many teacher educators have required pre-service teachers to read the article. After such an assignment, scholars, Solomon and colleagues' (2005) revealed that the teacher candidates experienced discomfort when reading McIntosh's work. One White female in their study wrote:

> As children we are told repeatedly and with great conviction that all
> people are equal, regardless of race, class, ethnicity, or any other factor;
> that all people have the potential to do anything they choose. To begin to
> deal with these issues outlined in these articles is to go back and re-
> evaluate all of these very well intentional fantasies, to revamp our
> socialization and belief system to acknowledge the truth (p. 154).

The anxiety identified by teacher candidates when confronting whiteness can be regarded as an avenue to move the focus away from issues of racism and discrimination which indirectly illustrates privilege.

Various researchers (e.g., Colin & Lund, 2010; Helms, 1990; McIntosh, 1989; Leonardo, 2002; Rodriguez, 2009; Solomon et al., 2005) agreed that obliviousness about White advantage is strongly embedded in the U.S. culture due to attempting to retain the myth that we live in an equitable society. Keeping people unaware that privilege has been afforded to select groups keeps power in the hands of the people that most likely already possess it (McIntosh, 1989). Because over 80% of the nation's teachers (Lowenstein,

2009; NES, 2005) fall into this privileged group, preparation programs must examine the intersection of whiteness, privilege, beliefs, expectations, culture, and teaching if they are to work toward systemic change.

Effective teaching of cultural diversity in the profession of pre-service education requires an examination of social structures, institutions, and ways of knowing and being. Without such an examination, discussions of cultural diversity evolve into polite (or, in some cases, impolite) conversations that do little to transform the institutions that perpetuate cultural diversity largely as the basis for maintaining differential access to societal opportunities and rewards. Critical race theorists rebuke the phase of social construction by which 'facts' become a part of the conscious and unconscious. For example, in the psyche of the dominant group there is no challenge to the idea that the world belongs to them, resulting in White privilege (Abrams & Gibson, 2007).

Theories of White privilege have surfaced as a worthwhile field of study in teacher preparation. The theory challenges teacher educators, university supervisors, mentor teachers and teachers in training to examine their understanding of their racial beliefs and the impact of their identity and beliefs on their teaching practices and relationships with students. Systems of privilege in education have allowed some groups to effortlessly prosper, while other groups perish. Peggy McIntosh (1989), author of *White Privilege, Unpacking the Invisible Knapsack*, warned readers that confronting privilege can cause discomfort, especially to those who have been taught to ignore the concept of privilege altogether. Several researchers have discussed the difficulty in training one to view themselves as an oppressor. Some educators make conscious

decisions that privilege members of their racial groups; unfortunately, for privilege to exist for certain people, others must be disadvantaged.

Race Talk in Teacher Preparation

Merryfield (2000) maintained that a major reason why some teachers leave teacher education programs unprepared to teach in diverse settings is because of the lack of competence, experience, proficiency and commitment" of the teacher education faculty. To prepare teachers to work with culturally diverse students, teacher educators must honestly confront issues of race racism, and "their own role in perpetuating systems of oppression" (Richert, Donahue & LaBoskey, 2008; p. 226). This takes more than making "self-absorbed confessionals or baring one's soul to gain cathartic relief or public approval" (Cochran-Smith, p. 13).

The privilege of silence: Refusing to discuss 'race' in teacher education.

"Far too often, educators elect to exist in their ivory towers, never moving their ideas of democracy and equality past their writings or classroom lectures" (Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, & Cervero, 2005, p. 1266). Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey and Cervero advocated for educators to stop wasting time trying to determine "if" their practices are racist. According to the authors, "The answer to such a question is: Of course" (p. 1267). According to the researchers, this is true regardless of race or ethnicity. They offer alternative question instead: "How do I identify and begin the unending process of rooting out the racism, remembering that solutions are temporary because power systems will morph and find a way to undo change?" (p. 1267).

Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, and Cervero (2005) did not deny the importance of dialoguing about racism. However, they recommended that it be viewed as the first step

in a multifaceted process of undoing a racist system. An example of this is apparent in Frankenberg's (1993) study. Although the researcher found that "White women lacked awareness of how their positions in society related to men and women of color" (p. 9), she suggested that acknowledging the situation was the initial step to deconstructing racist beliefs. Thus, for White women who dominate teacher education, recognizing how racism and White privilege affects their lives is a necessary component of antiracist curriculum (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010). Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, and Cervero offered this advice: Shifting the way things are done, is best executed in an assembly of like-minded, but culturally diverse individuals. "Simply put, Whites can't get together to talk the good talk and solve the problems of "those" people. The very absence of others, especially, "those others," from the table reproduces the problem in just another form" (p. 1267).

Other scholars studying teacher educators, race, and culture such as Bueller, Gere, Dallavis, and Havilland (2009) found that teacher educators' avoidance of race conversations prohibited pre-service interns from engaging in race work. One methods instructor in their study saw it differently. The instructor recalled that when she "cautiously engaged students on issues of race… White students just sat there" (p. 229). Interestingly, Bueller et al.'s study revealed that Black students discussed wanting White students to "step up and engage with students of color who talk about race" (p. 229). Referring to White students not participating in discussions about race, one Black pre-service teacher said:

Not only do I feel like they don't think it's a problem, but I feel like they

should be the ones to [say], "That's not okay." They should address the

issue. It shouldn't just be our concern (p. 229).

Merryfield (2000) acknowledged that many teacher "educators have never examined

their own privilege or have no personalized learning of what it feels like to live as the

Other prepare K-12 teachers to teach for cultural diversity, equity and

interconnectedness" (p. 441). This might explain in part why today's colleges of

education are not successful in preparing teachers in multicultural and global education.

Karen Lowenstein (2009) offered another explanation. She reported, that if

teacher educators want pre-service teachers to embrace and endorse the ideology that K–

12 students are active participants in their education who offer resources to their learning,

then there is a need for a "parallel conception of teacher candidates as active learners who

bring resources to multicultural teacher education classrooms" (p. 163). The author

further stated that studies about pre-service teachers' perceptions of learning about

cultural diversity for the most part, are "largely absent, and there is little dialogue

centered on conceptions of White teacher candidates as learners in multicultural teacher

education" (p. 164). Lowenstein cautioned that this often leads teacher educators to

cluster all White pre-service teachers as deficient when it comes to knowledge about

cultural diversity. It is important, she noted, that even if there are interns to whom this

deficit belief applies, this view of pre-service teachers is not all encompassing. This view

often serves as a pass to apply a deficit view to all White prospective teachers:

Characterizing them as deficient learners when issues of cultural diversity are involved.

Given the typical understanding of the cultural mismatch of K-12 students and teachers, teacher educators often inquire as to how they will successfully prepare interns to identify how their students' academic experiences may be from their own. They ask interns about their assumptions of students who are less advantaged, whose first language is not English, and who are racially different? And how can teacher educators help pre-service teachers become more aware of their assumptions? There is a sense of "urgency" regarding these questions (Lowenstein, 2009). However, Lowenstein responded:

> I believe that we must first consider a critical question. How do we, as teacher educators, conceptualize our teacher candidates as learners about issues of diversity in our teacher preparation programs? In other words, what conceptualization of our learners is embedded in the work that we do? I believe that making explicit and closely examining these conceptualizations are critical steps in envisioning what teacher preparation regarding issues of diversity might look like. This type of work also can frame research that supports the creation of teacher preparation programs (p. 167).

The potential issues that have emerged from these studies concern the teacher educators' role in undoing racism. Discussions about racism are an important step, but should not be viewed as the only step. Teacher education faculties must stop avoiding race talks even when discomfort is inevitable. Black students should not become the "teachers of diversity" to substitute for cowardly teacher educators. Teacher educators should also not group White pre-service teacher and assign them deficit views when it comes to studying issues of cultural diversity.

The invisible educator: Faculty of color.

Several researchers' (e.g. Blackwell, 2003; Iverson, 2007) have reported concerns about invisibility of minority faculty in higher education: This has several ramifications: First, it results in the lack of curriculum content that speaks directly to minority experiences. Second, alienation is a common feeling among minority students faculty whose scholarly interests are often not valued by colleagues.

It is possible that minority faculty members feel that they have to accept the status quo in exchange for academic and professional success (Daniel, 2007). Because minority faculty members and students often have to maneuver through the educational program without mentors with whom they can identify (Daniel, 2007; Garcia & Van Soest, 2006), they sometimes feel pressured to silence their 'voice': To not make waves (Daniel, 2007). Another consequence of having a limited number of minority faculty members is that there is an increase in the likelihood that they will teach material that is frequently an inaccurate reflection of their lived experiences and may be of little relevance to their communities.

In these instances, both students and faculty of color feel invisible at best, if not outright dismissed (Garcia & Van Soest, 2006; Ortiz & Jani, 2010). The limited numbers of minority faculty skews cultural diversity issues in the research process and allows critical questions, such as how to promote social justice in communities of color, to go unanswered partially because faculty from the non-marginalized groups might not know how to answer these questions or may altogether unconsciously overlook the importance of these questions (Garcia & Van Soest, 2006). Although the majority of the teacher education faculty members are White, they are charged with providing a culturally

responsive education to prospective interns as well as arming the interns with the skills to be culturally responsive in their own classrooms. If the importance of culturally responsive teaching and antiracist teaching is overlooked or devalued at the university level, it is no wonder that it is missing in many schools districts at the K-12 level.

Not-so-hidden racism.

Scholars Dovidio and Gaertner (2000) referred to racism as a "bad virus that has mutated" (p. 25). The scholars reported that racism has advanced into various forms that are not only more difficult to identify, but also difficult to battle (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000). More recently, other researchers discussed new forms of racism as micro and macro social relations of critical race theory. Micro aggressions refer to actions directed at people usually without overt malicious intent. Often, the actions are in the form of remarks or behaviors directed at people of color from members of the dominant group. These actions reflect stereotypical beliefs, values, or behaviors that reinforce the social location of the group (Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000; Sue et al., 2007). Ortiz and Jani (2010) offered an example, "the assumption that students of color in Ivy League or other top-ranked universities were admitted because of affirmative action policies is a form of micro aggression" (p. 179). Another example is the case of a student, who approaches a faculty member and says, "I am learning so much in your research class. . . . I have never had a Latino professor before (p.179)." The subtext of both messages reinforced racially based generalizations, even though they appear to be intended as compliments. They underscore the perception that a particular minority person is an "exception" to the "everybody knows" rule (Ortiz & Jani, 2010, p. 179). By contrast Russell, (2006) defined macro aggressions as those not necessarily aimed at a

particular person, but at a group. Romero, (2008) provided an example to illustrate the concept: "the profiling of undocumented immigrants is not directed at them as individuals but in broad terms, such as "securing the borders" from "enemy combatants" (p. 29).

Other researchers have also investigated the concept of 'hidden-racism'. Gaertner and Dovidio (2000) examined issues of prejudice referred to as aversive racism: "This type of racism characterizes the racial attitudes of many Whites who endorse egalitarian values, who regard themselves as non-prejudiced, but who discriminate in subtle, rationalizable ways" (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000, p. 315). Because aversive racists consciously recognize and support egalitarian views, the way(s) in which they discriminate are not obvious. Against these frameworks, institutions can, be defined "as socially constructed mechanisms that regulate and set norms for social interaction. They reflect the beliefs and values of the dominant society and inherently reflect a racial bias" (Ortiz & Jani, 2010, p. 179).

Confronting Whiteness in Teacher Preparation

The task of preparing teachers for cultural diversity usually focuses on White teachers in light of the demographics of the teaching force and the privileges they incur (Milner, 2010). As Milner stated, all teacher educators, regardless of race, must examine themselves, commit to lifelong learning and adjust their practices to meet the needs of prospective teachers and ultimately K-12 students. The results of what happens in teacher preparation courses can be critical to the success of teachers as well as students.

Some educators shy away from topics of race feeling inadequate to teach such complex ideology. For example, a participant in Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger's, (2010) study reflected on teaching a classroom management lesson to interns. She

recalled using an example about trying to get Black 6 year-olds to act like 40 year-old White women. This comment appeared in her course evaluation where students labeled her a racist. She admitted that it was an inappropriate comment, and because of it, she was afraid to "ever go there again" (p. 232). Is it possible that these types of 'mistakes' lead to Black students becoming de facto teacher educators, while White educators get to glance over race talks or worse, silence them altogether (Bueller, Gere, Dallavis, & Havilland, 2009; Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010; Lea, 2004)?

Data from several studies (Bueller, Gere, Dallavis, & Havilland, 2009; Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger, 2010; Lea, 2004) suggested that teacher educators affirmed non-participation and silenced conversations about race; therefore missing opportunities to address racism in the teacher education program. Because instructors in this study (Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger, 2010) avoided race talks, the teaching about race became the unconscious charge of the black students. Although pre-service teachers of color are concerned that their white peers will be teaching children of color after graduation…they are tired of being positioned as the teachers of white people as indicated by one student of color below:

> Sometimes it burns, it pierces my soul when [another student of color]
> looks at me [implying] "I know how you feel about this", but I've stopped
> …being concerned…. I don't have the energy anymore. I'm not going to
> defend anything anymore (p. 231).

Now, teacher educator's unwillingness to 'go there' is not only silencing the White students, but the students of color are being silenced as well "via a campaign of exhaustion" (Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger, 2010, p. 232).

In light of conversations about teacher educators shying away from topics of race and cultural diversity, there are scholars who 'go against the grain'. They teach guided by their quest for social justice: This has been referred to as culturally relevant teaching (Ladson-Billings, 1994); multicultural education (Banks, 1993), teaching against the grain (Cochran-Smith, 1991); and culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2000; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Trailblazers in the field such as the aforementioned articulate a vision of teaching and learning in a diverse society (Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Villegas, 2007). Researchers Villegas & Lucas (2002) reported the need to examine and revise the teacher preparation curriculum in light of that vision. According to the researchers:

> We need to spend time coordinating the desired responsive teacher qualities with the courses we teach and the field experiences we offer. We need professional development that will help us model the responsive teaching strategies (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 30).

What about those trailblazers in teacher preparation who have answered the call to examine their own privilege and make the choice to use it to fight racism and take their place in creating a more equitable society (Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, & Cervero, 2005). Unraveling social dominance takes courage-- the type of courage shown by scholars Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger (2010), who rose to the challenge. They conducted a self-study as part of their research on confronting Whiteness. They realized that they "pathologized their White students as silent and disengaged when it came to race talks, the self-study data suggested that they, as White teacher educators, modeled and promoted their silence and disengagement" (p. 230).

One of the teacher educators wrote about her frustration with her colleagues who pushed students to converse about race. "They will resist, they aren't ready, emotionally, or intellectually. I think others are assuming that we can actually do this [have conversations about Whiteness] with them" (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, p. 230). An email from the same instructor read, "While I understand the urgency of our antiracist work, if I can't get the white students to perform basic tasks, how can they be ready to reflect critically on themselves and others?" (p. 230). At first glance, it could appear that this instructor adhered to the deficient model that Lowenstein (2009) accused teacher educators of grouping all White pre-service teachers as passive learners when deficient when it comes to issues of diversity. However, further analysis revealed that this instructor's priorities just simply did not include race work or at the very least placed it low on her priority list. Her belief that White students were not ready for these discussions could have been an indication of her own deficiency or lack of preparedness and willingness to converse about Whiteness (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010).

Contrastingly, another teacher educator in Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger's (2010) research favored unnerving White pre-service teachers. Her journal included the following entry:

> I believe they need to be unsettled and "started on" the journey of recognizing their identity in relation to the students they will teach…I do think we have a responsibility to plant the seeds, even though the seeds may not sprout until much later (p. 230).

The last participant in their self-study tried to cultivate race conversations in her course, but noticed that students were uninterested. This lecturer wrote about feelings of guilt and intimidation: "I don't want these folks leaving and thinking that they are bad white people" (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010, p. 230).

In a study of dispositions in education, Ann Villegas (2007) reported the need for teacher educators to confront injustices in education. She argued that teacher educators need to be more "precise and consistent (p. 378)" with the used of terms such as social justice and dispositions. Villegas called for teacher preparation programs to focus attention on assessing prospective teachers' dispositions as they relate to social justice. She admitted that not all of her colleagues agreed:

> I suspect that those who see no place for issues of social justice and
> dispositions in teacher preparation believe the primary goal of education is
> to prepare students with the knowledge and skills needed to serve as
> productive workers in the stratified socioeconomic system as it currently
> exists. They most likely believe that it is not the role of the schools to
> influence the larger socioeconomic system, but to provide educational
> opportunities for students, based on what their performance merits. They
> probably see schools, in their current form, as fair grounds for all students
> to prove their individual merit. They are apt to view knowledge as a body
> of "objective" and "uncontested" facts that reside "out there", independent
> of the knower. With this view of knowledge, they see little role for
> beliefs; instead, they think focusing on beliefs in teaching and learning is
> at best touchy-feely and at worst thought control" (Villegas, 2007, p. 378).

Those who "go against the grain", like Villegas, value the role of social justice in teacher education. They believe that dispositions related to social justice are important enough to be assessed. They believe that the "salient goal of public education is to enhance students' life chances and prepare them for responsible participation in a democracy" (Villegas, 2007, p. 378). Those who "go against the grain" integrate studies of racial identity theory into their courses (Goodwin, 1994). They accept that they are racialized persons making Whiteness an essential self-reflective practice without characterizing Whites as good or bad, understanding that all Whites, racist or not, have privileges merely because of the color of their skin (McIntosh, 1989; Scheurich, & Young, 1997).

These studies have acknowledged that some White educators do not have the experiential and academic background to prepare them for the increasing cultural diversity of their students (Ladson-Billings, 2002). For if, experiential knowledge of cultural diversity and equity is a quality needed in teacher preparation, recruitment and hiring teacher educators with these characteristics should be a goal in colleges of education (Merryfield, 2000). But, it is impractical to believe that a new cadre of teacher educators will be hired to develop new teacher preparation programs valuing cultural diversity and social justice (Merryfield, 2000), therefore, the current pool of teacher educators has been charged with the daunting task of preparing culturally responsive teachers (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 2001; Villegas & Lucas; 2002). Teacher education programs must closely examine the "congruence of goals in preparing teacher for cultural diversity and equity and the experiences and knowledge of their faculty" (Merryfield, 2000, p. 441).

Change is Difficult, Not Impossible

        Flaws in teacher preparation programs.

        Howard (2007) put it simply, stating that "change has to start with educators" (p.18). When considering why some teacher preparation programs are resistant to change, perhaps Ladson-Billing's (2001) the most poignant argument is that teacher educators resist change because "what they do is what they have always done" (p. 7). The scholar offered these hypothetical questions to further support her position: "Why change the traditional approach to teacher education? Why should faculty members take the time to analyze what is not working with a system that they do not believe is broken" (p.7)?

        But something is broken. There are preparation programs amidst communities comprised of many racial, ethnic, cultural and language groups that are still oblivious to cultural diversity (Ladson-Billings, 2001). The most current research published by NES (1999), reported that an overwhelming 80% of teachers who teach ethnically diverse students suggested feeling unprepared to meet their needs. Teacher educators fear being ostracized by their peers and therefore accept a monocultural curriculum (Blackwell, 2003).

        Garcia and Van Soest (1997) and Galman, Pica-Smith, and Rosenberger, (2010) warned teacher educators that the emotions evoked in such conversations places heightened pressure and responsibility on them to be responsive to process issues, including students' emotional needs . The researchers added, that even when instructors possess strategies to navigate through intensive class discussions and keep the focus on learning, the discomfort that they themselves may feel can lead to doubts about their own teaching efficacy (Garcia & Van Soest, 1997; Ronnau, 1994).

Topics of race are being silenced at the pre-service level. Black students are being forced to become de facto teacher educators. University-school immersion programs are being abandoned due to time constraints (Ladson-Billings, 2001). Political and economic changes have produced a population of African Americans who do not trust schools and education. Students who do not conform to specific behavioral expectations run the risk of being referred to special education (Kunjufu, 1984; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Diversity has become synonymous with "at-risk-ness" (Haberman, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Because of the attrition rate nationwide, the students with the most academic needs, are often taught by those least prepared to teach them (Ladson-Billings, 2001).

The difficulties of changing teacher education however, should not be mistaken with impossibilities (Ladson-Billings, 2001). Research provides evidence that it is possible for teachers with backgrounds different from their students to provide effective classroom instruction if they approach teaching in a way that is responsive to the cultural and linguistic diversity of their students (Gay, 2000). Consequently, it is crucial for teacher preparation programs to challenge not only to teach academic the skills necessary to increase students' learning, but to providing multiple experiences requiring pre-service teachers to critically examine issues of culture, linguistic diversity, poverty, and social justice (Darling-Hammond, French, & Garcia-Lopez, 2002). This type of reform offers the best hope for creating a teacher preparation program which graduates teachers who have not only the knowledge to work with diverse learners, but also the confidence to do so.

Teacher Efficacy

Confidence in teacher education is commonly referred to as teacher efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Teachers face many challenges that hinder their confidence and impact their students' learning (Bandura, 1987; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Caprara, Barbarenlli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003; Coladarci, 1992). To better understand these challenges, researchers have studied efficacy as t relates to teachers specifically (Chen & Bembenutty, 2005). Researchers agree that teacher efficacy has been correlated to significant factors such as instructional strategies, embracing innovative ideas, decreased teacher burn-out, increased job satisfaction, and commitment to teaching (Hoy & Spero, 1995 Hoy & Woolfolk, 2003; Rose & Medway, 1981; Saklofske, Michaluk & Randhawa, 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1993; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

Inasmuch as researchers have examined teacher efficacy, some scholars are specifically investigating the change in pre-service teachers' efficacy during their teacher training (Chen & Bembenutty, 2005). Although Gibson and Dembo (1984) are credited for the first reliable teacher efficacy measure; their instrument failed to specifically address the self-efficacy of pre-service interns. To address this population specifically, researchers Woolfolk and Hoy (2000) modified Gibson and Dembo's (1984) scale to use with pre-service interns. Woolfolk and Hoy found that interns with low teacher efficacy reported needing to 'control' the classroom: They were pessimistic of their students' motivation. The participants relied on rigid classroom management procedures, extrinsic rewards, and consequences.

Bandura (1977) reported that people tend to avoid tasks they believe they are incapable of successfully completing, but welcome and perform with confidence, tasks

they feel prepared to undertake. According to Bandura (1977, 1980), self-efficacy influences how long people will work at a task as well as the amount of effort they will use when facing adversary. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the more persistent are one's efforts (Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980). On the contrary, perceived inefficacies or low levels of confidence often results in people undermining their competencies (Bandura, 1980). Bandura (1977, 1980) reported that although there are obvious disadvantages to underestimating one's capability, misjudgments of efficacy in both directions are problematic. People who grossly overestimate their capabilities accept challenges that are clearly beyond their skill level. As a result, they situate themselves in difficult situations and suffer unnecessary distress, failures, and sometimes injuries. Those who underrate their capabilities, often suffer from thinking things are more complex than they actually are (Bandura, 1977, 1980). Such beliefs foster stress, depression, and a narrow vision of how best to solve problems (Pajares, 1996). Teachers with low self-efficacy beliefs typically avoid valuable experiences that could expand their competencies (Bandura, 1980).

Because of the stress associated with the first years of teaching, some novice teachers' teaching efficacy fails to increase (Ladson-Billings, 2000; Rushton, 2000, 2001). In a study conducted by researchers Milner and Woolfolk Hoy (2003) confident new teachers gave higher ratings to the support received than those who ended their year questioning their competence. Efficacious novice teachers indicated greater optimism that they would remain in the field of teaching. They cited their teacher preparation as contributing significantly to their higher self-efficacy than those who were less efficacious.

When teachers are faced with external factors and feel less confident in their ability to change those factors, such as those in Haberman and Rickards' (1990) study, they often abandon the profession. Interestingly, their study, found that of 50 urban teachers who had left the Milwaukee Public School system, nine of the top 12 reasons cited for leaving were external causes including lack of support, and insufficient resources. It is possible that the teachers in the study attributed failure to those external causes (Haberman and Rickards, 1990). "This becomes problematic when teachers' effort and persistence subsequently decline due to perceived external constraints" (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008, p. 174).

Woolfolk and colleagues (2005) also reported declines in self-efficacy. Declines reported in the first years of teaching were attributed, in part to the absence of a support system provided by the university and mentor teacher, which did not occur until real teaching, began. Many interns are naïve about the reality of actually teaching. Through the observations of high performing mentor teachers, interns can begin to build a portfolio of efficacy increasing strategies (Hoy, 2000). Their findings indicated that teachers with high self-efficacy know what to teach, how to teach it, and are willing to differentiate instruction to meet the diverse needs of their students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Pre-service teachers should have opportunities to observe a mentor teacher who fits the above model (Aydin & Hoy, 2005).

Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy (2008) further examined the relationship of teacher efficacy and the school context. They asserted that there can be striking differences between schools in suburban and urban settings. Although teacher salaries in urban districts are usually comparable with other districts in their metropolitan area, the

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neighborhoods surrounding the schools tend to be poor (Lomotey & Swanson, 1989).

Comparatively speaking it appears that urban schools face more challenges regarding

resources, teacher quality and supply, and discipline than do suburban schools

(Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008).

Albert Bandura (1977) is credited with explaining how efficacy affects behavior.

People accept tasks which they feel prepared to do and avoid those they consider outside

of their realm of capability. It has been widely noted that teachers face challenges which

impact their teaching confidence, consequently impacting their students' learning. In an

effort to understand these challenges, researchers have studied factors found to be related

to teacher efficacy. In addition, examining the efficacy changes in teacher candidates has

emerged as a worthwhile field of study. Because most efficacy measurements failed to

address this population of teachers specifically, several educational scholars including

Woolfolk and Hoy (2000) have worked to adapt Gibson & Dembo's (1984) original

teacher efficacy measure. Teachers with higher levels of teacher efficacy reported being

optimistic about remaining in the field and knowing what and how to teach, while those

with low teacher efficacy often experience burn-out and avoid valuable experiences.

Thus, understanding pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy can help teacher

preparation programs consciously include efficacy building opportunities into the

curriculum.

Efficacy building opportunities in teacher preparation.

Because there is evidence to support that teacher's beliefs are related with student

achievement, teacher preparation programs' reform efforts have begun to provide interns

with more efficacy-building opportunities (Hoy, 2000). Efficacy is grounded in the social

cognitive theoretical framework, emphasizing the development and exercise of human agency—the idea that people have influence over their behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Bandura (1986, 1997) listed four main sources of self-efficacy beliefs with mastery experiences viewed as the most important source of self-efficacy (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Pajares, 1996).

Theoretical perspectives.

Because Bandura (1977) deemed mastery experiences to be critical to increases in efficacy, attention to factors supporting the development of high efficacy among pre-service teachers is worthy of study. Recalling that Bandura defined vicarious experiences as those in which skills are modeled by someone else, for the purposes of this research, the models are the mentors teachers, university supervisors and teacher education faculty. The more interns identify with quality models, the stronger the impact will be on the interns' efficacy beliefs.

Another concept of interest to the development of teacher candidates offered by Bandura (1977) is social persuasion. Social persuasion in teacher preparation is often illustrated by constructive feedback from a supervisor or a colleague (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Although social persuasion in isolation may do little to change efficacy beliefs, it can contribute to successful performances: A persuasive boost in self-efficacy leads teachers (both in-service and pre-service) to repeatedly initiate tasks, attempt new strategies, or try harder to succeed (Bandura, 1982). Social persuasion may counter occasional setbacks that might have instilled enough self-doubt to interrupt persistence. The potency of persuasion depends on the credibility, trustworthiness, and expertise of the persuader-interns' models (Bandura, 1986). Aydin & Hoy's (2005) study supported

the need for social persuasion in teacher education. They found that the support from the environment-university supervisors and mentor teachers were both significant factors of efficacy information for prospective teachers. This information suggests more support and feedback from mentors and university supervisors would be valuable sources of information for field experience students.

Sources of efficacy.

Pajares (1992) reported that interns' beliefs [e.g., teaching beliefs, cultural beliefs, beliefs about schools in various settings] are well established by the time they enter college. The study by Phillion, Miller, and Lehman (2005) is indicative of pre-service teachers' existing beliefs about urban schools in particular. One student in their study wrote,

> I had a stereotypical image of what things would look like engrained into
>
> my brain. I imagined filthy classrooms without textbooks and other
>
> necessities. I imagined students who really did not want to be at school,
>
> who were worldlier than I am, and who were immune to violence (p. 6).

Interns' beliefs begin when interns first enter school and can continue to develop during what Lortie (1975) coined as 'the apprenticeship of observation'. Because interns have completed at least 12 years of schooling hence, 12 years to create beliefs, it should be noted that teacher preparation programs have a limited amount of time to actually transform pre-service teachers' beliefs (Pajares, 1992). There are studies such as Phillion, Miller, and Lehman's (2005) report provided evidence of a change in pre-service interns' beliefs after taking a course designed to educate them about issues of diversity. The researchers reported that the experience helped to counter stereotypes about students in

low-income areas. More importantly, it provided exposure to a model [classroom teacher] working with diverse students. Another participant in their study reflected specifically on the mentor teacher:

> The teacher focused much of her time on adapting lessons for each child because she has a very diverse classroom. I learned that every student is different and has different needs. If you comply with the needs of every individual child, each student will greatly benefit (Phillion, Miller, & Lehman, 2005, p.6).

Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy's (2008) study found that there are several factors that "may play a role in the developing efficacy beliefs of the student teacher" (p. 167). Mentor teachers for example, provide self-efficacy information for pre-service interns in the form of vicarious experience and verbal persuasion. However, in terms of the efficacy beliefs of the mentor teacher, the research is limited (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008).

Collective teacher efficacy is another such factor. Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) defined collective teacher efficacy perceptions of teachers in a setting [school] that together the schools' faculty can have a positive impact on students. The school's geographical location was another factor found to impact student teachers' efficacy scores. Those placed in urban settings exhibited significantly lower perceived collective efficacy than student teachers in other settings. In addition to school's location and collective teacher efficacy, the researchers reported mentor teachers can also play a prominent role in the development of the student teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Teachers' level of confidence about ability to promote learning can depend on past experiences or on the school culture (Protheroe, 2008).

Building on the work of Bandura, Hoy (2000) discusses other factors that can impact a teacher's sense of efficacy such as vicarious experiences – feeling confident to try new strategies because they have actually observed another teacher using effective strategies; and social persuasion – in school environments this could take the form of pep talks or feedback highlighting effective teaching behaviors while simultaneously providing specific ways to improve (Protheroe, 2008).

Domain specific teaching efficacy in teacher preparation.

Studies of domain- specific teaching efficacy have been a subject of interest. Researchers Swars et al. (2006) examined not only the change in interns' beliefs in context, but also the change of beliefs in a particular domain. The results of their study showed that the deep-rooted beliefs about teaching math that pre-service teachers entered the teacher education program with changed by the end of their teaching preparation.

Consistent with other research about changing the beliefs of pre-service interns (Villegas, 2007; Wilkins & Brand, 2005), Swars and colleagues (2006) found that as a result of their Math course, pre-service teachers became more efficacious about their abilities to teach mathematics effectively and to influence student learning. Similarly, while studying the constructs of teaching self-efficacy, anxiety, and science knowledge in pre-service elementary teachers, Czerniak & Chiarelott (1991) concluded that teachers with high teaching self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to use inquiry- and student-centered teaching strategies in their content area, whereas teachers with low teaching self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to lecture and read from the text.

Researchers contend that students' academic achievement can be positively affected by teachers with higher levels of teacher self-efficacy, mainly through the

relationship between higher self efficacy and higher levels of classroom quality (de Laat & Watters, 1995). Milner (2005a) identified barriers to quality teaching such as deficit thinking and cultural or racial mismatches. He maintained that these barriers exist in America's classrooms leading to "inaccurate, incorrect and harmful perceptions of diverse students" (p. 771). According to Milner, these perceptions can "prevent teachers from developing effective lessons that might better meet the needs of diverse learners" (p. 771).

Therefore there is a need to explore the diverse (cultural and social) perspectives of pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2007). Darling-Hammond and colleagues (2002) argue that teacher education programs must teach not only the skills necessary to increase pre-service interns' subject-matter knowledge; they must consistently require interns to critically examine issues of culture, linguistic diversity, poverty, and social justice (Darling-Hammond, French, & Garcia-Lopez, 2002). Teacher preparation programs have begun to include culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy-building practices into the curriculum including field experiences (Delpit, 1992; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2000; Milner, 2005a; Siwatu, 2007; Taylor & Sobel, 2001).

Knoblauch and Hoy (2008) presented the role of the mentor teacher as one of the most important sources of efficacy information for prospective teachers (p. 168). As such, mentor teachers possess a critical role in changing efficacy judgments of pre-service teachers (Aydin & Hoy, 2005; Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008; Li & Zang, 2000) and it is therefore important to examine the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies of pre-service interns, but also the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies of the mentors hosting them. It has been

reported that support from the environment (faculty and supervisors) are instrumental in efficacy building as well (Aydin & Hoy, 2005; Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008). Researchers Aydin and Hoy's (2005) study suggest the need to examine the roles of the field experience supervisors' and teacher education faculty members' ability to provide culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy building opportunities for interns.

This review of the literature suggests that teacher training programs can in fact; alter prospective teachers' beliefs and actions. While some researchers recognized significant changes among some prospective teachers' beliefs, other beliefs remained constant. Milner (2009) believed that diversity courses should empower pre-service teachers rather than forcing them to think in a particular way. Studies have reported that their [White] participants seemed to misunderstand the social construction and relationship of identity, lived experiences, and behavior. They saw themselves as ''normal'', and those different from them were perceived as the "other''. The "others" were the ones who needed to be taught how to assimilate into the dominant [normal] group (Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, & Cervero, 2005; Milner, 2009; Mohan, 2009). Clearly, understanding the nature of change among pre-service teachers is important; however, providing ways to assess the pr-service teachers' progress and understanding is an altogether a more multifaceted situation (Milner, 2005b).

The literature is rich with studies on generalized teaching efficacy. Several researchers are studying Math (Swars et al., 2006) and Science (Czerniak & Chiarelott, 1991) teaching efficacy specifically, though research investigating other domain specific self-efficacy is limited. Bandura (1994) asserted that efficacy beliefs are context specific, even to the degree of situational specific. Therefore, focused studies about domain

specific teaching efficacy beliefs, such as cultural responsiveness are justified. The significance of university's role in altering the traditional teaching perspectives developed during the teacher candidate's field experiences is still questioned by several researchers (Milner, 2010; Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003; Sleeter, 2001; Villegas, 2007; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). There is agreement however, that new teachers are confronted with a set of organizational norms and values, usually espoused by their university instructors that are in direct conflict with real teaching situations (Milner, 2009; Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003).

Outcome Expectancy

Unlike self-efficacy, outcome expectancy is the result of engaging in a particular behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1993; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Pajaras, 1996; Siwatu, 2007). Bandura (1986) explained that through cognitive processes and life experiences, people develop a generalized expectancy about specific action-outcome relationships. Moseley and Angle, (2009) summarized outcome expectancies as an individual's estimate of the likely consequences of performing that task at the level of expected competence: "The personal conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to perform the task" (p. 474-475). Teachers with low outcome expectancies often perceive students' external circumstances as serious obstacles to their academic success (Guskey, 1987, 1988, 1998).Researchers such as Tournaki and Podell (2005) and Weinstein and Middlestadt (1979) believed that teachers often provide higher quality instruction to students from whom they expect more. The researchers also stated that students may internalize the teacher's expectations and become motivated to achieve consistent with the perceived expectations (Tournaki & Podell, 2005; Weinstein & Middlestadt, 1979).

Scholars, Terrill and Mark (2000) found that pre-service teachers had significantly different expectations for students from different racial minority and linguistic backgrounds as well as for students in different settings (urban and suburban). Their study supported previous reports by researchers such as Carter and Goodwin (1994) and Irvine (1990) who found that teachers often have lower expectations of students belonging to racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups different from their own. Teacher educators have been charged to provide opportunities for students to safely confront biased or prejudiced ideas and behaviors (Griffin, 1997). Methods courses in teacher preparation programs have been reported as one avenue of answering this challenge.

Researcher, Stipek (2004) studied the relationship between school quality, teachers' beliefs, and the nature of classroom instruction (outcome expectancy) in several elementary schools. A set of correlations revealed that teachers' beliefs were highly predictive of their teaching practices. This has significant implications for teacher education: Teachers' beliefs about how children learn, particularly at- risk children, need to be addressed in colleges of educations' reform efforts.

Summary

The constructs of culturally responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancy involves believing in one's ability to execute the practices of culturally responsive teaching and (2) believing in the positive outcomes associated with this pedagogical approach (Siwatu, 2007). These beliefs may predict whether pre-service teachers implement these culturally responsive teaching practices once they enter the classroom (Bandura, 1977; Siwatu, 2007). Although, the value of teacher efficacy research to teacher educators and teacher education programs has been questioned

(Wheatley, 2005). Using the results of the *Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy* and *Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Belief* scales (Siwatu, 2006) can be used in teacher education as a part of reform efforts with a focus on preparing teachers to educate all students (Siwatu, 2007; Villegas, 2007).

In spite of the recent criticisms of teacher preparation programs (Villegas, 2007), most improvement efforts have remained focused on changing the behaviors or educators, rather than working on both beliefs and behaviors (Guerra & Nelson, 2009). Research reveals that for transformative changes to take place, beliefs and assumptions must be addressed (Freire, 1970; Kaufmann, 2010; Mezirow, 1991; Tatum, 1994). Hesitation to address the underlying deficit beliefs of educators contributes to the lack of permanent change (Pohan, 1996). Zeichner (1999) reported the need to research how learning experiences are interpreted and assigned meaning by prospective teachers. Ultimately, the viewpoints of pre-service teachers must be considered to inform and reform the efforts made by teacher education programs to address cultural diversity issues teacher preparation programs and conceptualize interns as active learners (Lowenstein, 2009; Zeichner, 1999). Although the literature is rich with reasons "why" culturally responsive teaching is important, scholars differ in their opinions as to how best to prepare teachers to be culturally responsive. It has been noted that while the goal of teacher education programs may be to develop culturally responsive teachers, the path in which to do so will vary (Nelson & Guerra, 2009).

However, there is agreement that developing culturally a responsive teacher relies on the entire teacher preparation program. Teacher education programs have to use a variety of activities to help pre-service teachers explore their own cultural identity and

that of their future students who culture may be different than their own. Lack of understanding of these differences can have negative consequences for [K-12] students (Nelson & Guerra, 2009). For example, Milner (2009) reported that one of his participants grasped the fundamental themes and objectives of the course. The intern's performance on the assignments in the course, for instance, did not demonstrate a lack of knowledge and understanding. However, during her interview at the end of the semester, Milner learned that the intern had missed some of the most fundamental issues the researcher attempted to address.

In essence, much more research needs to be conducted in order to understand the complex learning and change among prospective teachers. That is, how do courses and other experiences in teacher education ensure that teachers develop the competencies necessary to improve their teaching with diverse students? Prospective teachers must be afforded mastery experiences where their field components have been carefully planned in lieu of the random matching process used by many colleges of education (Bandura, 1986, 1994; Turner, 2008). They must be provided a safe environment to reflect on their beliefs (Ladson-Billings, 2001) while being guided by mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher education faculty members. These guides must also be properly trained to help interns confront negative beliefs and transform them into cultural lenses used to view students' cultural differences as benefits instead of deficiencies (Nelson & Guerra, 2009). Once teacher preparation programs have begun to meet this goal, they should continue this work, as transforming beliefs is not an end, but a journey.

Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that because pre-service interns are still naïve in thinking about working with diverse cultures in schools, their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy responses will be inflated, producing an artificial level of confidence; higher than the confidence levels of mentor teachers actually working in the field (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003). Additionally, because the college's and the university's mission statements indicate commitment to preparing professionals for culturally diverse urban settings (Diversity Action Plan, 2009; NCATE, 2008), it is hypothesized that teacher educators will be more confident than university supervisors in their ability to assist pre-service interns with using culturally responsive strategies.

It was hypothesized that several variables would contribute to the CRTSE score of each group of participants: (1) Pre-service interns - race/ethnicity, age, geographical location of home residence, geographical location of field experience and the amount of time spent in the field (pre-professional, methods, practicum, and student teachers); (2) mentor teachers - race/ethnicity, years teaching, designation of school district (urban, suburban, urban/suburban), education level and geographical location of home residence; (3) university supervisors - gender, ethnicity, geographical location, highest level of education, geographical location of teaching experiences including student teaching, most current K-12 teaching assignment, length of time as a full-time teacher, and experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study. Lastly for in examining efficacy of teacher educators, the following variables were analyzed: gender, ethnicity, geographical location, highest level of education, geographical location of teaching experiences including student teaching, length of time working in teacher

preparation, geographical location of the majority of previous K-12 teaching assignments, length of time as a full-time K-12 teacher and experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study.

Lastly, it was hypothesized that as pre-service interns evolve throughout their teacher preparation program, completing more field experience hours, that their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies would increase.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study will present primarily quantitative research that will investigate culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies in one mid-western university's teacher preparation program. Specifically, the purpose of this study will be to examine patterns in culturally responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancies between interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators in an urban teacher education program. This section will include (1) research questions, (2) research context, (3) population and sample, (4) confidentiality and human rights protection, (5) data collection methods, (6) independent and dependent variables, (7) instrumentation, and (8) data analysis.

Research Questions

The research questions that will guide this study are:

1. How confident are pre-service interns and mentor teachers in their ability to be culturally responsive?

2. How confident are supervisors and teacher educators in their ability to provide culturally responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities?

3.   To what extent do the demographic variables contribute to the culturally

responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, mentor

teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators?

4.   Do the culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome

expectancies of different cohorts of pre-service teachers suggest consistent

patterns of responses?

Research Context

   The teacher preparation program.

The setting for this study will include one mid-western urban university's teacher

education program. As part of the research context, the following documents were

reviewed: 1) The research site's Diversity Action Plan, (2009); 2) The Office of Field

Services Handbook (2010-2011); and 3) The Book of Trends (2009). The Office of Field

Services Database (2010-2011) was also used. According to the university's Diversity

Action Plan, this particular College of Education has been distinguished as being the only

nationally ranked College of Education in its state for graduating African-American

students seeking teaching licensure at the graduate level. In late 2009, the College was re-

accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)

using the latest rubric that includes diversity. It surpasses other colleges at the university

in the diversity of faculty and students and has "a unique global dimension in that 15 of

its faculty were foreign born" (p. 37). The college is home of the Confucius Institute, and

has recently partnered with the largest public school system in the city in establishing a

K-12 Campus International School. According to the Diversity Action Plan:

The standards that govern the College's preparation programs for teachers

and other school personnel clearly indicate that one of the primary

objectives of any reputable teacher education program must be that of

preparing teachers for a world in which diversity—in all its multiple

forms—is an ever-growing hallmark of educational reality. At all levels of

the educational enterprise issues of race, class, cultural difference, gender

and exceptionality increasingly permeate discussions of educational

purpose, curriculum development, pedagogical strategies, and assessment.

In keeping with this objective, the theme of diversity is woven throughout

the College of Education and Human Services' programs. For example,

the conceptual framework that governs the College's teacher education

programs clearly states, "the idea of diversity is of central significance,

particularly in urban settings where issues surrounding race,

culticulturalism, socio-economic status, and exceptionality are in higher

focus than in the larger society (p. 37-38).

The document also reported that teachers will be required to understand the nature

and significance of all aspects of diversity. Accordingly, the role of gender, culture, race,

socio-economic status, and exceptionality that is molding pre-service teachers' academic

career has to be given careful attention (NCATE, 2008). Furthermore, the College

believes that understanding the role, nature, and significance of cultural diversity is

insufficient: graduates of this teacher preparation program must be prepared to select or

create academic objectives, teaching pedagogy, and assessment strategies befitting of

their understanding of cultural diversity in all its social and developmental varieties. The

College of Education and Human Services has established an Ad Hoc Committee on Diversity to nurture faculty self-reflection, discussion, and practice about issues of diversity.

Pre-service teachers enrolled in this college's teacher preparation program usually progress through four different phases during their education: the pre-education phase, the methods phase, the practicum phase, and lastly the student teaching phase. Each phase is briefly described below.

Pre-education classes.

Pre-education classes are offered to students who have recently been admitted or are in the process of being admitted to the College of Education. Students usually take these classes during their second year at the university, although a small number of second or third semester first-year students are eligible to enroll. These courses are usually general education courses such as English and Math. The Introduction to Teaching course is also considered a *pre-education class*. *The Introduction to Teaching* course usually offers two different possibilities for students to engage in field experiences. Students enrolled in this course are required to visit a school of their choice, interview a teacher, and write a reflection of their visit. Often, there is an optional tutoring opportunity in one of the urban schools with which the university partners.

Methods field experience.

The methods field experiences are typically the first opportunity that pre-service teachers have to spend extensive time in a classroom as teaching interns. Among other general education courses, methods interns are usually enrolled in two required courses, Diversity in Educational Settings and Social Foundations of Education. The Office of

Field Services (OFS) collaborates with methods instructors to make field placements for interns. Most of the placements are completed in urban settings. Methods instructors serve as the supervisors for methods experiences.

The OFS Handbook reported that together, course instructors and mentor teachers help methods interns understand the curriculum, locate relevant resources, identify appropriate instructional strategies, and assemble thorough and workable lesson plans. As they teach, they will need guidance and supervision, particularly with classroom management and questioning strategies. Interns should have sufficient opportunities to complete course requirements. In addition, it is important for methods interns to have significant amounts of time observing instruction and talking to teachers about their teaching. Methods interns need opportunities to observe high-quality teaching, as outlined in the College of Education's Model of Teaching. The handbook also reported that pre-service interns need opportunities to ask questions which will help them to understand how teachers think. Methods interns frequently have guided observation activities requiring them to observe a particular aspect of classroom teaching.

Many methods classes require field components for interns to interact with students to reflect on educational psychology principles from the perspectives of students in authentic settings. Although, it should not be assumed that methods interns are proficient in lesson planning, they are required to complete at least one lesson plan as well as a small amount of instructional activity including, tutoring, small-group or limited whole group instruction.

Practicum field experience.

After the methods' phase, students normally advance into the practicum stage of teacher preparation. The teacher preparation program in this particular College requires a practicum or "practicum like" field experience where pre-service interns spend approximately 240 hours in the field. OFS also makes the placements for interns completing the practicum experience. Most practicum interns have the option of requesting an urban or suburban placement, but OFS does not guarantee that such requests can be granted. Because there is usually no instructor (teacher educator) associated with the practicum experience, OFS assigns each intern a university supervisor to assess the intern's ability to construct and deliver lesson plans, interact with students, and provide feedback for their portfolio.

The focus of the practicum experience is on providing a space for interns to work cooperatively with a mentor teacher. The experience offers interns the opportunity to assume the responsibility of teaching under the guidance of an experienced teacher. Practicum interns do not possess the same level of proficiency as student teachers, but they are usually considered more proficient than methods interns. Practicum interns spend approximately four hours per day in the field, over 4 or 5 days, depending on licensure area. Most students completing practicum take several additional education content-specific (e.g. Science, Social Studies) courses simultaneously.

According to the OFS Handbook (2010-2011), the practicum intern's role is two-fold:

1. Practicum interns are to study the teaching and learning process through observation and reflection.

2.	Practicum interns are should serve as co-teachers working closely with their mentor teacher to co-plan and co-teach.

The OFS Handbook (2010-2011) suggests that practicum interns begin their experience by making general observations and then proceed to tutoring individual and small groups of students. Interns should help with administrative routines, prepare teaching materials, assess student work, participate in parent conferences, staff meetings or in-service activities, and perform other responsibilities as assigned.

Practicum interns have scheduled time to collaborate with their mentor teacher in planning or reflecting on teaching. When possible, practicum interns should be given an opportunity to teach a variety of content as appropriate to the licensure area. The major goal of the practicum is for the intern to teach a 2-3 week unit in a minimum of two classes prior to the end of the experience. Practicum interns keep a journal with detailed written reflections on their experiences. During the last week of the experience, it is appropriate for the intern to assume the role of an observer again: after having assumed the role of "teacher" for an extended period of time, the practicum intern may make more effective use of observational opportunities.

Student teaching field experience.

The OFS Handbook (2010-2011) described the student teaching experience as the capstone experience for the pre-service interns: It is the final stop along the way to earning a provisional teaching license. The focus of the student teaching internship is to experience the full responsibility of teaching at least eight weeks during the semester under the guidance of an experienced teacher. The student teaching internship begins with an orientation to the school. Then interns begin to observe their mentor teacher as

well as other teachers at the site. Mentor teachers and university supervisors should expect that student teaching interns are prepared to take on independent instructional responsibilities within the first three weeks of the semester. The university supervisor and mentor teacher will discuss how and when the student teacher assumes increased responsibilities, which should gradually increase until the intern is responsible for the entire day (or a minimum of four classes per day for secondary interns) by the fifth week of the semester.

During student teaching, mentors create conditions closely simulating the work of a full-time teacher. Mentors co-plan with interns in the beginning of the semester to help student teachers understand the dynamics of their classrooms. Mentors should also provide feedback on lesson plans and teaching. However, mentors should allow interns to make mistakes during this experience offering reflection opportunities for interns to learn from their mistakes.

Student teaching interns will become responsible for all planning and teaching in addition to the mentors' other responsibilities including, but not limited to, creating instructional materials, grading and keeping a record of student work, conducting conferences, providing assistance for individual students as needed, monitoring study halls or lunches, attending professional in-service and staff meetings, attending school open houses, and any other assigned responsibilities.

It is important to note that consistent with the university's mission as an urban university, the College of Education mandates that pre-service teachers complete either their practicum or student teaching experience in an urban setting (NCATE, 2008). Additionally, student teaching interns at the research site used in this study must

demonstrate proficiency on all 12 program outcomes/standards: 1) Personal Philosophy;

2) Social Foundations; 3) Knowledge of Subject Matter and Inquiry; 4) Knowledge of

Development and Learning; 5) Diversity; 6) Learning Environments; 7) Communication;

8) Instructional Strategies; 9) Assessment; 10) Technology; 11) Professional

Development; and 12) Collaboration and Professionalism (NCATE, 2008). In some

licensure areas, students also take one university class concurrently with student teaching.

Participants

The teacher preparation program at the college used in this study is comprised of

four primary groups: pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and

teacher education faculty. It is important for this study to examine the culturally

responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancy of each group, therefore, all

pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators who

were active in this teacher preparation program from 2007-2010 will be invited to

participate.

Pre-service interns.

All pre-service interns enrolled in the institution's teacher preparation program

during the 2010-2111 academic school years will be invited to participate in the study.

According to the college's Book of Trends (2009), and the Fall 2010 Preliminary

Enrollment Report, there are 2486 students (1165 undergraduate, 795 graduate, 31 post-

baccalaureate students) enrolled in the College of Education; 74% are female, 26% are

male, 61% are White, 23% are African-American, 6% are Hispanic, and .01% are Asian.

The College of Education houses programs other than teacher licensure programs (i.e.

Counseling, Administration, Adult Learning and Development, Allied Sport Professions,

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Nursing, Organizational Leadership). Although the College of Education has 2486 students enrolled, only those students seeking a teaching license meet the criteria for this study.

Therefore, the Office of Field Services' (2010) database was used to select the pre-service intern participants. According to the OFS database, only 1335 pre-service interns who meet the criteria to participate in this study. The majority of pre-service interns (29%) are between the ages of 21 and 25 years old. Of the interns, 27% are Special Education majors, 21% are Early Childhood Education majors, followed closely by Secondary Education majors (20%). Students seeking a Middle Childhood license comprise 12% of the population while Art, Music, and Physical Education programs each have 8% of the students enrolled. Five percent of the interns are enrolled in the Modern Languages program, and 4% are Speech interns (OFS Database, 2010).

Mentor teachers.

The relationship between the intern and the mentor teacher is central to the process of developing into a professional teacher. Practicum and student teaching internships specifically, allow interns to apply theoretical concepts in the classroom. One of the ways this is done is with daily guidance and support of an experienced mentor teacher who has committed to become part of the teacher education process, hence in-service teachers who served as mentor teachers from spring 2010 - spring 2011 academic years were invited to participate in the study; therefore the potential sample size was 762.

The demographics submitted by mentor teachers to the OFS Database (2010) are the following: Of the mentor teachers, who reported their ethnicity to OFS, 91% are White, 5% are Black, 2% are Native American, and 2% are Hispanic. An overwhelming

96% of the mentor teachers who reported their gender are female. Thirty-three percent of the mentor teachers are Special Education teachers, 31% are Early Childhood teachers, 18% are Middle Childhood teachers, 16% are Secondary teachers, and the remaining 2% of the teachers work as Music, Physical Education, Art, Speech or Foreign Language teachers.

According to the OFS Handbook (2010-2011), mentor teachers are required to have a current teaching license or certificate, at least three years of teaching in the area in which they will be mentoring, a principal's recommendation, and in some circumstances, teachers will need a Central Office administrator's approval before being accepted as a mentor teacher of pre-service interns. Mentors teachers are expected to attend at least one professional development workshop offered by OFS, during the semester in which they are employed. Although, methods mentor teachers do not receive a stipend, they are eligible for a mini grant of up to $200 for their service. Mentors of practicum and student teaching interns receive a voucher for one graduate credit hour or $300 for a full semester of mentoring or $150 for a half of a semester.

University supervisors.

The OFS Handbook (2010-2011) defined the university supervisor as the individual who assumes responsibility for the supervision of the pre-service practicum or student teaching intern. The university supervisor visits interns at their assigned schools and holds regular seminars. The university supervisor works as the liaison between the Office of Field Services and school personnel to provide realistic, relevant teaching experiences for the university interns. The term "supervisor" can be confusing because

interns may have multiple types of supervisors. The "supervisor" can include any of the following:

- A full-time faculty member

- A part-time adjunct instructor

- A Classroom Teacher Educator, (CTE) a mentor teacher who has received additional training and endorsement.

In each case, the supervisor is responsible for guiding interns through a combination of observing, coaching, and evaluating. Occasionally, interns will work with two supervisors, where one supervisor oversees the field portion of the internship while the other supervisor hosts the intern in seminar meetings and oversees the intern's written work.

University supervisors who have worked with pre-service interns within the last 3 semesters were invited to participate in the study, therefore the potential sample size was 87. Of the one 87 supervisors, 41% (N=36) are also faculty members in the teacher preparation program in the College of Education at the university used for this study. The researcher decided it was more valuable to collect their responses as teacher educators and removed them from the university supervisor's population. This reduced the sample size from 87 to 51 participants.

The Office of Field Services database (2010-2011) revealed that of the total population of university supervisors, 63% are female and 73% are White. Twenty-two percent the supervisors are considered Secondary supervisors. Middle childhood, Early Childhood, and Special Education supervisors each make up 19% of the supervisor population. The remaining 15% of the university supervisors are comprised of Foreign

Language, Physical Education, Music, TESOL, or Art supervisors combined. Two

percent of the supervisors work with Bilingual and Speech interns.

Teacher educators.

Lastly, teacher educators, both full and part-time faculty will also be asked to take

part in the study. Teacher educators teach one to several education courses and serve as

the advisors to interns. If a teacher educator teaches courses with field components, they

serve as the supervisor to the interns in those classes. Other faculty members also have

supervisory responsibilities for practicum or student teaching interns. According to the

Book of Trends (2009), the College of Education employs 10 full professors, 31 associate

professors, and 19 assistant professors.

The potential sample size for teacher educators this was 60 full-time faculty members and

approximately 59 part-time faculty members. The potential sample size was 119 teacher

educators.

Instruments.

The Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) and the Culturally

Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) scales were created by Kamau

Oginaga Siwatu (2005). Siwatu (2006) developed these scales to be used as a tool for

teacher educators to insure: 1) that pre-service teachers are efficacious in their ability to

successfully perform the practices of culturally responsive teaching; and 2) believe in the

positive outcomes associated with this style of teaching. After examining and evaluating

several measures, these scales are the best measures to use in light of my research

questions. The results of using this scale will provide mean scores regarding the

culturally responsive teaching confidence levels of pre-service interns and mentor

teachers. Secondly, the results of this measure will provide mean scores regarding university supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of their ability to promote culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy when working with pre-service interns. Third, the results of using this measure will allow for the examination of factors influencing the formation of pre-service and mentor teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy as well as the factors influencing university supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of providing culturally responsive teaching efficacy building opportunities. Lastly, this measure will allow for the examination of the relationship between efficacy and outcome expectancy belief patterns of different cohorts of pre-service interns.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Efficacy scale.

The Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2006) consists of 40 Likert-type questions which will be used to gather information from pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher education faculty "regarding their efficacy to execute practices that are associated with teachers who are said to be culturally responsive" (Siwatu, 2006, p. 49). A copy of this scale is included in Appendix A. The internal reliability for the 40-item scale was .96, as estimated by Cronbach's alpha (Siwatu, 2006).

According to Bandura (2006), varying the level of difficulty among self-efficacy items would avoid ceiling effects and shed light on the types of tasks that individuals are most and least confident in their ability to execute. Consistent with these guidelines, the CRTSE scale contains teaching practices on the easy and difficult continuum. According to Siwatu (2006), the "easy" side of the continuum is related basic teaching pedagogy, for example, "I am able to use a variety of teaching methods." Siwatu stated that the

"difficult" side of the continuum includes skills that reflect the more culturally sensitive and responsive teaching practices (e.g., I am able to identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students). Siwatu reported that the CRTSE scale reflects an integration of general.

The participants will be asked to respond to each statement by assigning a confidence rating from 0 (no confidence) to 100 (completely confident). Participants' responses to each of the 40 items will be summed to produce a total score. The total scores, along with the range and the means will be examined for statistically significant patterns among the various groups of participants, pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher education faculty.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scale.

The Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scale (Siwatu, 2006) consists of 26 Likert-type questions which will be used to "assess a person's beliefs that engaging in culturally responsive practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes" (p. 50). The internal reliability for the 26-item scale was .95, as estimated by Cronbach's alpha (Siwatu, 2006). Participants will be asked to rate the likelihood that the behavior will lead to a specified outcome (e.g. "A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students") by indicating a probability of success from 0 (entirely uncertain) to 100 (entirely certain). Participants' responses to each of the 26 items will be summed to produce a total score. A copy of the CRTOE scale is included in Appendix B.

Participants will also be asked to respond to questions about their demographic and academic background. Questions for pre-service teachers pertain to their ethnicity,

age, teaching licensure program area, amount of field work completed, geographical location, student level-- undergraduate or graduate, class status and prior field experience. In addition to age and ethnicity, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators will be asked about their prior teaching experiences, including student teaching, and years of experience working with pre-service interns.

Data Collection

    Procedures.

    The researcher will obtain the Review Board's approval and send an on-line survey to students, mentor teachers, university supervisors and university faculty. A copy of each consent form can be found in Appendix C. The researcher will use SurveyMonkey, an on-line survey software, to prepare the surveys for each group of participants. All surveys will include consent forms outlining the potential risks of the study. Each participant will have the choice to opt out of the survey (be removed from the on-line mailing list).

    Two weeks after the initial invitation to participate in the study has been sent, the researcher will send a follow-up email to those who have not responded, but have not opted out. The follow-up email will remind participants that their responses are important to this research. The researcher will offer non-respondents another opportunity to participate in the study. Only the researcher and methodologist will have access to the raw survey data which will be saved on a secure server provided by SurveyMonkey. Four weeks after the initial invitation to participate in the study has been sent, the researcher will compile the surveys and analyze the data using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16.

Participants will not be compensated for their participation; however, those who choose to participate will have the option of entering an email address to be considered for an appreciation gift such as tickets to a National Basketball Association (NBA) home game, $50.00 cash, and gift cards to the University Bookstore, local gas station, or local restaurants.

Variables.

Dependent variables.

There are two dependent variables included in this study for all participants: total scores on the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scales.

Independent variables.

This study includes independent variables specific to the four groups included in the study: pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators. In studying the pre-service interns, five independent variables will be included (a) race/ethnicity; (b) age; (c) geographical location of home residence; (d) geographical location of field experience and; (e) the amount of time the pre-service interns have spent in the field (pre-professional, methods, practicum, and student teachers).

In studying the mentor teachers, five independent variables will be included: (a) race/ethnicity; (b) years teaching (c) designation of school district (urban, suburban, and urban/suburban); (d) education level; and (e) geographical location of home residence.

In studying the university supervisors, five independent variables will be included: (a) demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, geographical location, and highest level of education), (b) geographical location of teaching experiences including student

teaching, (c) most current K-12 teaching assignment, (d) length of time as a full-time teacher, and (e) experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study.

In studying teacher educators, five independent variables will be included: (a) demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, geographical location, and highest level of education), (b) geographical location of teaching experiences including student teaching, (c) length of time working in teacher preparation, (d) geographical location of the majority of previous K-12 teaching assignments, (e) length of time as a full-time K-12 teacher, and (f) experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study. For a complete list of independent variables used in the study, see Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Independent Variables Used in This Study

Background Variables	Description
Gender	This dichotomous IV has two levels (male and female).
Age	This categorical IV has eight levels (18-22, 23-27, 28-32, 33-37, 38-42, 43-47, 48-52, and 53 and up).
Ethnicity	This IV has eight levels (African-American, Asian, Bi-Racial, Caucasian, Hispanic, Other, and Prefer not to answer)
Geographical location	The dichotomous IV has three levels (urban suburban, and rural)
Student status	This dichotomous IV has two levels (undergraduate and graduate).
Student level	This categorical IV has four levels (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior).
Licensure program	The categorical IV has seven levels (general education, special education, fine arts/physical education, foreign language, speech, undecided, and other).
Geographical location of field experience	The dichotomous IV has three levels (urban suburban, and rural)
Highest level of education	This categorical IV has four levels (Associate's, Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctoral degree)

Background Variables	Description
Current teaching assignment	The categorical IV has six levels (general education, special education, fine arts/physical education, foreign language, speech, and other).
Length of time as full time teacher	Ranging 0-4, this interval measure of the length of time spent as a full time teacher will be completed by the mentor teachers.
Experience with mentoring practicum interns from the university used in this study	This dichotomous IV has two levels (yes and no)
Experience with mentoring student teachers from the university used in this study	This dichotomous IV has two levels (yes and no)
Classification of university supervisor	This dichotomous IV has two levels (practicum and student teacher)
Length of time working as a teacher educator	Ranging 0-4, this interval measure of the length of time spent working in teacher education will be completed by teacher education faculty.

Data Analysis

Quantitative techniques will be used to analyze the data collected. Descriptive statistics will be used for the participant's background information (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity). The researcher will report total scores and item-specific means to answer the first research question, *How confident are pre-service interns and mentor teachers are in their ability to be culturally responsive?* The researcher will also report total scores and item-specific means to answer the second research question, *How confident are supervisors and teacher educators are in their ability to provide culturally responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities?*

To understand the extent that the demographic variables contribute to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators, four stepwise multiple regression analyses will be conducted. These analyses will help to understand the influence of the predictor variables on the criterion variables. A casewise diagnostic will be conducted to examine if there are apparent outliers. Next a visual inspection will be conducted to determine if there are any violations of the regression assumptions. If a linear relationship exists, a bivariate linear regression will be used to inspect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Green & Salkind, 2003).

Regressions will then be conducted to determine the influence of the predictor variables on the criterion variable. For the interns' analysis the predictor variables will be: gender, age, ethnicity, geographical location of the interns' home residence, licensure program, student status classification, amount (hours) of field experience completed, and location of field experience. The mentor teachers' predictor variables will be: gender,

age, ethnicity, location of student teaching experience, current teaching assignment, location of current teaching assignment, and geographical location of the mentor's home residence. The predictor variables for the analysis of the university supervisors and teacher education faculty will be: gender, age, ethnicity, location of student teaching experience, last teaching assignment, location of last teaching assignment, and geographical location of the supervisors' and teacher educators' home residences. The criterion variable in each analysis will be scores on the CRTSE scale.

To answer the question: *Do the culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies of different cohorts of pre-service teachers suggest consistent patterns of responses* an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with an alpha set at .05 (Green & Salkind, 2003) will be conducted. Using an ANOVA, the CTRSE and CRTOE belief patterns held by different cohorts of pre-service teachers will be examined. The independent variable will be the classification of interns within the program (pre-education, methods, practicum or student teaching). The dependent variables will be CRTSE and CRTOE total scale and mean scores.

This research is not designed as an experimental study; however the results are not intended to imply that there are specific causes related to the CRTSE and CRTOE. Research such as that conducted by scholars Knoblauch and Hoy (2008) revealed that there were specific experiences that enhanced prospective teachers' efficacy beliefs. Knoblauch and Hoy were encouraged by their findings that student teachers placed in urban settings exhibited some degree of enhanced efficacy beliefs following their student teaching experience. In addition to site location (urban and suburban), I will examine the relationship of other demographic variables (e.g., ethnicity, age, licensure) and culturally

responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs in a teacher preparation program.

Although the purpose of my study is not to generalize the findings to all teacher educators; it may be possible to use the analyses to inform teacher education programs similar to the one in this study. It is not unreasonable to believe that if the participants, setting, time frame, and procedures are similar, that rough generalizations would not be useful (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). To create a study which may be loosely generalized to other populations, a detailed, well-written procedures section will be provided, allowing other researchers to make informed decisions about the populations or samples to which the results may be generalized.

Summary

This chapter has described the methodology that will be used to examine the data that will be collected from the CRTSE and the CRTOE scales. I provided an overview of teacher preparation program, target population, the instruments, data analysis, and the procedures for conducting the research. Chapter IV will provide an in-depth description of the findings as a result of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This primarily quantitative study investigated the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacies and outcome expectancies of four primary groups in one urban, mid-western university's teacher preparation program. The purpose of this study was to examine patterns in culturally responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancies between interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators in an urban teacher education program.

The instruments used for this study were the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) and the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) scales (Siwatu, 2005; Siwatu, 2006). The CRTSE scale provided item-specific means and total scores regarding the culturally responsive teaching confidence levels of pre-service interns and mentor teachers. These measures were also used to provide item-specific means and total scores regarding the university supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of how they assist interns with culturally responsive teaching strategies which can help to develop the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy in pre-service interns.

An examination of the demographic variables' influence on the pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy was conducted. Additionally, the relationship between demographic variables and the university supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of helping interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies were analyzed. Lastly, the CRTSE and CRTOE scales allowed for the inspection of the relationship between culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs patterns of different cohorts of pre-service interns.

The results of the study are presented in the following section in the form of descriptive analyses to inspect item-specific means, bivariate analyses to inspect the relationship between independent and dependent variables, and multivariate analyses to examine the influence of pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' demographic background variables and their CRTSE score. Further, univariate analyses were used to examine the relationship between university supervisors' and teacher educators' demographic variables and their perceived ability to assist pre-service interns with using culturally responsive teaching strategies. Lastly, univariate analyses will be used to inspect the differences in CRTSE and CRTOE scores between different cohorts of pre-service interns.

This chapter will include 1) research questions; 2) descriptive characteristics of participants; 3) presentation of research questions and analyses; and 4) summary of results.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study are:

1.   How confident are pre-service interns and mentor teachers in their ability to be culturally responsive?

2.   How confident are supervisors and teacher educators in their ability to provide culturally responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities?

3.   To what extent do the demographic variables contribute to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators?

4.   Do the culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies of different cohorts of pre-service teachers suggest consistent patterns of responses?

Descriptive Characteristics of Participants

The teacher preparation program used in this study is situated in a mid-western urban college of education. It is comprised of four primary groups: pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher education faculty. It was important to examine the cultural responsive teaching self efficacy and outcome expectancy of each group; therefore, all pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators who were active in this teacher preparation program were invited to participate.

All pre-service interns enrolled in the institution's teacher preparation program during the 2010-2111 academic school years were invited to participate in the study; therefore, the potential sample was 1335 pre-service interns. Of the 1335 email invitations, 652 usable surveys were completed producing a response rate of 49%.

In-service teachers who served as mentor teachers from spring 2010 - spring 2011 academic years were invited to participate in the study; therefore the potential sample size was 762. Of the 762 email invitations sent to mentor teachers, 7 of the emails were returned to the researcher reducing the sample size from 762 to 755. There was a 66% response rate with 487 usable surveys.

University supervisors who have worked with pre-service interns within the last 3 semesters were invited to participate in the study, therefore the potential sample size was 87. Of the one 87 supervisors, 41% (N=36) are also faculty members in the teacher preparation program in the College of Education at the university used for this study. The researcher decided it was more valuable to collect their responses as teacher educators and removed them from the university supervisor's population. This reduced the sample size from 87 to 51 participants. Of the 51 potential participants, 28 usable surveys were submitted for a response rate of 55%.

Lastly, teacher educators, both full and part-time faculty who teach one or more professional courses in teacher preparation were asked invited to participate in this study. The potential sample size for teacher educators this was 60 full-time faculty members and approximately 59 part-time faculty members. The potential sample size was 119 teacher educators. Eleven part-time faculty emails were returned, reducing the potential sample size to 108. Of the 108 full and part-time teacher educators, 17 (42.5%) full-time faculty and 23 (57.5%) part-time faculty submitted 40 usable surveys were submitted for a response rate of 36%.

Sample size.

The following section will discuss the statistical confidence of the survey's results.

Pre-service interns.

For a population of 1335, a response rate of 49% suggests that if this survey was repeated, 95% of the time the mean scores would lie between +/- 6% of the mean scores found in the current survey's results.

Mentor teachers.

For a population of 762, a response rate of 66% suggests that if this survey was repeated, 95% of the time the mean scores would lie between +/- 5% of the mean scores found in the current survey's results.

University supervisors.

For a population of 51, a response rate of 55% suggests that if this survey was repeated, 95% of the time the mean scores would lie between +/- 7% of the mean scores found in the current survey's results.

Teacher educators.

For a population of 108, a response rate of 36% suggests that if this survey was repeated, 95% of the time the mean scores would lie between +/- 10% of the mean scores found in the current survey's results.

Demographic Information

The majority of all participants identified themselves as White (76%; N=899). African Americans represented (16%; N=187) and the lowest number of participants

identified themselves as Native American (0.34%; N= 4). Table 2 displays the

ethnic/racial representation of all participants.

Table 2.

Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	Pre-Service Interns		Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
African American/Black	127	19.5%	46	9.4%	6	21.4%	8	20.0%
Asian	10	1.5%	6	1.2%	0	0.0%	2	5.0%
Bi-Racial	10	1.5%	1	0.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Caucasian	453	69.5%	399	81.9%	20	74.1%	27	67.5%
Hispanic	20	3.1%	12	2.5%	0	0.0%	1	2.5%
Native American	1	0.2%	3	0.6%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Other	12	1.8%	7	2.5%	1	3.7%	2	5.0%
Total	633	97.1%	487	100%	27	96.4%	40	100%

Female participants represented the highest number of participants in this study.

The sample consisted of 930 females (77%) and 262 males (22%). Table 3 displays the

number of female and male participants as reported by respondents in this study.

Table 3

Gender

Gender	Pre-Service Interns		Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Female	509	78.1%	409	84%	5	18.5%	7	17.5%
Male	140	21.5%	67	13.8%	22	78.6%	33	82.5%
Missing	3	0.46%	11	2.25%	1	3.5%	33	82.5%
Total	652	100%	487	100%	28	100%	40	100%

Approximately half (51%; N=284) of the mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators reported a career or former career in General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood or Secondary Education. See Table 4 for a summary of the current and former teaching licensure areas of the participants.

Table 4

Most Current K-12 Teaching Assignment

Licensure Areas	Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
General Education	252	51.7%	16	57.1%	16	40%
Special Education	124	25.5%	4	14.3%	9	22.5%
Fine Arts/ Physical Education	58	11.9%	3	10.7%	4	10%
Foreign Language	24	4.9%	2	7.1%	2	5%
Speech/Audiology	22	4.7%	0	0.0%	1	2.5%
Other	7	1.4%	3	10.7%	8	20%
Total	487	100%	28	100%	40	100%

Similar results were reported by pre-service interns. The majority of interns (55.5%; n= 362) reported being enrolled in a General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood, Secondary Education) licensure program. Table 5 displays the licensure program areas of the pre-service interns.

Table 5

Pre-Service Intern's Licensure Programs

Licensure Program Areas	N	%
General Education	362	55.5%
Special Education	201	30.8%
Fine Arts/Physical Education	27	4.1%
Foreign Language/ TESOL/Bilingual	16	2.5%
Speech/Audiology	3	0.5%
Undecided	7	1.1%
Other	36	5.5%
Total	652	100%

Pre-service interns.

Pre-service interns in this study can be classified into four categories: (a) those who take professional courses only with very little to no field experience; (b) those enrolled in methods courses with 20-75 hours of field experience; (c) those enrolled in practicum completing 80-240 hours in the field; and (d) those enrolled in student teaching who spend between 400-600 hours in the field. The majority (55.7%; N=363) of the pre-service interns were enrolled in Professional Classes such as Introduction to Teaching, Diversity in Educational Settings and Educational Technology. Of the 652 pre-service participants, more than half 54.45% were graduate students (N=287), followed by seniors (N=147, 22.5%). Freshman students comprised the smallest group of participants (N=15, 2.3%) which is not surprising as students are not usually admitted into the College of

Education before they reach sophomore status. Table 6 displays the class status of the

pre-service intern participants.

Table 6

Pre-Service Interns' Class Status

Class Status	N	%
Freshman	15	2.3%
Sophomore	71	10.9%
Junior	64	9.8%
Senior	147	22.5%
Graduate	355	54.45%
Total	652	100%

Table 7 displays the amount of field experience reported by the pre-service intern

participants.

Table 7

Pre-Service Interns' Amount of Field Experience

Amount of Field Experience	N	%
Professional Classes	366	55.7%
Methods - (20-75 field hours)	144	22.1%
Practicum - (80-240 field hours)	41	6.3%
Student Teaching - (400-600 field hours)	90	13.8%
Missing	14	2.14%
Total	652	100%

Although there may be a minimal amount of field experience hours required in professional courses, the methods, practicum and student teaching interns have formalized field experiences confirmed by the college's Office of Field Services. The College of Education at the university used in this study requires all pre-service teachers to complete at least one of their major field experiences in an urban setting. If the licensure program has both a practicum and student teaching experience, one of the two experiences must be in an urban setting. If however, the licensure program has no formal practicum such as Physical Education or Art, then methods placement or the student teaching experience must be in an urban setting. Of the 652 pre-service intern participants, 275 (42%) have completed a formal field experience. Of that group, 42% (n=116) have completed an experience in an urban setting. Table 8 displays the geographical location of the field experience settings for the methods, practicum and student teaching pre-service intern participants.

Table 8

Geographical Location of Pre-service Interns' Field Experiences

Location	Methods		Practicum		Student Teaching	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Urban	70	48%	22	53%	24	20%
Suburban	75	52%	19	47%	66	73%
Total	145	100%	41	100%	90	100%

Although a little over half (56%, N = 363) the majority of the pre-service interns fall between the ages of 18-27 years, the remaining 44% of the interns' ages are widespread. Table 9 displays the pre-service intern participants' age ranges.

Table 9

Pre-Service Interns' Age Ranges

Age Range	N	%
18-22 years	130	19.9%
23-27 years	233	35.7%
28-32 years	111	17%
33-37 years	54	8.3%
38-42 years	45	6.9%
43-47 years	31	4.8%
48-52 years	30	4.6%
53 years and up	16	2.5%
Missing	2	.31%
Total	652	100%

Mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators.

Of the 40 teacher educators, 22 (55%) identified working with general education pre-service interns (early and middle childhood and secondary education) as their primary role in teacher preparation. Ten (22.5%) of the teacher educators identified working with pre-service interns majoring in special education as their primary role; one (2.5%) teacher educator identified her role in teacher preparation as a Fine Arts or Physical Education educator; 2 (5.0%) identified themselves as Foreign Language educators; 5 (12.5%) reported working with all of the pre-service interns and 3 (7.5%) reported that they do not work directly with pre-service interns.

Mentor teacher and university supervisor participants reported a Master's Degree as their highest level of education (n = 406; 83.4%). Of the 40 teacher educators, 20 (50%) reported receiving doctoral degrees. Table 10 displays the educational attainment of mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators.

Table 10

Highest level of education

Educational Attainment	Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Associate's Degree	2	0.6%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Bachelor's Degree	69	14.2	1	3.6%	1	2.5%
Master's Degree	406	83.4%	23	82.1%	19	47.5%
Doctoral Degree	3	1.5%	3	10.7%	20	50.0%
Missing	2	.41%	1	3.57%	0	0.0%
Total	485	100%	28	100%	40	100%

Mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators reported the number of years spent as K-12 teachers. Teacher educators also reported the number of years spent working in teacher preparation. Table 11 displays the years spent teaching at the K-12 level of the mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators. Table 12 displays the number of years teacher educators have worked in teacher preparation.

Table 11

Experience as a K-12 Teachers

Years	Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-5 years	39	0.8%	2	7.4%	13	32.5%
6-10 years	105	21.6%	3	11.1%	8	20%
11-15 years	124	25.5%	5	18.5%	3	7.5%
16-20 years	76	15.6%	3	11.1%	2	5.0%
21 years or more	140	28.7%	14	44.4%	15	15.0%
Missing	1	.21%	1	3.57%	8	20%
Total	485	100	28	100%	40	100%

Table 12

Number of Years Teacher Educators Have Spent Working in Teacher Preparation

Years	N	%
1-5	16	40%
6-10	14	35%
11-15	4	10%
16-20	4	10%
21+	2	5%
Total	40	100%

Table 13 displays the location as designated by the Ohio Department of Education of the mentor teachers', university supervisors', and teacher educators' most current K-12 teaching assignment.

Table 13

Designation of Most Current K-12 Teaching Assignment

Geographical Location of Last K-12 Teaching Assignment	Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Urban	254	52.4%	15	53.7%	19	47.5%
Suburban	193	39.8%	10	35.7%	8	20.0%
Other or Unsure	38	7.8%	3	10.7%	13	46.4%
Total	485	100%	28	100%	40	100%

In addition, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators reported the settings of their own student teaching experiences. Table 14 displays the school setting of their student teaching experiences.

Table 14

Geographical Location of Student Teaching Experiences

Geographical Location of Student Teaching Experiences	Mentor Teachers		University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Urban	180	37	10	35.7%	19	47.5%
Suburban	244	50.1	11	39.3%	10	25.0%
Rural	57	11.7	5	17.9%	2	5.0%
Unsure	6	1.2	2	7.1%	9	32.1%
Total	487	100	28	96.4%	40	100%

The majority (n=16, 57%) of the university supervisors work with both practicum interns and student teachers, while 41%, n=18) of the teacher educators also supervise practicum or student teachers.

Presentation of Research Questions and Analyses

Research question 1.

How confident are pre-service interns and mentor teachers in their ability to be culturally responsive?

Descriptive analysis.

Pre-service interns had a mean CRTSE score of 80.81 (SD = 13.35). Mentor teachers had a mean CRTSE score of 82.23 (SD = 11.10). High scores on the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale indicate a greater sense of self-efficacy of engaging in specific instructional and non-instructional tasks associated with culturally responsive teaching. The total scores for pre-service interns ranged from 1840 to 3985. Mentor teachers had a mean score of 82.23 (SD = 11.10), indicating that mentor teachers in this sample were slightly more confident than were pre-service interns with respect to culturally responsive teaching. See Figure 1 for a visual representation of pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' CRTSE means. Item-specific means for pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' data on the CRTSE are presented in Table 15.
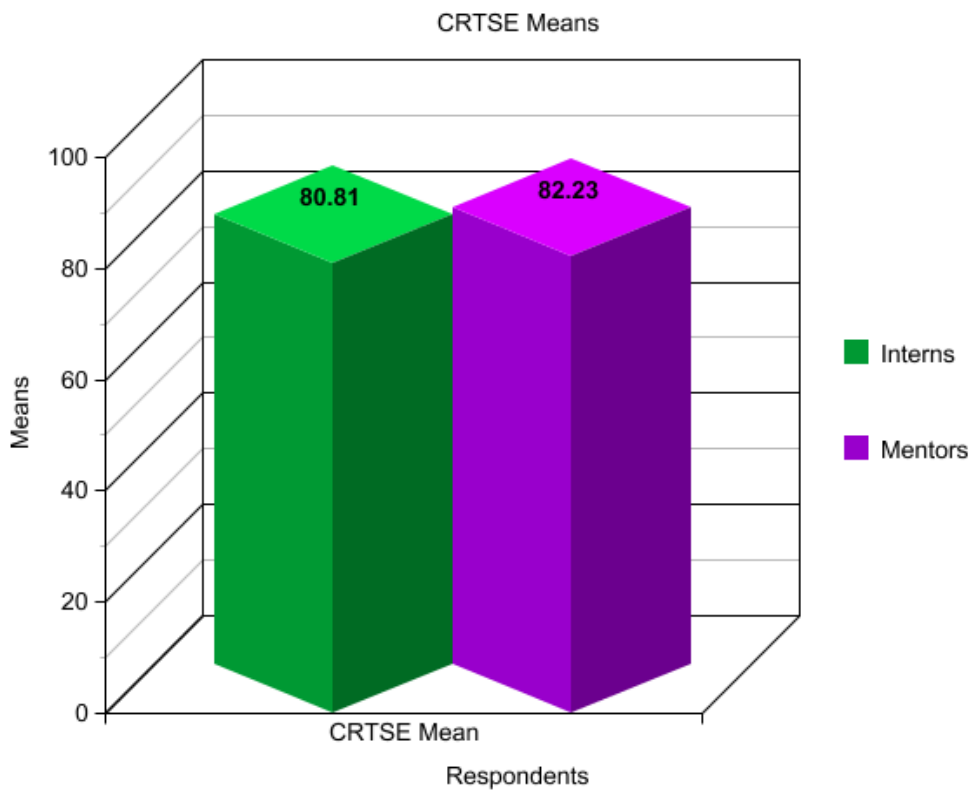
Figure 1: Comparison of CRTSE means of pre-service interns and mentor teachers

Table 15

Pre-Service Interns' and Mentor Teachers' Means and Standard Deviations for Items on

the CRTSE Scale

Item	Pre-Service Interns		Mentor Teachers	
	M	SD	M	SD
Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students	81.29	16.74	90.47	10.31
Obtain information about my students' academic strengths	83.48	16.68	91.76	10.35
Determine whether my students like to work alone or in a group	86.87	14.90	91.49	11.50
Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students	82.84	16.98	86.17	15.35
Identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture	81.09	17.12	84.84	14.18
Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture	75.60	18.89	79.82	16.90
Assess student learning using various types of assessments	81.87	19.10	90.58	11.60
Obtain info about my students' home life	79.30	19.67	85.08	14.21
Build a sense of trust in my students	89.28	13.62	93.66	9.46
Establish positive home-school relations	82.31	18.64	89.08	12.77

Use a variety of teaching methods	85.42	17.14	93.06	9.90
Develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds	82.37	17.16	88.65	12.54
Use my students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful	82.32	16.92	85.79	12.99
Identify ways how students' communication at home may differ from the school norms	80.42	17.12	84.47	14.57
Obtain information about my students' cultural background	82.59	16.63	85.95	13.32
Teach students about their culture's contribution to science	72.29	24.24	68.03	27.28
Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language	60.79	30.75	53.41	34.21
Design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures	81.75	20.45	74.19	25.21
Develop a personal relationship with my students	88.98	15.44	93.51	10.56
Obtain information about my students' academic weaknesses	85.77	15.35	92.39	9.72
Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language	62.30	32.32	55.15	35.26
Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students	74.95	22.39	70.81	27.18

Communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress	84.68	16.85	91.34	10.91
Structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents	84.19	18.37	91.37	12.91
Help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates	85.48	15.40	90.12	11.12
Revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups	80.29	18.15	80.38	18.90
Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes	80.89	19.13	79.67	21.51
Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics	71.19	26.88	60.79	31.61
Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding	75.02	23.87	71.79	27.61
Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement	69.70	26.97	69.02	28.39
Help students feel like important members of the classroom	90.23	12.42	93.43	8.53
Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students	77.61	21.75	74.81	25.41
Use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how my students like to learn	77.76	23.35	78.92	24.58

Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds	78.89	19.91	78.77	20.47
Explain new concepts using examples that are taken from diverse cultural backgrounds	83.75	17.50	88.11	13.58
Obtain information regarding my students' academic interests	86.46	15.03	89.29	13.23
Use the interests of my students to make learning meaningful for them	87.99	13.61	90.59	10.86
Implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups	89.45	14.66		
Design instruction that matches my students' developmental needs	91.31	10.00		
Use my students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information	90.36	10.84		

Pre-service interns' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy was highest for ability to: "Build a sense of trust in my students" (M = 89.28, SD = 13.16) and "Develop a personal relationship with my students" (M = 88.98, SD = 15.44). For mentor teachers, item-specific means were highest for ability to: "Build a sense of trust in my students" (M = 93.66, SD = 9.46) and "Develop a personal relationship with my students (M = 93.51, SD = 10.56).

Item-specific means for pre-service interns was lowest for ability to: "Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language" (M = 60.79, SD =

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31.75) and "Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language" (M = 62.30, SD = 32.32). For mentor teachers, item-specific means were lowest for ability to: "Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language" (M = 53.41, SD =34.21) and "Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language" (M = 55.15, SD = 35.26).

Research question 2.

How confident are supervisors and teacher educators in their ability to provide culturally responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities?

Descriptive analysis.

To determine the confidence levels of both university supervisors and teacher educators with respect to their ability to provide culturally-responsive teaching efficacy-building opportunities, the CRTSE was administered to each group and total-scale and individual-item means were calculated, university supervisors had a mean score of 82.00 (SD = 12). Teacher educators had a mean score of 73.37 (SD = 19.42), indicating that university supervisors were slightly more confident. See Figure 2 for a visual representation of university supervisors' and teachers educators' CRTSE means. Item-specific means for university supervisors and teacher educators' data on the CRTSE are presented in Table 16.
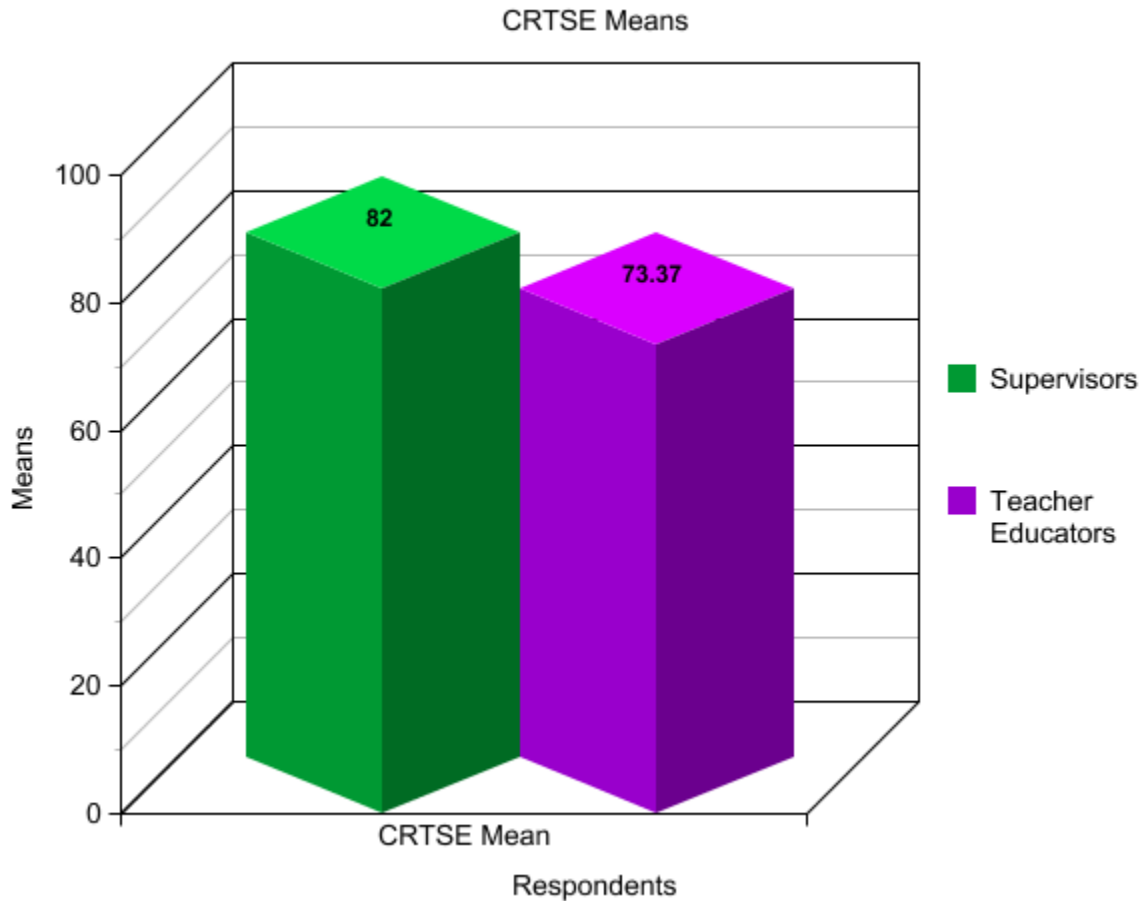
Figure 2. Comparison of CRTSE Means of University Supervisors and Teacher Educators

University supervisors' item-specific CRTSE scores was highest for assisting pre-service interns to: "Help their students feel like important members of the classroom" (M = 93.82, SD = 6.90) and assisting pre-service interns to: "Use a variety of teaching methods" (M = 92.93, SD = 7.16). For teacher educators, item-specific means were highest for the ability to help pre-service interns to: "Use their students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information, (M = 87.54, SD = 18.26) and for the ability to help pre-service interns to: "Help their students feel like important members of the classroom" (M = 85.49, SD = 18.59).

Item-specific means for university supervisors was lowest for ability to help pre-service interns to "Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native

language" (M = 61.04, SD = 32.66) and for the ability to" Help pre-service interns praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language" (M = 65.71, SD = 30.08). For teacher educators, item-specific means were lowest for the ability to help pre-service interns to: "Teach about their students' cultures contributions to science" (M = 41.08, SD = 37.77) and for the ability to help pre-service interns praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language" (M = 43.53, SD = 38.04).

Table 16

University Supervisors' and Teacher Educators' Means and Standard Deviations for

Items on the CRTSE Scale

Item	University Supervisors		Teacher Educators	
	M	SD	M	SD
I help pre-service teachers adapt instruction to meet the needs of their students	90.36	10.62	82.92	20.98
I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' academic strengths	86.79	18.87	78.08	26.93
I help pre-service teachers determine whether their students like to work alone or in a group	84.82	12.06	71.51	28.18
I help pre-service teachers determine whether their students feel comfortable competing with other students	83.04	14.29	61.95	33.42
I help pre-service teachers identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from their students' home culture	82.32	12.87	82.44	21.01
I help pre-service teachers implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between the students' home culture and the school culture	79.07	13.20	79.58	21.57
I help pre-service teachers assess student learning using various types of assessments	89.11	8.28	80.41	29.13

I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' home life	80.00	22.77	75.74	24.69
I help pre-service teachers build a sense of trust in their students	90.00	9.81	83.49	20.09
I help pre-service teachers establish positive home-school relations	85.89	13.20	75.08	25.87
I help pre-service teachers use a variety of teaching methods	92.93	7.16	82.62	25.72
I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' cultural background	81.61	16.50	81.44	22.70
I help pre-service teachers teach their students about their culture's contribution to science	66.25	32.71	41.08	37.77
I help pre-service teachers greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their students' native language	61.04	32.66	45.62	37.60
I help pre-service teachers design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures	82.86	23.90	65.18	39.78
I help pre-service teachers develop a personal relationship with their students	90.15	11.61	85.15	20.48
I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' academic weaknesses	85.50	18.85	80.18	25.95

I help pre-service teachers praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language	61.82	32.48	43.53	38.04
I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students	65.71	30.84	72.90	31.79
I help pre-service teachers communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress	91.39	13.94	70.95	32.55
I help pre-service teachers structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents	88.82	14.92	63.77	39.41
I help pre-service teachers help their students to develop positive relationships with their classmates	89.18	10.05	81.82	23.04
I help pre-service teachers revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups	78.04	25.72	74.41	28.07
I help pre-service teachers critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes	78.68	25.86	75.49	27.66
I help pre-service teachers design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics	64.93	34.43	43.72	41.27

I help pre-service teachers model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding	73.04	25.98	54.08	41.19
I help pre-service teachers communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement	69.82	27.23	48.18	40.37
I help pre-service teachers help students feel like important members of the classroom	93.82	6.90	85.49	18.59
I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students	69.75	30.92	80.82	26.29
I help pre-service teachers use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how their students like to learn	79.91	34.82		
I help pre-service teachers use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds	77.61	24.42		
I help pre-service teachers explain new concepts using examples that are taken from diverse cultural backgrounds	90.07	27.59		
I help pre-service teachers obtain information regarding my students' academic interests	86.07	27.47		

I help pre-service teachers use the interests of their students to make learning meaningful for them	92.04	25.29
I help pre-service teachers design instruction that matches their students' developmental needs	91.14	29.46
I help pre-service teachers use their students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information	89.44	18.26

Research question 3.

To what extent do the demographic variables contribute to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators?

Predicting pre-service interns' CRTSE.

To analyze the contribution of demographic variables to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service interns, a stepwise regression was conducted. The following predictor variables were entered: a) race/ethnicity; b) age; c) geographical location of home residence; d) geographical location of field experience and; e) the amount of time spent in the field. This methodology is based on the dearth of empirical evidence linking these demographic variables to culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Data exploration.

A casewise diagnostics was conducted to examine if there were any apparent outliers that may have influenced the estimated coefficients. Three apparent outliers were revealed, each having studentized residual ranging from -3.73 to -3.30. Inspection of case

indices reflecting the impact of individual observations on regression coefficients, however, indicated that no observations including the three outliers exerted excessive influence on the estimated coefficients. In addition, a sensitivity analysis in which the three outliers were temporarily dropped indicated that they did not have undue influence on the model R^2. Next a visual representation of a plot of the model residuals versus the predicted outcomes was conducted to determining there were no violations of the regression assumptions.

Correlations.

Table 17 displays a correlation matrix exhibiting the relationships between the primary variables of the study in regards to pre-service interns. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of the relationship between two variables. The correlation matrix revealed a positive, moderate correlation between class status and student level (undergraduate or graduate) ($r(623) = .661$, p $< .01$. Therefore student level was removed from the model. Positive and negative and significant correlations were found between several of the variables.

Table 17

Pre-Service Interns' Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Gender	-	-.013	.069	-.096*	.010	.039	.061	-.010	.003	.035
Age Group		-	.140**	-.254**	-.093*	.223**	.030	-.089*	-.102**	-.068
Licensure			-	-.088*	-.037	.187**	-.014	.123**	.112**	.053
Race				-	.335**	.024	-.030	.003	-.009	.020
Geographical location of home residence					-	.294**	-.026	-.021	.013	.031
Class status						-	.072	-.025	-.060	-.055
Amount of field							-	-.071	-.107**	-.065
Methods experience completed in urban setting								-	.550**	.390**
Practicum experience completed in urban setting									-	.509**
Student teaching experience completed in urban setting										

* Significant at the .05 level; ** Significant at the .01 level.

The overall regression model is displayed in Table 18. This stepwise regression method yielded two variables which contributed significantly to the model, the pre-professional experience (minimum field experience) and completing a methods experience in an urban setting. Specifically, completing the methods, practicum or student teaching experiences contributed to a higher CRTSE score as pre-education interns moved through their programs as pre-service interns. With minimum field being represented as 0 and all other field experiences coded as 1, the findings suggest that additional field experience contributes to higher CRTSE scores. Additionally, if the first formal field experience (methods), takes place in an urban setting as opposed to a suburban setting, the findings suggest that pre-service interns will be more confident in regards to culturally responsive teaching. Despite these findings, the overall exploratory model only contributed to less than .05% of the variance in CRTSE scores for pre-service interns.

Table 18

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Explaining Pre-service Interns' CRTSE (N = 625)

	B	SEB	β	T	P
Minimum field experience hours completed	77.78	1.07	.20	4.82	.000
Completing methods experience in an urban setting	79.17	0.75	-.09	-2.15	.032

Note. Full model: $R^2 = .044$, $F = 13.07$, $p = .0007$

Predicting mentor teachers' CRTSE.

To analyze the contribution of demographic variables to the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs of mentor teachers, a second stepwise regression was conducted. The following predictor variables were entered simultaneously: 1) race/ethnicity; 2) years teaching 3) designation of school district (urban, suburban, urban/suburban); 4) education level; and 5) geographical location of home residence.

Data exploration.

A casewise diagnostics was conducted to examine if there were any apparent outliers that may have been influencing the estimated coefficients. The casewise diagnostics revealed six apparent outliers, with each having studentized residual ranging from -4.13 to -3.01. Inspection of case indices reflecting the impact of individual observations on regression coefficients, however, indicated that no observations including the six outliers exerted excessive influence on the estimated coefficients. In addition, a sensitivity analysis in which the six outliers were temporarily dropped indicated that they did not have undue influence on the model R^2. Next a visual representation of a plot of the model residuals versus the predicted outcomes was conducted to determining there were no violations of the regression assumptions.

Correlations.

Table 19 displays a correlation matrix exhibiting the relationships between the primary variables of the study in regards to mentor teachers. The correlation matrix revealed that all of the relationships were extremely weak although several were significant (see Table 4.18). No variables were removed from the model.

Table 19

Mentor Teachers' Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
Geographical location of home residence		.101*	.007	.017	.028
Race			.008.**	.100*	.121*
Level of Education				.067	-.071
Years Teaching					.010
District Designation					-

The overall regression model is displayed in Table 20. As with the regression for the pre-service interns, this stepwise regression method also yielded two variables which contributed significantly to the model. Only ethnicity and years of teaching contributed significantly to the model for mentor teachers. Specifically, being a person of color contributed to higher scores on the CRTSE. Being a newer teacher (having between 0 and 10 years of experience) contributed to higher scores on the CRTSE scale. Although, the findings suggested that mentor teachers with 11-15 years experienced a statistically significant decline in confidence, confidence levels increased again in mentor teachers who have worked as a teacher for more than 15 years. Despite these findings, the overall model contributed to less than .03% of the variance in CRTSE scores for mentor teachers. A group of variables which strongly predict pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' CRTSE scores could not be substantiated through the stepwise regression analysis..

Table 20

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Explaining Mentor Teachers'

CRTSE (N = 484)

	B	SEB	β	T	P
Caucasian	82.67	1.30	.12	2.55	.00
Caucasian and 11-15 Years of Teaching Experience	80.93	1.12	.10	2.10	.04

Note. Full model: $R^2 = .063$, $F = 10.41$, $p = 0.009$

University supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of assisting pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies.

The small sample size and large number of variables prohibited conducting a stepwise multiple regression to analyze the contribution of demographic variables to university supervisors' and teacher educators' perceptions of assisting pre-service interns with the using culturally responsive teaching strategies. To avoid receiving inaccurate results, Field (2000) suggests using several one-way analyses of variances (ANOVAs) to determine if statistically significant relationships exist between the predictor variables and the mean scores of university and teacher educators.

University supervisors.

To examine the relationship between university supervisors and their perceived ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies, the following variables were explored: (a) demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, geographical location, and highest level of education), (b) geographical location of student teaching experience, (c) geographical location of last K-12 teaching assignment,

(d) length of time as a full-time teacher, and (e) experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study.

Gender.

A one-way ANOVA was used to compare the means for male and female university supervisors. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest no statistically significant difference was found ($F(1,25 = .024$, p > .01). Male and female university supervisors did not differ significantly in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies. Male university supervisors had a mean score of 83.06 ($sd = 14.13$). Female university supervisors had a mean score of 82.14 ($sd = 11.68$). The full model is displayed in Table 21.

Table 21

Summary of ANOVA: Gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	3.47	1	3.47	.024
Within Groups	3664.28	25	146.57	
Total	3667.75	26		

**p <0.01

Ethnicity.

The means of university supervisors of different races/ethnicities was compared. The results of a one-way ANOVA found no statistical significant difference ($F(2,24) =$ .156, p > .01). There was no statistically significant difference found between university supervisors' of different races/ethnicities in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies. African-American university

supervisors had a mean score of 84.10 (*sd* = 10.17). Caucasian university supervisors had

a mean score of 81.57 (*sd* = 12.78). One supervisor who reported a race/ethnicity of

"other" had a mean of 86.31. The full model is displayed in Tables 22.

Table 22

Summary of ANOVA: Ethnicity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	47.02	2	23.510	.156
Within Groups	3620.73	24	150.86	
Total	3667.75	26		

**p <0.01

Geographical location.

Using a one-way ANOVA the means of university supervisors who live on the

east side of town were compared to those who live on the west side of town. There was

no statistically significant difference between university supervisors' who live on

different side of town in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use

culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(1,24) = .001$, p > .01).. University supervisors

who live on the east side of town had a mean score of 81.97 (*sd* = 13.71). University

supervisors who live on the west side of town had a mean score of 81.83 (*sd* = 9.62). The

full model is displayed in Table 23.

Tables 23

Summary of ANOVA: Geographical Location

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	.126	1	.126	.001
Within Groups	3557.09	24	148.12	
Total	3557.21	25		

**p <0.01

Level of education.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of university supervisors who possess

Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctoral Degrees were compared. There was no statistically

significant difference between university supervisors' with different educational levels in

their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive

teaching strategies ($F(2,24) = .495$, p > .01). Only one university supervisor reported

their highest degree as a Bachelor's degree. The mean for this supervisor was 92.25.

University supervisors who posses Master's degree had a mean score of 81.46 (*sd* =

12.61). University supervisors who have Doctoral degrees had a mean score of 85.47 (*sd*

= 3.47). The full model is displayed in Table 24.

Table 24

Summary of ANOVA: Level of Education

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	145.80	2	72.59	.495
Within Groups	3522.57	24	146.77	
Total	3667.75	26		

$**p < 0.01$

Student teaching location.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of university supervisors whose student teaching geographical (urban, suburban, rural) locations differed were compared. There was no statistically significant difference found between university supervisors who student taught in urban, suburban or rural schools in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(3,16) = .729$, $p > .01$). The university supervisors who student taught in urban schools had a mean score of 86.81 (sd = 7.08). University supervisors who student taught in suburban schools had a mean score of 85.85 ($sd = 11.06$). University supervisors who student taught in rural settings had a mean score of 76.29 ($sd = 15.84$). The full model is displayed in Table 25.

Table 25

Summary of ANOVA: Student Teaching Location of Supervisors

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	253.20	3	84.40	.550
Within Groups	1852.63	16	115.79	
Total	2105.83	19		

$**p < 0.01$

Most current K-12 teaching location.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of university supervisors whose prior teaching geographical locations differed were compared. No significant difference was found ($F(3,16) = 1.43$, $p > .01$). There was no statistically significant difference found between university supervisors who taught in urban, suburban or rural schools in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies. The university supervisors who taught in urban schools had a mean score of 86.16 ($sd = 11.38$). University supervisors who taught in suburban schools had a mean score of 87.62 ($sd = 7.14$). University supervisors who taught in rural settings had a mean score of 71.31 ($sd = 14.58$). University supervisors who did not report or could not recall the designation of the school district where they were formally employed had a mean score of 82.03 ($sd = 5.27$). The full model is displayed in Table 26.

Table 26

Summary of ANOVA: Prior Teaching Location of Supervisors

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	445.28	3	148.43	.27
Within Groups	1660.55	16	103.78	
Total	2105.83	19		

**$p < 0.01$

Years of K-12 teaching.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the differences in the amount of years of university supervisors' taught at the K-12 level were compared. There was no statistically significant difference found between university supervisors who taught at the K-12 level

between 0 and 21 years in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(4,15) = .1.26$, $p > .01$). The university supervisors who taught between 1 and 5 years has a mean score of 85.24 ($sd = 5.11$). University supervisors who taught between 6 and 10 years has a mean score of 90.99 ($sd = 6.95$). University supervisors who taught between 11 and 15 years had a mean score of 92.85 ($sd = .87$). University supervisors who taught between 16 and 20 years had a mean score of 82.35 ($sd = 5.72$). University supervisors who taught more than 21 years had a mean score of 80.55 ($sd = 12.77$). The full model is displayed in Table 27.

Table 27

Summary of ANOVA: Years of Experience Teaching at the K-12 Level

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	528.313	4	132.09	1.26
Within Groups	1577.52	15	105.17	
Total	2105.83	19		

**p <0.01

Role in supervision of pre-service interns.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of university supervisors who supervise practicum interns, student teaching interns or both practicum and student teaching interns were compared. There was no statistically significant difference between university supervisors' who have different supervisory roles in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(2,17) = 1.33$, $p > .01$). Only one university supervisor reported working with practicum interns only. The mean for this supervisor was 90.50. University supervisors who work with student

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teacher only had a mean score of 78.96 (*sd* = 15.64). University supervisors who reported

working with practicum and student teaching interns had a mean score of 86.90 (*sd* =

6.99). The full model is displayed in Table 28.

Table 28

Summary of ANOVA: Role in Supervision of Pre-service Interns

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	294.24	2	147.12	1.38
Within Groups	1811.59	17	106.56	
Total	2105.83	19		

**p <0.01

Teacher educators.

To examine the relationship between teacher educators and their perceived ability

to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies, the following

variables were explored: (1) demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, geographical

location, and highest level of education), (2) geographical location of teaching

experiences including student teaching, (3) length of time working in teacher preparation,

(4) length of time as a full-time K-12 teacher, and (5) experience with supervising

prospective teachers from the university included in this study.

Gender.

A one-way ANOVA was used to compare the means for male and female teacher

educators. The results of a one-way ANOVA suggest no statistically significant

difference was found ($F(1,37 = 2.92, p > .01$). Male and female teacher educators did not

differ significantly in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use

culturally responsive teaching strategies. Male teacher educators had a mean score of

61.21 (sd = 19.78). Female teacher educators had a mean score of 75.58 (sd = 18.82).

The full model is displayed in Table 29.

Table 29

Summary of ANOVA: Gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	1047.65	1	1047.65	2.92
Within Groups	13285.39	37	359.06	
Total	3667.75	38		

**p <0.01

Ethnicity.

The means of teacher educators of different races/ethnicities was compared. The

results of a one-way ANOVA found no statistical significant difference (F(1,37) = 2.52, p

> .01). There was no statistically significant difference found between teacher educators'

of different races/ethnicities in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns

use culturally responsive teaching strategies. Caucasian teacher educators had a mean

score of 70.14 (sd = 21.25). Minority teacher educators had a mean score of 80.63 (sd =

12.36). The full model is displayed in Tables 30.

Table 30

Summary of ANOVA: Ethnicity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	913.83	1	913.83	.121
Within Groups	13419.21	37	362.681	
Total	14333.04	38		

**p <0.01

Geographical location.

Using a one-way ANOVA the means of teacher educators who live on different sides of town (east, west and south). There was no statistically significant difference found between teacher educators' who live on different side of town in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(2,36) = .001$, $p > .01$). Teacher educators who live on the east side of town had a mean score of 70.01 ($sd = 20.37$). Teacher educators who live on the west side of town had a mean score of 78.83 ($sd = 22.19$). Teacher educators who live on the south side of town had a mean score of 76.05 ($sd = 15.05$) The full model is displayed in Table 31.

Tables 31

Summary of ANOVA: Geographical location

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	547.02	2	273.51	.50
Within Groups	13786.02	36	382.95	
Total	14333.04	38		

**p <0.01

Level of education.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of teacher educators who possess Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctoral Degrees were compared. There was no statistically significant difference between teacher educators' with different educational levels in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(2,36) = .320$, $p > .01$). Only one teacher educator reported the highest degree awarded as a Bachelor's degree (m = 87.50). Teacher educators who posses a Master's degree had a mean score of 74.09 (sd = 17.44). Teacher educators who have Doctoral degrees had a mean score of 71.90 (sd = 21.86). The full model is displayed in Table 32.

Table 32

Summary of ANOVA: Level of Education

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	250.53	2	125.26	.320
Within Groups	14082.51	36	391.18	
Total	14333.04	38		

**p <0.01

Student teaching location.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of teacher educators whose student teaching geographical (urban, suburban, rural) locations differed were compared. There was no statistically significant difference found between teacher educators who student taught in urban, suburban and rural school in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(3,27) = .166$, $p > .01$). The teacher educators who student taught in urban schools had a mean score of 73.86 (sd =

18.33). Teacher educators who student taught in suburban schools had a mean score of 72.65 ($sd = 25.73$). Teacher educators who student taught in rural settings had a mean score of 68.08 ($sd = 13.86$). There was one teacher educator who reported student teaching in a setting not listed (m = 85.75). The full model is displayed in Table 33.

Table 33

Summary of ANOVA: Student Teaching Location of Teacher Educators

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	218.44	3	72.81	.166
Within Groups	11858.69	27	439.21	
Total	12077.13	30		

**p <0.01

Years of K-12 teaching.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the differences in the amount of years of teacher educators' taught at the K-12 level were compared. There was no statistically significant difference found between teacher educators who taught at the K-12 level between 0 and 21 years in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(4,26) = .324$, p > .01). The teacher educators who taught at the K-12 level between 0 and 5 years had a mean score of 68.57 ($sd = 26.04$). Teacher educators who taught at the K-12 level between 6 and 11 years had a mean score of 76.57 ($sd = 13.49$). Teacher educators who taught at the K-12 level between 12 and 17 years had a mean score of 74.70 ($sd = 15.32$). Teacher educators who taught at the K-12 level between 18 and 23 years had a mean score of 79.58 ($sd = 4.12$). Teacher educators

who taught at the K-12 level more than 23 years had a mean score of 77.85 ($sd = 18.91$).

The full model is displayed in Table 34.

Table 34

Summary of ANOVA: Years of Experience Teaching at the K-12 Level

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	574.14	4	143.54	.324
Within Groups	11502.99	26	442.42	
Total	12077.13	30		

**p <0.01

Role in supervision of pre-service interns.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of teacher educators who supervise pre-service interns was compared to the means of teacher educators who do not. There was a statistically significant difference between teacher educators' who supervise pre-service interns and those who do not assume this role in their in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(1,37) = 7.79$, p $> .01$, $\eta^2 = .17$). Teacher educators who also supervise pre-service interns in the field had a mean score of 82.46 ($sd = 13.83$). Teacher educators who do not supervisor pre-service interns had a mean score of 66.34 ($sd = 20.45$). Here, 17% of the variance is accounted for by teacher educators' role in pre-service interns' supervision. The full model is displayed in Table 35.

Table 35

Summary of ANOVA: Role in Supervision of Pre-service Interns

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	2491.40	1	2491.40	7.79	.174
Within Groups	11841.64	37	320.04		
Total	14333.04	38			

**p <0.01

Prior teaching location.

Using a one-way ANOVA, the means of teacher educators whose prior teaching geographical locations differed were compared. No significant difference was found ($F(3,27) = 1.26$, p > .01). There was no statistically significant difference found between teacher educators who taught in urban, suburban or rural schools in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies. The teacher educators who taught in urban schools had a mean score of 76.64 ($sd = 15.83$). Teacher educators who taught in suburban schools had a mean score of 64.08 ($sd = 25.64$). Teacher educators who taught in rural settings had a mean score of 64.50 ($sd = 41.37$). Teacher educators who have not taught at the K-12 level had a mean score of 85.54 ($sd = 2.94$). The full model is displayed in Table 36.

Table 36

Summary of ANOVA: Prior Teaching Location of Teacher Educators

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	1485.72	3	495.24	1.26
Within Groups	10591.42	27	392.28	
Total	12077.13	30		

**p <0.01

***Years working in teacher preparation*.**

Using a one-way ANOVA, the differences in the amount of years teacher

educators have worked in teacher preparation at the secondary level were compared.

There was no statistically significant difference found between novice and veteran

teacher educators in their perceptions of their ability to help pre-service interns use

culturally responsive teaching strategies ($F(4,34) = .241$, p > .01). The teacher educators

who have worked in teacher preparation between 1 and 5 years had a mean score of 72.47

(*sd* = 20.47). Teacher educators who who have worked in teacher preparation between 6

and 10 years had a mean score of 75.89 (*sd* = 19.80). Teacher educators who have

worked in teacher preparation between 11 and 15 years had a mean score of 67.88 (*sd* =

14.38). Teacher educators who have worked in teacher preparation between 16 and 20

years had a mean score of 70.09 (*sd* = 23.70). Teacher educators who have worked in

teacher preparation more than 21 years had a mean score of 81.62 (*sd* = 22.10). The full

model is displayed in Table 37.

Table 37

Summary of ANOVA: Length of Time Working in Teacher Preparation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	395.751	4	98.94	.241
Within Groups	13937.29	34	402.92	
Total	14333.04	38		

**p <0.01

Research question 4.

Do the culturally relevant teaching self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies of different cohorts of pre-service teachers suggest consistent patterns of responses?

For the purpose of this study, cohorts were established as a pre-service interns' stage in the teacher preparation program. The cohorts are categorized into four groups:

1. Pre-education Class Interns - those who take professional courses with very little to no field experience;

2. Methods Interns - those enrolled in methods courses with 20-75 hours of field experience;

3. Practicum Interns - those enrolled in practicum completing 80-240 hours in the field;

4. Student Teaching Interns - those enrolled in student teaching who spend between 400-600 hours in the field

Culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

It was hypothesized that as pre-service interns progress through their teacher preparation program, completing more field experience hours, that their CRTSE and CRTOE scores will increase. To examine potential differences among cohorts with respect to the CRTSE and CRTOE scales, two one-way ANOVAs were conducted between the four cohorts of pre-service interns: a) pre-education interns; b) methods interns; c) practicum interns; and d) student teaching interns. To determine if differences between cohorts are significant, a Post Hoc test, Games-Howell was performed.

The results of the ANOVA (see Tables 38) used to compare the CRTSE scores of the different cohorts of pre-service interns, suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between the cohorts' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Games-Howell was used to determine the nature of the differences between the cohorts (see Table 39). The results suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between each cohort of pre-service interns regarding their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy ($F(3,634) = 297.97$, $p < 0.05$. Pre-service interns who have yet to participate in methods, practicum or student teaching field experiences had a mean score of 71.86 (*sd,* 11.20). Methods interns had a mean score of 88.49 (*sd* = 1.74). Practicum interns had a mean score of 92.60 (*sd* = 0.65). Student teaching interns had a mean score of 96.36 (*sd* = 1.57).

Table 38

Summary of ANOVA: CRTSE of Pre-service Intern Cohorts

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	64965.72	3	21655.24	297.97**
Within Groups	46077.18	634	72.68	
Total	111042.89	637		

**p <0.05

Table 39

Games-Howell Multiple Comparisons of CRTSE Scores

(I) Amount of Field	(J) Amount of Field	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pre-Professional	Methods	-16.64*	.61	.000	-18.20	-15.07
	Practicum	-20.75*	.60	.000	-22.28	-19.21
	Student teaching	-24.51*	.61	.000	-26.08	-22.93
Methods	Pre-Professional	16.64*	.61	.000	15.07	18.20
	Practicum	-4.11*	.18	.000	-4.57	-3.65
	Student teaching	-7.87*	.22	.000	-8.44	-7.30
Practicum	Pre-Professional	20.75*	.50	.000	19.21	22.28
	Methods	4.11*	.18	.000	3.65	4.57
	Student teaching	-3.76*	.19	.000	-4.27	-3.26
Student teaching	Pre-professional	24.51*	.61	.000	22.93	26.08
	Methods	7.87*	.22	.000	7.30	8.44
	Practicum	3.76*	.19	.000	3.26	4.27

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancy.

It was hypothesized that as pre-service interns progress through their preparation program, completing more field experience hours that their CRTOE would increase. To examine potential differences among cohorts with respect to the CRTOE scale an

ANOVA was conducted between the four cohorts of pre-service interns: a) pre-education; b) methods; c) practicum; and d) student teachers. To determine if differences between cohorts are significant, a Post Hoc test, Games-Howell was performed.

The results of the ANOVA (see Table 40) used to compare the CRTOE scores of the pre-service intern cohorts suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between the cohorts' culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancy beliefs ($F(3,600) = 61.36$, $p < 0.05$. Games-Howell was used to determine the nature of the differences between the cohorts (see Table 41). The results suggest that pre-professional interns (m = 82.61 *sd,* 11.53) scored lower than all other interns followed by practicum interns (m = 91.26 *sd* = 8.66). Methods interns had a slightly higher, but not statistically significant mean (m = 91.43, *sd* = 6.09) than practicum interns. As expected, student teachers had the highest scores (m = 96.06, *sd* = 4.58).

Table 40

Summary of ANOVA: CRTOE of Pre-service Intern Cohorts

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	16904.202	3	5634.734	61.361**
Within Groups	55097.329	600	91.829	
Total	72001.531	603		

**p <0.05

Table 41

Games-Howell Multiple Comparisons of CRTOE Scores

(I) Amount of Field	(J) Amount of Field	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pre-Professional	Methods	-8.82*	.811	.000	-10.91	-6.73
	Practicum	-8.64*	1.50	.000	-12.62	-4.66
	Student teaching	-13.44*	.80	.000	-15.51	-11.38
Methods	Pre-Professional	8.82*	.81	.000	6.73	10.91
	Practicum	.19	1.46	.999	-3.71	4.07
	Student teaching	-4.63*	.72	.000	-6.49	-2.76
Practicum	Pre-Professional	8.64*	1.50	.000	4.66	12.62
	Methods	-.19	1.46	.999	-4.07	3.71
	Student teaching	-4.80*	1.46	.010	-8.68	-.93
Student teaching	Pre-professional	13.44*	.80	.000	11.38	15.51
	Methods	4.62177*	.72	.000	2.7571	6.4864
	Practicum	4.80247*	1.46	.010	.9295	8.6755

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Summary of Results

In sum the results indicated several significant findings. The difference between pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs only minimally varied. While mentor teachers had a slightly higher CRTSE score than pre-service interns, interestingly, both groups reported being the most confident in their ability to develop positive relationships and both groups reported the least amount of confidence in their ability to communicate with English Language Learners. There was a more considerable difference in the mean scores between university supervisor and teacher educators regarding their confidence in their ability to assist pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies. University supervisors and teacher educators reported feeling the most confident in their ability to help pre-service interns make their own students feel like important members of the classroom. As with pre-service interns and mentor teachers, university supervisors and teachers educators agreed that they are not confident in their ability to assist pre-service interns with communicating with English Language Learners.

The amount of field experience completed by interns as well as the location of field experiences significantly contributed to the pre-service interns' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy; pre-service interns with more field experience in urban settings were more confident regarding culturally responsive teaching. Additionally, as pre-service interns progressed through their teacher preparation program, they also believe in the positive outcomes resulting from culturally responsive pedagogical practices. Race and teaching experience (measured in years) significantly contributed to the mentor teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Specifically, being a mentor

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teacher of color and either being toward the beginning (less than 11 years) or toward the end (more than 15 years) of the teaching career suggested higher levels of confidence is regards to culturally responsive teaching.

There was no particular variable found related to the university supervisors' perceptions of helping pre-service interns use culturally responsive teaching strategies, however teacher educators who do not supervise interns in addition to their teaching duties had lower mean scores than teacher educators who in addition to teaching courses, assume the role of supervision.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Overview

In this chapter, I discuss and interpret the research results presented in Chapter 4 combining the context of this study with applicable research literature. It is important that the results of this study are *interpreted with caution*. Within each section, I also consider the implications of these results in terms of teacher preparation programs. I close with future research suggestions, limitations of this study and final conclusions.

A teacher's belief in his or her ability to positively impact student learning is critical to actual success or failure in a teacher's behavior (Henson, 2001). Researchers such as Anita Woolfolk, a noted scholar in the field of teacher efficacy, reported that teachers who set high goals, persist, and try various strategies until they find one that works are those who have a high sense of efficacy (Woolkfolk Hoy, 2003). These teachers are more likely to have a positive effect on students' learning (Shaughnessy, 2004). Siwatu (2006) introduced the need to empirically examine the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy of teachers due to the vast number of school servicing diverse populations. Therefore, I begin this section reporting on the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy of this study's participants.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy

The results of this study provide a glimpse of the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies in one urban mid-western teacher preparation program. A primary purpose of this study was to investigate the CRTSE of pre-service interns and mentor teachers. It was hypothesized that because pre-service interns are still naïve in thinking about working with diverse cultures in schools, their CRTSE responses would be inflated, producing an artificial level of confidence, higher than the confidence levels of mentor teachers actually working in the field (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003). The findings of this study do not fully support that hypothesis.

Culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy global scores.

Pre-service interns and mentor teachers.

Pre-service interns had a mean score of 80.81, while mentor teachers had a mean score of 82.23. This signifies that mentor teachers in this sample were slightly more confident than were pre-service interns with respect to culturally responsive teaching. Siwatu (2007) reported that efforts to prepare culturally responsive teachers have increased, requiring teacher educators to insure that pre-service interns are confident in their ability to execute the practices of culturally responsive teaching since the concept of culturally responsive teaching formally emerged almost 20 years ago (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Almost 50 percent of mentor teachers in this sample have been teaching for less than 20 years, suggesting that they were most likely trained in teacher preparation programs at the same time that the notion of cultural responsiveness exploded into the world of education. It is possible that these teachers were in the first cohort of teachers to be consciously trained for cultural competence.

In some teacher preparation programs, culturally responsive teaching is a priority and others, maybe not so much. Because a large number of mentor teachers were formally trained as teachers at the same university as the pre-service interns in this study, I was particularly interested in examining their CRTSE. Since it can be assumed that they received a similar education as the pre-service interns, I was particularly interested in a comparison of the pre-service interns' and mentor teachers' CRTSE who attended the university used in this study. Recall that pre-service interns' CRTSE mean score was 80.81 and the mentor teachers had a mean score of 82.23. Excluding all mentor teachers except those who were trained at the same university where the pre-service interns were also trained (n = 156, m = 84.18), the CRTSE mean of mentor teachers increased from 82.23 to 84.18. These findings suggest that the teachers trained at the university used in this study are fairly confident in their ability to be culturally responsive.

The findings also revealed that the majority of all mentor teachers 54% (n = 254) currently work in urban settings. It has been reported in the literature that many urban settings are likely to be culturally diverse (Bakari, 2003). The research university's Diversity Action Plan supports this claim: "The idea of diversity is of central significance, particularly in urban settings where issues surrounding race, multiculturalism, socio-economic status, and exceptionality are in higher focus than in the larger society" (DAP, 2010, p. 37-38). Thus, it can be concluded that the majority of mentor teachers in this study have had a variety of opportunities to work with students of different cultures and increase their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. It is therefore hopeful that if the pre-service interns were surveyed after several years of teaching, their CRTSE would rise to the overall level of the mentor teachers in this study.

As far back as 1977, Bandura stated that experience was the best teacher (Bandura, 1977). Subsequently, it came as no surprise that student teachers (interns with the most field experience) were more confident in regard to culturally responsive teaching (m = 96.40) when compared with other interns.

This trend did not manifest itself similarly among mentor teachers, however. Although only 39 mentor teachers reported teaching for less than five years, these are the mentors who had the highest CRTSE (m= 85.20). This finding suggests that there is still some optimism as teachers leave college and enter the profession which is slightly different than what the literature implies. The literature discusses teachers whose confidence levels drastically decrease as soon as the support of the university or a mentor teacher has been removed (Aydin & Hoy, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 2000; Rushton, 2000, 2001). This study's findings do not completely support this as mentor teachers in this study reported significant declines in efficacy during the eleventh through fifteenth year of teaching. This needs to be explored further, specifically; elements of teachers' experience that may help them maintain a high level of CRTSE.

By the time mentor teachers in this study have reached year eleven, their confidence level has dropped from 85.20 to 81.52. So, more importantly, what has happened over the years that may have lead to decreases in the confidence to be culturally responsive? It is possible that the answers to these questions can help school districts aggressively attack the attrition rate among teaching faculty, helping teachers feel confident enough to remain in the profession.

University supervisors and teacher educators.

Since at first glance, it is appears that the teacher preparation program at the university used in this study is fairly successful at preparing teachers who are confident in their culturally responsive pedagogy, it is necessary to complete the picture and examine those who prepare teachers: University supervisors and teacher educators. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan (2009), amongst others, have criticized teacher preparation programs for failing to prepare teachers to meet the needs of a global society. While I do not proclaim nor desire to pass judgment on teacher preparation programs in whole or in part, I share the sentiment of Duncan's criticism in regards to preparing teachers to work with diverse students.

Initially, it would appear by the majority of the interns' and mentor teachers' (who attended the university used in this study) item-specific and global scores, that the university used in this study has much to celebrate in the terms of preparing a group of culturally responsive teachers positioned for jobs in diverse schools as indicated in the college's and the university's mission statement.

This interpretation should be tempered with caution, however, it was hypothesized that teacher educators would be more confident than university supervisors in their ability to assist pre-service interns with using culturally responsive strategies. This was not the case: University supervisors outscored teacher educators on 34 out of 40 (94%) of the items. This may be due in part to the nature of the self-report methodology employed in this study. Scholars Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, and Cervero (2005, p.1267) put it best when they argued that Whites fraternizing to "talk the good talk" and solve the

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problems of others is just that; "talk". Colleges of Education around the country are saturated with "talkers".

Before the talking begins, teacher educators must self-reflect to honestly examine their attitudes and beliefs about themselves and others. Villegas and Lucas (2002) reported that it is through this self-reflection process that people discover who they are and can confront biases that influence their value systems. It has been widely reported that people can be resistant to the notion that their values might reflect prejudices or even racism towards certain groups. For these reasons I hypothesized that the teacher educators, more so than university supervisors, would provide responses to aggrandize their ability to assist pre-service interns with culturally responsive teaching strategies. The findings of this study did not support this hypothesis.

It is possible that teacher educators are focused on their specific course content, not assisting interns in becoming culturally responsive teachers. Therefore may not feel confident that they assist pre-service interns with many of the items on the CRTSE scale. Considering these findings, it would behoove teacher preparation programs, university supervisors and neighboring school districts to share the responsibility of training teachers at the pre-service and in-service levels. School districts can take an active role in preparing the type of teachers they intend to employ (i.e. allowing successful teachers to co-teach with teacher educators), while colleges of education can provide professional development opportunities (which involve university supervisors taking an active role in the training sessions) to in-service teachers to counteract the expected decrease in teaching efficacy.

Culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy specific items.

In the previous section, I discussed the overall mean CRTSE scores of the participants. However, as Siwatu (2007) stated, it is imperative that specific items be explored, placing more weight on the item-specific responses than the global score. The global score does not allow for those specific aspects of culturally responsive teaching that teachers feel more and less efficacious. In addition, it is the item specific response that can be more reasonably addressed in teacher preparation.

High CRTSE items.

One of the main dimensions of culturally responsive teaching is that students will experience more success if teachers provide an instructional environment that minimized students' alienation as they attempt to reconcile school and home (Allen & Boykin, 1992; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Richards, Brown, & Forde 2006). At first glance, my findings suggest that the pre-service interns and the mentor teachers are doing just that as both groups reported being more efficacious in their ability to create an environment where positive, trusting relationships with students are developed.

While building positive relationships is undoubtedly a crucial component to culturally responsive teaching (Allen & Boykin, 1992; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Richards, Brown, & Forde 2006), further research is needed to determine how pre-service interns and mentor teachers may best accomplish these tasks. Specifically, future research should seek to identify what strategies are used to build an environment of trusting, personal relationships with students. Additionally, to triangulate these self-reported accomplishments, someone other than the respondent should also be surveyed to report on the ability of the respondent to effectively carry out these tasks.

Although, this finding is encouraging, *I recognize that self-reported data is not reliable enough* (Lefever, Dal, & Matthíasdóttir, 2007*), to solely make a case that pre-service interns and mentor teachers are confident that they can successfully build trusting relationships with students*. In the case of mentor teachers, their students, the parents of their students, or their administrators could provide input. Teacher educators or university supervisors can provide information about the pre-service interns' ability to build trust and develop relationships with K-12 students. I raise the question of "what strategies are used to build an environment of trusting, personal relationships with students because, as important as it is to examine what interns and mentors teachers report doing well, it is equally if not more important to examine areas of concern: Communicating with English Language Learners (ELLs).

Low CRTSE items.

Communicating with English Language Learners. While it may appear that teacher preparation programs, including the teacher preparation program used in this study, are doing a commendable job training teachers to build positive relationships with students at the K-12 level the low scores concerning communicating with ELLs suggest otherwise. Pre-service interns and mentor teachers scored lowest on items questioning their confidence in the ability to communicate with ELL students. Likewise, university supervisors and teacher educators scored lowest in their confidence that they can help pre-service interns with these competencies. When discussing these four items in particular all groups reported a lack of confidence in regards to communicating with ELLs whether it is direct communication or helping someone else to effectively communicate with students whose native language is one other than English.

I believe that although communicating with ELL students only represents a small portion of the data, it is important to discuss the implications of these findings. This finding mirrors the results of Siwatu's (2007) study. Siwatu also reported that pre-service interns scored the lowest on the CRTSE scale for their ability to communicate with ELLs. According to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), because pre-service and mentor teachers' perceive an inability to successfully converse with ELLs, they are likely to shy away from communication with ELLs assigned to their classrooms.

Not surprising, pre-service interns seeking a teaching license in Foreign Language (n=16) scored higher on items specifically related to communicating with ELLs. For a comparison of Foreign Language interns' and other pre-service interns' item specific means, see Table 42.

Table 42

Comparison of Foreign Language Licensure Pre-Service Interns' and Interns Majoring

in Other Areas' CRTSE in Regards to Communicating with ELLs

Item	Foreign Language Majors	Other Education Majors
Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their own language	78.07	60.79
Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their own language	79.00	2.30
Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding	90.88	75.02
Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement	86.13	69.70

The same is true for mentor teachers who teach foreign language (See Table 43).

Table 43

Comparison of Foreign Language Mentor Teachers and Mentor Teachers' in Other

Areas' CRTSE in Regards to Communicating with ELLs

Item	Foreign Language Mentor Teachers	Mentor Teachers in Other Content Areas
Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their own language	72.17	52.49
Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their own language	72.71	54.22
Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding	87.96	21.01
Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement	85.17	21.39

However, because students seeking a Foreign Language teaching license only comprised 3% of the total sample, 97% of pre-service intern respondents are lacking confidence communicating with ELLs. Similarly, only 4.9% of the mentor teachers reported being Foreign Language teachers, indicating that approximately 95% of the mentor teachers are lacking confidence communicating with ELLs.

According to the *Culturally Responsive Teaching Competencies* (Siwatu, 2006a), culturally responsive teachers know how to communicate with students who are

developing a mastery of the English language. In Ohio, more than 35,000 limited English proficient (LEP) students/English Language Learners (ELL) were enrolled in the state's elementary and secondary public schools during the 2006-2007 school years. This represents an increase of 68 percent over the number reported five years previously and an increase of 182 percent over the number reported 10 years ago (ODE, 2010). Therefore the findings in this study are important for teacher preparation programs and school districts given the lack of confidence of future and in-service teachers and the likelihood that these teachers will teach students from linguistically diverse backgrounds (ODE, 2010; Siwatu, 2006; Taylor & Sobel, 2001).

Bear in mind that item-specific means for pre-service interns and mentor teachers suggest that they are confident in their ability to build trusting relationships with their students. Interestingly, these teachers and future teachers cannot communicate with students whose native language is not English: This is troubling. The findings indicate that we have a cadre of teachers and future teachers claiming to be highly confident that they can successfully build positive relationships with students, but only if it excludes communicating with certain groups of students, namely ELLs.

As Bandura (1986) projected, pre-service teachers in Siwatu's (2006) study discussed their apprehension about teaching ELL students and their lack of preparedness to do so. One pre-service teacher reported that she would rather not try to communicate with ELLs using phrases in their native language for a fear of being embarrassed. While other teachers and pre-service interns may share this sentiment, researchers such as Jolly, Hampton, and Guzman (1999) and Curran (2003) argued that teachers should not succumb to fear in regards to communicating with ELLs.

I further argue that in addition to fear, some teachers (pre-service and in-service) make conscious choices to ignore the variety of languages in their classrooms (Delpit, 1995). Milner (2009) believed that diversity courses should empower pre-service teachers rather than forcing them to think in a particular way. Remember that researchers such as Manglitz, Johnson-Bailey, and Cervero (2005); Milner (2009); and Mohan (2009) reported that members of the dominant group often view themselves, their lived experiences, and their behaviors as ''normal''. Those different from them are perceived as the "other." The "others" were the ones who needed to be taught how to assimilate into the dominant [normal] group. It is quite possible that teachers view ELLs as "others", and that they make no conscious effort to acknowledge the ELLs cultural discourse in the classroom?

This is disheartening, but more importantly it could be hindering the academic success of ELL students. Several researchers stated that there are several positive outcomes that result from teachers who make a concerted effort to communicate with *all* of their students (i.e. correctly pronounce the names of ELLs). There is also research which provides evidence that displaying welcome signs in the classroom in the students' native language also has positive outcomes; students feel like members of the classroom environment (Jolly et al., 1999; Curran, 2003). Instead of duplicating efforts, school districts and teacher preparation programs can work together to provide instruction on effective strategies for working with ELLs in the regular classroom.

There is much more work to be done on the part of teacher preparation programs to introduce all pre-service interns to the theories and practices of working with ELLs (Siwatu, 2007). Teacher educators who work with pre-service interns seeking a foreign

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language teaching license might work with all pre-service interns educating them about ELLs, these teacher educators might also provide professional development for teacher educators and mentor teachers in other disciplines.

Because it was obvious that items pertaining to communicating with ELLs were scored low by pre-service interns and mentor teachers, I parsed the data, excluding the four items regarding ELLs. Aside from those items, I was interested in what other items suggest low confidence levels in all groups. Recalling that the CRTSE scale elicits scores that range from a low score of 0 (which indicates the complete absence of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy) to 100 (which represents the most confident state of culturally responsive teaching), for the purpose of this part of the analysis, I chose to focus on items yielding a CRTSE average below 80 for all groups. In the following section, I will report the specific items with CRTSE averages less than 80 (see Table 44), my interpretations of that particular data, and implications for teacher preparation programs and future research.

Table 44

Low CRTSE Items of Pre-Service Interns and Mentor Teachers Excluding Items

Regarding ELLs

	Mean			
Item	Pre-Service Interns	Mentor Teacher	University Supervisors	Teacher Educator
Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture	75.60	79.82	79.07	79.58
Teach students about their culture's contribution to science	72.29	68.03	66.25	41.08
Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students	74.95	70.81	65.71	72.90
Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics	71.19	60.79	64.93	43.72
Use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how my students like to learn	77.76	78.92	79.91	71.51
Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds	78.89	78.77	77.61	78.10

Students' home environment. There is one item related to students' home lives that received low scores from each group. It involves the ability to provide an experience for students that minimizes the disconnect between students' home and academic lives. Pre-service interns and mentor teachers report that they do not do it well and university supervisors and teacher educators admit that they do not assist pre-service interns to be successful using strategies to do this in the classroom.

For many students, the kinds of behaviors required in school (e.g. only speaking when called upon, looking a teacher in the eye when speaking, sitting at a desk for periods at a time) contrasts with their home, cultural and linguistic practices. To increase students' success, it is imperative that teachers help students bridge this discontinuity between home and school (Allen & Boykin, 1992; Richards, Brown & Forde, 2006). It is unquestioned that students differ widely in schools. Their beliefs, interests, daily activities and family composition contribute to these differences. Yet common practices such as religion and discourse transcend generations. Additionally, movies, music, books, and popular media may be represented in a students' home environment and contribute to their learning processes (Risko & Dalhouse, 2007).

It is important that the superficial level on which many teachers "get to know" their students' families be examined. According to Richards, Brown and Forde (2006, pgs. 6-7), engaging students' families in the classroom "allows teachers to relate to their students as more than just bodies in the classroom but also as social and cultural beings connected to a complex social and cultural network". Furthermore, by familiarizing oneself with students' home lives and using their environments as resources, teachers gain insight into the influences on the students' attitudes and behaviors which can

positively contribute to the academic progress of students (Richards, Brown & Forde, 2006).

It is crucial that pre-service interns be supplied with resources that will build their confidence in connecting with students' home lives. More research needs to be done to examine if university supervisors and teacher educators have the ability themselves to reconcile the school/home mismatch, but lack the ability to teach others how to do it. Or would supervisors and teacher education faculty members benefit from professional development in this domain as well?

Certainly I am not suggesting that teachers should ignore the state standards in lieu of teaching about each child's cultural heritage. In fact, I do not suggest that an academic curriculum differs from a cultural curriculum and that one must be selected over the other. I instead propose that an academic curriculum be infused with culture. I agree with Jones (2007) that a culturally competent curriculum is based on the principle that successful teaching and learning for ethnically diverse students can be expedited through the use of instructional materials that are not only standards-based, but also through the recognition of the contributions that people of these ethnic groups have made to her current bank of knowledge. As Ladson-Billings (1994, p. 159) stated, "That's just good teaching"!

The data has been consistent that the majority of K-12 teachers are White females from middle-class environments. Milner (2003) dissects this phenomenon further by adding that many of these White teachers enter pre-service programs and later enter with little previous contact with racial groups other than their own. This limited contact contributes to the negative perceptions of minority students held by some of these

teachers (Terrill & Mark, 2000). If what these researchers have reported is true, then teacher preparation programs can either choose to be a part of the problem or part of the solution. They can help pre-service teachers locate resources to learn about their students' home lives in order to provide a culturally competent curriculum and connect academics to students' home lives, or teacher preparation programs can continue business as usual, accepting that a mismatch between students' home and school cultures bears no importance on achievement and fail to prioritize requiring pre-service interns to demonstrate proficiency in this area.

    Cultural curriculum. Although this study is not about the academic achievement of minority students, culturally responsive teaching cannot be studied without at least mentioning the achievement gap. School success, for many African-American students has been linked to culture (Boykin, 2001; Lee et al., 2003; Parsons, 2003). Given culture's influence on cognitive development (Rogoff, 2003; Rogoff & Chavajay, 1995), some researchers contend that cultural themes and practices salient in many minority students' home experiences can be used to enhance academic performance (Gay, 2000; Hilliard, 2000).

    It was surprising to me that respondents in this study reported a lack of confidence in using a learning preference inventory to gather data about how students like to learn. Learning inventories provide information about students' interest in such a way that teachers can select relevant material for students. How can teachers prepare practical lessons for students if they do not know how to accurately assess students' learning preferences? The internet is full of various learning preference inventories, in fact, I would guess that at one time or another many participants in this study have taken such

an assessment. One of my colleagues suggested that it is possible that the term, 'learning preference inventory' confused the participants. While I do not denounce this claim, it is equally as troubling considering that all of the mentor teachers, university supervisors and the majority of teacher educators have been formally trained as teachers. It is my suggestion that current syllabi be reviewed for concepts such as learning preference inventories. Assuming that the concept is on print on at least one syllabus in the university's teacher preparation program, when found, it should be made clear that if the concept is present, it is expected that it be taught.

Standardized testing. Since academic achievement is commonly measured using standardized tests, the theme that I will discuss in this section is the lack of confidence surrounding standardized testing: specifically, identifying ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students. Simply stated, the assessment of students' abilities and achievement must be as accurate and complete as possible if effective instruction is to occur. This can only be accomplished when the assessment instruments and procedures are valid for the population being assessed (Richards, Brown & Forde, 2006).

In today's schools, students represent a diverse group that may pre-dispose them to different communication practices and different learning preferences, assessment instruments should be varied accordingly. When this does not happen, invalid judgments about students' abilities or achievement are likely to occur. Further, tests that are not culturally and linguistically sensitive will merely indicate what students' do not know according to the dominant culture and language, but very little about they do know (Richards, Brown & Forde, 2006).

I am aware that teachers cannot change the testing structure. However, when preparing for the tests, it is critical that teachers be aware of cultural and linguistic norms that could prohibit a student from performing successfully as well as the norms that can provide the best chance at students' achievement. Teacher educators and university supervisors should understand test bias so that they can help pre-service interns develop these competencies. While teacher educators and university supervisors are usually not a part of preparing K-12 students for standardized testing, their influence directly impacts pre-service interns' performance on the state licensing exam; the Praxis. Using this test as a tool, culturally and linguistically biased content can be analyzed.

Examining the relationship between culture and achievement is not a new concept. The unacceptably low achievement levels of minority students, particularly African American children, have captured the attention of many researchers (i.e. Gallimore & Goldenberg, 2001; Hale, 2001; Paige & Witty, 2010). There are infinite theories as to why the achievement gap exists. One pertinent explanation for this research is what Paige and Witty (2010) refer to as Educational Deprivation. Although educational deprivation is defined in various ways, for the purpose of this research, I consider Paige and Witty's explanation that educational deprivation exists when students are deprived the fundamentals essential to sound cognitive development, most especially, high expectations and great teaching.

I believe that effective culturally responsive educational practices can overcome these problems regardless of the child's environment. Culturally responsive teachers understand that the *term* 'regardless' should not be mistaken with the *practice* of ignoring. 'Regardless' is synonymous with 'in spite of'. Teachers who use "regardless"

still allow for the recognition of the home environment; they do not use it as a reason to accept less or worse, accept failure. On the other hand, teachers who ignore students' home environments refrain from noticing; to them, the home environment is irrelevant, it does not matter. Kunjufu (2005) offers an example of the students' cultures being ignored. He wrote that one of the causes of illiteracy in African-American children is the content of the reading material. Why would children want to read books that ignore their culture and environment? Teachers, Kunjufu stated, need to offer reading material that glorifies and informs children of their culture and heritage.

I offer a more another example using the Ohio State Standards. The development and implementation of timelines is a standard which is to be taught over several grades in Ohio. Is it unreasonable for teachers to encourage students to create timelines investigating their own family's history or cultural traditions instead of tracing the life of a randomly assigned historical figure each year? Another standard required by Ohio's schools is Mapping Skills. As a matter of fact, students in Ohio study maps and geographical location from the K-12th grades. Instead of all students studying the same maps with small green shapes to represent trees and thin, wavy lines to symbolize bodies of water, is it possible that geographical skills can be taught using the neighborhoods or communities in which the students are familiar? Can students master mapping skills by tracing the various neighborhoods, cities, and states inhabited by their families and ancestors? History is not the only discipline where cultural curriculum is relevant. Undoubtedly a student will be asked to write an abundance of reports which teachers often use to assess students' Language Arts competencies during their K-12 education.

Can students hone their literary skills using anecdotes from elders or family members to summarize as well as celebrate their family's special events or traditions?

It should be noted that this survey did not ask about question pertaining to the Social Studies and Language Arts disciplines specifically, however, there were specific questions about the Science and Math. Pre-service interns and mentor teachers in this study do not feel confident about teaching students about their culture's contribution to science or math and university supervisors and teacher educators lacked confidence that they could assist pre-service interns in these areas. On the surface, these findings may seem insignificant. Although the demographic information asked for respondents to report licensure areas, content areas were not addressed. Future studies of this nature should address content areas of the respondents specifically. In this study however, it is reasonable to assume that not all of the middle school or secondary education interns or teachers teach science or math specifically, so why would they be able to teach students about their culture's contributions to these disciplines?

This finding is significant because it is important that teachers become educated about the lives and experiences of other cultural groups. This can help them to appreciate how different historical experiences have shaped attitudes and perspectives of various groups (Richards, Brown, & Forde, 2006). Learning about other cultures is not as tedious as one might think. For example: When teaching in a school district experiencing an influx of Romanian students, I too had to learn things about my new students' culture. While I can certainly recall labeling items in the classroom with the Romanian and English texts and making an effort to learn the correct pronunciation of my students' first

and last names; I cannot honestly say that I remember addressing Romanian scientists or mathematicians.

However, I would like to draw your attention again to the science item specifically; it asks that respondents report their perceived ability to teach students about their cultures' contribution to science. This is not a "knowledge-based" question: The statement does not ask respondents to begin rattling off scientists of various cultural backgrounds; the latter task would be difficult for most. I offer a resource that should be easy to access for all; *Google Scholar*.

Referring back to my example of having several Romanian students in my classroom over the course of my career, I decided to give Google Scholar a try. I typed Romanian Scientists into the search engine, over 18,000 hits were returned. So even if I could not name a single Romanian scientist when the first Romanian student entered my classroom, by the time he/she settled at the desk provided, I could have accessed not only the names of Romanian scientists, but an abundance of other information about the Romanian culture simply with the use of the web. Some might argue that low confidence in the area of learning about other cultures is a lack of knowledge; I prefer to view it as a lack of effort.

I acknowledge that it is possible that the respondents did not think of accessing the web and using it as a tool when answering items on the survey. However, according to Internet World Statistics (2010), 77.4% of Americans use the internet daily. Americans use the web and social networks for everything from shopping to dating to banking to traveling; can we not use it for culturally responsive teaching especially since it contains

a wealth of information that might enhance academic performance in classroom settings (Tyler, Boykin, & Walton, 2006)?

According to Jones (2007), responsive, curricular approaches demonstrate to students that classroom material is relevant to their cultural environments. In addition, it allows teachers to do accomplish the very objective that this study's participants have reported that they cannot confidently do: Identify the mismatch between a student's home life and the culture of the school so that cultural curriculum can be used in the classroom to support students' achievement regardless of environmental conditions. *I have only provided a sample of item-specific results. Future studies should be conducted to further examine the individual items, specifically, items where the means of different groups resulted in large discrepancies as well as items where the means were the same or close between all groups.*

Predictors of Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy

Discussing tasks that the respondents cannot confidently execute, is logically followed by a 'why' question: Why are the CRTSE scores low in the aforementioned areas? It was hypothesized that several variables would contribute to the CRTSE score of each group of participants: (a) Pre-service interns - race/ethnicity, age, geographical location of home residence, geographical location of field experience and the amount of time spent in the field (pre-professional, methods, practicum, and student teachers); (b) mentor teachers - race/ethnicity, years teaching, designation of school district (urban, suburban, urban/suburban), education level and geographical location of home residence; (c) university supervisors - gender, ethnicity, geographical location, highest level of education, geographical location of teaching experiences including student teaching, most

current K-12 teaching assignment, length of time as a full-time teacher, and experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study; lastly for in examining the confidence of teacher educators, the following variables were analyzed: gender, ethnicity, geographical location, highest level of education, geographical location of teaching experiences including student teaching, length of time working in teacher preparation, geographical location of the majority of previous K-12 teaching assignments, length of time as a full-time K-12 teacher and experience with supervising prospective teachers from the university included in this study.

The findings from this study did not provide a strong predictor model for either of the groups and therefore should also be *interpreted with caution.* While certain variables such as the amount of field and completing the first formalized field experience in an urban setting significantly contributed to the CRTSE of pre-service interns, further research is needed to explore the predictor variables individually and then re-examine this hypothesis. *Although each variable used has been reported as a predictor of confidence in regards to culturally responsive teaching, collaboratively, there was little strength in the predictions. Therefore, it is my suggestion that future studies include only the predictor variables that are found the most in the literature: race and teaching experience. Another alternative would be for researchers to use the forward regression method to examine the contribution of individual variables to participants' overall confidence levels.*

Pre-service interns and mentor teachers.

The literature is rich with studies that African-Americans are the best teachers for African-Americans (i.e. Kunjufu, 1984; Ukpokodu, 2004); however race was not a factor

in the CRTSE of pre-service interns, university supervisors or teacher educators. For mentor teachers however, the outcome was different. Race significantly contributed to the CRTSE of mentor teachers as teachers of colors reported being more confident in regards to culturally responsive teaching. This particular finding partially supports my hypothesis. However, since the vast majority of teachers are White (Gay & Howard, 2000; Villegas & Davis, 2007) qualitative studies and observations of teachers thought to be culturally responsive should be conducted. Then, successful strategies can be shared with all teachers regardless of ethnicity in an effort to increase their confidence in using culturally responsive teaching strategies. However, as with other findings of this study, the extent to which race impacts one's confidence in regards to culturally responsive teaching should be *interpreted with caution*.

University supervisors and teacher educators.

Although the small number of university supervisors and teacher educators did not allow for a regression analysis, a series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted. Instead of examining the extent to which predictor variables contributed to their CRTSE, the relationship between each variable and the CRTSE average of university supervisors and teacher educators was explored. For the university supervisors, no variables were significantly related to CRTSE. For the teacher educators, only one variable proved to be significant: Supervising pre-service interns in addition to teaching courses in the teacher preparation program.

There are some universities where the faculty assumes the responsibility for all of the pre-service interns' field experiences. However, this is not always practical at large universities with a growing number of education students. Therefore, it is my

recommendation that supervisors and teacher educators work together to develop a supervisory model that can be effective in assisting pre-service interns with not only content knowledge and professional dispositions, but culturally responsive teaching strategies as well.

Recommendations

It should be noted that examining the CRTSE of different groups should be completed as a mixed methods study: This study only provided quantitative data. While I believe the data provided a foundation for examining culture and efficacy in teacher preparation; I suggest that a qualitative component be added. Researchers need to allow participants to openly discuss the items presented in this study instead of confining them to 40 questions. Through an analysis of these discussions and the quantitative data provided, a richer, usable data set would be produced.

The survey also needs to be contextualized. It is not clear as to what specific district or school the respondents were thinking of when answering the questions. Realistically, responses were likely based on their most current school experiences. However, there are several respondents who may not be affiliated with a K-12 school (interns at the beginning of their program, university supervisors and teacher educators). From where did these respondents draw to answer questions about being culturally responsive? This needs to be addressed in future research on the topic.

Other teacher preparation programs should be invited to participate in the study. This would allow for comparisons not only across groups, but also comparisons across universities. A larger sample size adds to the generalizability of the study's findings and with an increased sample, particularly of university supervisors and teacher educators; it

will be possible to conduct a regression to explore the extent to which the demographic variables contribute to CRTSE.

Differences Between Cohorts

Lastly, it was hypothesized that as pre-service interns evolve throughout their teacher preparation program, completing more field experience hours, that their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies would increase. The data fully supports this hypothesis. Pre-service interns increasingly became more confident in their ability to be culturally responsive while their culturally responsive outcome expectancies increased as they moved through the university's teacher preparation program.

What is most promising about this finding is that even if the scores were inflated, they still represent a progressive inflation. What is missing from this analysis is what level of CRTSE and what CRTOE beliefs pre-service interns bring with them when entering the program. Although, I believe that the university is building interns' culturally responsive confidence during the time the interns are enrolled, the study does not provide an answer to on what is being built? Are the interns' already in the habit of using culturally responsive teaching strategies when they enroll or are they culturally incompetent at induction? I propose that a repeated measures study be conducted to measure interns' change over time in regards to CRTSE and CRTOE. Another study that can provide useful results is the pre-post test design: Measure the CRTSE and CRTOE of students at induction and at graduation. Teacher educators might also want to use this model to measure the CRTSE and CRTOE of interns as the beginning and end of their particular course. This would provide individual results to teacher educators in regards to

their courses' ability to assist pre-service interns with culturally responsive teaching strategies.

Lastly, I suggest that the university develop an instrument for its recent graduates who are working as full-time teachers. Findings from such an instrument can provide information such as the relationship between what was taught in teacher preparation and what is needed in the real world of teaching.

Summary

I have discussed the results of the data along with my interpretations of the results, the relevant literature that addresses the concepts introduced, the implications for teacher preparation programs, school districts and the future research opportunities in the sections above. Culturally responsive teaching is an enormous topic, so large that it often needs to be studied in miniscule parts. This study attempted to investigate four major components of a teacher preparation program at one university: pre-service interns, mentor teachers, university supervisors and teacher educators; it is just a small piece of a huge phenomenon. I attempted to provide a picture illustrating the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies in one program in the College of Education. This picture, though only a snapshot, provided interesting concepts from the hypotheses that were not fully supported to that the data were able to support. It also provided data that can be shared with a large audience as the overall goal in teacher preparation programs is to prepare effective teachers for current and future schools.

While I do not suggest that using culturally responsive strategies is the only way to be an effective teacher, I do believe that teachers have a responsibility to all of their students. Teachers must work to endure that every student has an equal opportunity to be

successful. If instruction reflects only the cultural practices and values of the dominant group, then teachers will admit or not, all other students are denied this opportunity. Instruction that is culturally responsive addresses the needs of all learners (Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2000; Richards, Brown & Ford, 2006).

The educational institution provides the standards and benchmarks for schools; teachers have to transmit this prescribed curriculum to their students. Fortunately, the role of the teacher provides a unique opportunity to either advance the status quo or make decision to impact the academic achievement and the lives of their students. Understanding that the curriculum is dictated by the state's educational system and may fall short in addressing the needs of all students, it is crucial that teachers be prepared and confident to provide a bridge. When the system reflects linguistic and cultural insensitivity and bias, teachers are being called on to demonstrate courage, understanding and support (Richards, Brown & Ford, 2006). Teachers must utilize text, get to know families, use materials and examples, engage in culturally practices that demonstrate values that include rather than exclude students from different backgrounds. Simply put, teachers must be culturally responsive (Gay, 2000; Irvine & Armento, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 20000; Richards, Brown & Ford, 2006; Siwatu, 2006, 2007; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Villegas, 2007). By doing so, teachers will have satisfied their responsibility to today and tomorrow's students.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PRE-SERVICE INTERNS' PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORMS AND

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY AND OUTCOME

EXPECTANCY SCALES

2011 Interns' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

1. Pre-service Intern Survey Informed Consent Statement

Culturally Relevant Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy Scales

Dear Pre-Service Teacher:
In an attempt to gather students' input about your perceptions of being culturally responsive in the classroom, I invite you to complete a 20-25 minute survey to help me evaluate how confident you feel in regards to becoming a culturally responsive teacher.

If you have already completed this survey in a previous semester, it is acceptable to complete it again as efficacy levels change from semester to semester.

I am conducting this study as part of teacher preparation program improvement efforts. I would like your opinions regarding your culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and your culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancies.

There are no serious risks in participating in this study. The information you provide will be held in confidence. The data will be stored on a secure website and saved separately from this consent form to protect your identity.

***There are opportunities for you to win some great prizes for your participation and time. Email Addresses will only appear in list form which will indicate that you have completed the survey and serve as a way to contact winners of prizes. Your email address is NOT attached to your responses.
Prizes include:

• The Kindle (Valued at $189.00)
• CSU Bookstore Gift Card $25.00

Your responses will become part of a larger study of pre-service teachers' confidence and expectations in regards to culturally responsive teaching. This survey provides you with an opportunity to help improve teacher education programs for other students.

Please be assured that your participation is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time. All data will be stored in a secure, password protected location.

If you desire further information about his study, you may call or write Dr. Brian Harper at the Department of Curriculum and Foundations, Cleveland State University, 2121 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44115, 216.875.9770.
You understand that if you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you can contact Cleveland State University's Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

By typing the last four digits of your CSU ID number, you are indicating your informed consent, stating that you understand your confidentiality rights and that you understand if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you can contact the CSU Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

You may print a copy of this page for your records. Thank you for your cooperation and support.

* 1. If you agree with the consent listed above and voluntarily participate in this survey, please type the last four digits of your CSU ID number below.

[   ]

2011 Interns' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

2. It is acceptable to complete this survey several times as efficacy levels change from semester to semester.

Have you completed this survey before?

◯ Yes

◯ No

2. Previous Response Information

Please enter the semester and year of the last time you've completed this survey. Thank you.

1. Please complete the semester (fall, spring, summer) and the year that you previously completed the survey.

[text box]

3. Demographic Information

1. What is your gender?
If male, type 0 in the box.
If female, type 1 in the box.

[text box]

2. Select the box next to the age group in which you fall. Use this key to answer the question:

0 = 18 years old to 22 years old
1 = 23 years old to 27 years old
2 = 28 years old to 32 years old
3 = 33 years old to 37 years old
4 = 38 years old to 42 years old
5 = 43 years old to 47 years old
6 = 48 years old to 52 years old
7 = 53 years old and up

For example: If you are 29 years old, select answer choice number 2.

○ 0
○ 1
○ 2
○ 3
○ 4
○ 5
○ 6
○ 7

3. Type the number next to your licensure program area of study

0 General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood Secondary)

1 Special Education (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Intensive,Early Childhood Special Ed.)

2 Fine Arts/Physical Education (Art Ed, Music Ed,Physical Ed)

3 Foreign Language (TESOL, Bilingual, Spanish, French, German, Latin, Chinese, Arabic, Japanese or any other foreign language)

4 Speech/Audiology

5 Undecided

6 Other

4. Type the number next to your student status?

0-Undergraduate
1-Graduate

5. Type the number next to the ethnic group in which you belong?

0-African American/Black
1-Native American
2-Asian
3-Bi-Racial
4-Caucasian/White
5-Hispanic
6-Other

6. What is the location that best describes your home address: East or West? Choose 0 for East and 1 for West.

○ 0

○ 1

7. Choose the answer that best describes your class status.

If your status is freshman, type 0 in the box.

If your status is sophomore, type 1 in the box.

If your status is junior, type 2 in the box.

If your status is senior, type 3 in the box.

If you are a graduate student, type 4 in the box.

If you have already graduated and are no longer a student, please type 5 in the box.

* 8. The field experience is considered the time spent in the local schools interning before becoming an actual classroom teacher.

Some classes have little to no field experience associated with them. We will consider these, Professional Courses.

Some classes have a specific (20-72) amount of field experience associated with them. We will consider these Methods Courses.

There is also a half day experience before student teaching. We will consider this the Practicum Experience.

Lastly, there is the capstone experience where interns spend 15 full-weeks in the field before graduating. We will consider this the Student Teaching experience.

Using the descriptions above, which field experience best describes your current field experience?

Type 0 if it is Professional Courses

Type 1 if it is Methods Courses

Type 2 if it is Practicum

Type 3 if it is Methods Courses or Professional Courses and Practicum

Type 4 if it is Student Teaching

[   ]

* 9. If you have completed or are currently enrolled in the Methods Experience was/is it in an urban setting?
Type 0 for yes
Type 1 for no
Type 2 for not completed
[   ]

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2011 Interns' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

* 10. If you have completed or are currently enrolled in the Practicum was/is it in an urban setting?

Type 0 for yes

Type 1 for no

Type 2 for not completed

[ ]

* 11. If you are currently enrolled in the Student Teaching is it in an urban setting?

Type 0 for yes

Type 1 for no

Type 2 for not completed

[ ]

12. Are you aware of the College of Education's urban field experience requirement?

Type 0 if you aware of the policy

Type 1 if you are not aware of the policy

Type 2 if you have heard of the policy, but are not sure what the policy actually entails

[ ]

13. If you have not completed a Practicum or Student Teaching Experience, to what degree do you feel prepared(0 being not prepared at all to 100 being totally prepared) for the:

Urban Major Field Experience [ ]

Non-Urban Major Field Experience [ ]

4. Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Directions: This survey consists of 40 statements rating how confident you are in your ability to engage in specific culturally relevant teaching practices. You are to indicate your degree of confidence for each statement using any number between 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident).

For example: If you are very confident that you can do what the prompt asks, your score will be closer to 100, if not, closer to 0.

1. Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students

[ ]

2. Obtain information about my students' academic strengths

[ ]

3. Determine whether my students like to work alone or in a group

4. Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students

5. Identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture

6. Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students'home culture and the school culture

7. Assess student learning using various types of assessments

8. Obtain information about my students' home life

9. Build a sense of trust in my students

10. Establish positive home-school relations

11. Use a variety of teaching methods

12. Develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds

13. Use my students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful

14. Use my students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information

15. Identify ways how students' communication at home may differ from the school norms

16. Obtain information about my students' cultural background

17. Teach students about their cultures' contributions to science

18. Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language

19. Design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures

20. Develop a personal relationship with my students

21. Obtain information about my students' academic weaknesses

22. Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language

23. Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students

24. Communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress

25. Structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents

26. Help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates

27. Revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups

28. Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes

29. Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics

30. Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding

31. Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement

32. Help students feel like important members of the classroom

[ ]

33. Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students

[ ]

34. Use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how my students like to learn

[ ]

35. Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds

[ ]

36. Explain new concepts using examples that are taken from my students' everyday lives

[ ]

37. Obtain information regarding my students' academic interests

[ ]

38. Use the interests of my students to make learning meaningful for them

[ ]

39. Implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups

[ ]

40. Design instruction that matches my students' developmental needs

[ ]

5. Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Directions: This 26-item survey will assess your beliefs that engaging in culturally responsive teaching practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes. You are asked to rate the probability that the behavior will lead to the specific outcome by indicating how probable the behavior stated will lead to the outcome stated. Use any number from 0 (entirely uncertain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome) to 100 (entirely certain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome).

1. A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students

[ ]

2. Incorporating a variety of teaching methods will help my students to be successful

[ ]

3. Students will be successful when instruction is adapted to meet their needs

[ ]

4. Developing a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse cultural backgrounds will promote positive interactions between students

5. Acknowledging the ways that the school culture is different from my students' home culture will minimize the likelihood of discipline problems

6. Understanding the communication preferences of my students will decrease the likelihood of student-teacher communication problems

7. Connecting my students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning

8. Matching instruction to the students' learning preferences will enhance their learning

9. Revising instructional material to include a better representation of the students' cultural group will foster positive self-images

10. Providing English Language Learners with visual aids will enhance their understanding of assignments

11. Students will develop an appreciation for their culture when they are taught about the contributions their culture has made over time

12. Conveying the message that parents are an important part of the classroom will increase parent participation

13. The likelihood of student-teacher misunderstandings decreases when my students' cultural background is understood

14. Changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with my students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class

15. Establishing positive home-school relations will increase parental involvement

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16. Student attendance will increase when a personal relationship between the teacher and students has been developed

17. Assessing student learning using a variety of assessment procedures will provide a better picture of what they have learned

18. Using my students' interests when designing instruction will increase their motivation to learn

19. Simplifying the language used during the presentation will enhance English Language Learners' comprehension of the lesson

20. The frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution

21. Encouraging students to use their native language will help to maintain students' cultural identity

22. Students' self-esteem can be enhanced when their cultural background is valued by the teacher

* 23. Helping students from diverse cultural backgrounds succeed in school will increase their confidence in their academic ability

24. Students' academic achievement will increase when they are provided with unbiased access to the necessary learning resources

25. Using culturally familiar examples will make learning new concepts easier

26. When students see themselves in the pictures that are displayed in the classroom, they develop a positive self-identity

6. Optional Short Response

Please read the statement below and answer as candidly as possible.

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1. Optional Question:

Briefly describe your defintion of an urban classroom or school.

2. Perceptions originate from a variety of experiences/sources.

From where do your perceptions of urban classrooms/schools/students come?

3. How would you describe a culturally responsive teacher?

4. Please use a scale of 0 to 100 to answer the question below.

For the most part, the faculty instructors in your teacher preparation courses are culturally responsive?

5. Please use a scale of 0 to 100 to answer the question below.

For the most part, the practicum and/or student teaching supervisors you have had in your teacher preparation courses are culturally responsive?

6. Please use a scale of 0 to 100 to answer the question below.

For the most part, the mentor teachers you have had in your teacher preparation courses are culturally responsive?

7. Please use a scale of 0 to 100 to answer the question below.

Consider yourself as a future teacher: Rate your perceived ability to be a culturally responsive teacher.

8. Would you consider a teaching position in an urban district?

Select 0 for Yes
Select 1 for No
Select 2 for Maybe

◯ 0

◯ 1

◯ 2

9. Would you consider a teaching position in an suburban district?

Select 0 for Yes
Select 1 for No
Select 2 for Maybe

◯ 0

◯ 1

◯ 2

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2011 Interns' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

10. If given a choice, would you prefer to teach in an urban, suburban, or rural school district?

Select 0 for Urban

Select 1 for Suburban

Select 2 for Rural

Select 3 if it Doesn't Matter

- ◯ 0
- ◯ 1
- ◯ 2
- ◯ 3

7. Thank You Very Much. Your Participation is GREATLY Appreciated!

Please type your email address if you would like to be entered into the lottery of prizes. Once the survey closes, winners will be contacted via email in order to claim prizes.

Again, I want to thank you.

1. Enter your email address only if you wish to be considered for prizes.

Email Address: [   ]

✱ 2. Are you interested in being contacted for an interview or participating in a focus group for further research on this topic?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

8. Further Research Opportunities

If you are interested in participating in further research (interview or focus group) about this topic, I would love to speak to you more. Lunch will be provided.

✱ 1. Please complete information below.

Name: [   ]
Address: [   ]
City/Town: [   ]
ZIP: [   ]
Email Address: [   ]

9. The End

You have successfully completed this survey. Thank you and enjoy the rest of your semester.

APPENDIX B

MENTOR TEACHERS' PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORMS AND

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY AND OUTCOME

EXPECTANCY SCALES

Mentor Teachers' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and

1. Mentor Teacher Survey Informed Consent Statement

Mentor Teacher Culturally Relevant Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy Survey Informed Consent Statement

Dear Mentor Teacher:

In an attempt to gather mentor teachers' input about culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, I invite you to complete a 20-25minute survey to help me evaluate how confident you feel about being a culturally responsive teacher. I am conducting this study as part of teacher preparation program improvement. I would like your opinions regarding your culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and your culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancies.

There are no serious risks in participating in this study. The information provided will be held in confidence. You will not be asked for your name while completing this survey. The data will be stored on a secure website provided by the on-line survey company, Survey Monkey, for up to five years. Data will not be stored in hard copy at all. If you discontinue the survey at any time, the data that has already been solicited will be discarded.

***There are opportunities for you to win some great prizes for your participation and time. If you would like to be considered for the prizes listed below, please type your email on the last page of the survey. Email addresses will only appear in list form, which will indicate that you have completed the survey and will serve as a way to contact winners of prizes. Your email address will NOT be attached to your responses.

Prizes include:
• The Kindle (Valued at $189.00)
• Two Cavs Tickets including the March 29th game against the Miami Heat
• Local Gas Card
• Office Max Gift Card
• Panera's Gift Card

Your responses will become part of a larger study of teachers' (both in-service and pre-service) confidence and expectations with regard to culturally responsive teaching.

This survey provides you with an opportunity to help improve teacher education programs. Please be assured that your participation is voluntary.

You may refuse to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time. All data will be stored in a password protected location provided by the on-line survey company, Survey Monkey. Only the researchers will have access to this data.

By typing your initials below, you are providing an electronic signature indicating your informed consent. Your electronic signature states that you understand your confidentiality rights.

If you desire further information about this study, you may call or write Dr. Brian Harper at the Department of Curriculum and Foundations, Cleveland State University, 2121 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44115, 216.875.9770.
If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you can contact the CSU Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

You may print a copy of this page for your records. Thank you for your cooperation and support.

* 1. Do you agree to the consent information listed on this form?

◯ Yes

◯ No

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* 2. If you agree to voluntarily complete this survey, please type your initials in the box below. Your initials will serve as your electronic signature.

> [   ]

2. Demographic Information

1. What is your zip code?

[   ]

2. What is your gender?

Enter 0 for male
Enter 1 for female
Enter 2 for prefer not to answer

[   ]

3. Type the number next to the ethnic group that best indicates the group to which you belong?

0-African American/Black
1-American Indian
2-Asian
3-Bi-Racial
4-Caucasian/White
5-Hispanic
6-Other
7-Prefer not to answer

[   ]

4. What is your highest level of education?

Choose 0 for Associate's Degree
Choose 1 for Bachelor's Degree
Choose 2 for Master's Degree
Choose 3 for Doctoral Degree

[   ]

5. Please type the name of the college or university where you completed your teacher preparation.

[   ]

6. In what type of setting did you complete your student teaching experience?

Type 0 if urban
Type 1 if suburban
Type 2 if rural
Type 3 if unsure

[ ]

7. Consider your first teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
If it was in a setting not listed, type 3

[ ]

8. Consider your second teaching location:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
If it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in one location, type 4

[ ]

9. Consider your third teaching location:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
If it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in two locations or less, type 4

[ ]

10. Consider your fourth teaching location:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
If it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in three locations or less, type 4

11. Consider your fifth teaching location:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
If it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in four locations or less, type 4

12. In the box below, type the number which is next to your current (or last) teaching assignment.

0 General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood, Secondary)
1 Special Education (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Intensive, Early Childhood Special Ed.)
2 Fine Arts/Physical Education (Art Ed, Music Ed,Physical Ed., Drama)
3 Foreign Language (e.g. TESOL, Bilingual, Spanish, French, German, Latin, Chinese, Arabic, Japanese)
4 Speech/Audiology
5 Other

13. How many full years have you been teaching? Do not count years spent away from the occupation, even if you've returned.

Choose 0 for 1-5 years
Choose 1 for 6-10 years
Choose 2 for 11-15 years
Choose 3 for 16-20 years
Choose 4 for more than 21 years

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14. Please type the school district for where you currently work.

15. Is your CURRENT school location considered urban or suburban as designated by the Ohio Department of Education (ODE)?

Type 0 if major urban
Type 1 if urban
Type 2 if urban/suburban
Type 3 if suburban
Type 4 if unsure

16. Have you ever hosted a STUDENT TEACHER?

Type 0 for yes
Type 1 for no

17. If you have hosted student teachers, please type the name of their college(s) or university(ies). If you have not hosted student teachers, type N/A

18. Have you ever hosted a PRACTICUM INTERN?

Type 0 for yes
Type 1 for no

19. If you have hosted practicum interns, please type the name of their college(s) or university(ies). If you have not hosted practicum interns, type N/A.

20. Have you ever hosted a METHODS INTERN?

Type 0 for yes
Type 1 for no

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21. If you have hosted methods interns, please type the name of their college(s) or university(ies). If you have not hosted methods interns, type N/A.

22. Consider the colleges and universities with whom you've worked as a mentor teacher and answer the following question: Are you aware of the College of Education's urban field experience requirement?

Type 0 for Yes
Type 1 for No
Type 2 if you have heard of it, but do not know the actual policy

23. After student teaching but before actually teaching, how prepared do you think YOU were (0 being not prepared at all to 100 being totally prepared) for a teaching position in an urban district?

24. After student teaching but before actually teaching, how prepared do you think YOU were (0 being not prepared at all to 100 being totally prepared) for a teaching position in a suburban district?

3. Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Directions: This survey consists of 40 statements rating how confident you are in your ability to engage in specific culturally relevant teaching practices. You are to indicate your degree of confidence for each statement using any number between 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident).

1. Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students

2. Obtain information about my students' academic strengths

3. Determine whether my students like to work alone or in a group

4. Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students

5. Identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture

6. Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students'home culture and the school culture

7. Assess student learning using various types of assessments

8. Obtain information about my students' home life

9. Build a sense of trust in my students

10. Establish positive home-school relations

11. Use a variety of teaching methods

12. Develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds

13. Use my students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful

14. Use my students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information

15. Identify ways how students' communication at home may differ from the school norms

16. Obtain information about my students' cultural background

17. Teach students about their cultures' contributions to science

18. Greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language

19. Design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures

20. Develop a personal relationship with my students

21. Obtain information about my students' academic weaknesses

22. Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language

23. Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students

24. Communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress

25. Structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents

26. Help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates

27. Revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups

28. Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes

29. Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics

30. Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding

31. Communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their child's achievement

32. Help students feel like important members of the classroom

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33. Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students

34. Use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how my students like to learn

35. Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds

36. Explain new concepts using examples that are taken from my students' everyday lives

37. Obtain information regarding my students' academic interests

38. Use the interests of my students to make learning meaningful for them

39. Implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups

40. Design instruction that matches my students' developmental needs

4. Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Directions: This 26-item survey will assess your beliefs that engaging in culturally responsive teaching practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes. You are asked to rate the probability that the behavior will lead to the specific outcome by indicating how probable the behavior stated will lead to the outcome stated. Use any number from 0 (entirely uncertain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome) to 100 (entirely certain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome).

1. A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students

2. Incorporating a variety of teaching methods will help my students to be successful

3. Students will be successful when instruction is adapted to meet their needs

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4. Developing a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse cultural backgrounds will promote positive interactions between students

5. Acknowledging the ways that the school culture is different from my students' home culture will minimize the likelihood of discipline problems

6. Understanding the communication preferences of my students will decrease the likelihood of student-teacher communication problems

7. Connecting my students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning

8. Matching instruction to the students' learning preferences will enhance their learning

9. Revising instructional material to include a better representation of the students' cultural group will foster positive self-images

10. Providing English Language Learners with visual aids will enhance their understanding of assignments

11. Students will develop an appreciation for their culture when they are taught about the contributions their culture has made over time

12. Conveying the message that parents are an important part of the classroom will increase parent participation

13. The likelihood of student-teacher misunderstandings decreases when my students' cultural background is understood

14. Changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with my students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class

15. Establishing positive home-school relations will increase parental involvement

16. Student attendance will increase when a personal relationship between the teacher and students has been developed

17. Assessing student learning using a variety of assessment procedures will provide a better picture of what they have learned

18. Using my students' interests when designing instruction will increase their motivation to learn

19. Simplifying the language used during the presentation will enhance English Language Learners' comprehension of the lesson

20. The frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution

21. Encouraging students to use their native language will help to maintain students' cultural identity

22. Students' self-esteem can be enhanced when their cultural background is valued by the teacher

* 23. Helping students from diverse cultural backgrounds succeed in school will increase their confidence in their academic ability

24. Students' academic achievement will increase when they are provided with unbiased access to the necessary learning resources

25. Using culturally familiar examples will make learning new concepts easier

26. When students see themselves in the pictures that are displayed in the classroom, they develop a positive self-identity

27. Optional Question:

Briefly describe your defintion of an urban school or classroom.

28. From where do your perceptions of urban classrooms come?

29. On a scale of 0 to 100 with 0 being not at all, in your opinion how effective is Cleveland State University's teacher preparation program in preparing pre-service teachers to be culturally responsive?

30. On a scale of 0 to 100 with 0 being not at all, how do you rate your ability to be a culturally responsive teacher?

31. Do you believe that one can learn to be culturally responsive?

Select 0 for Yes
Select 1 for No

○ 0

○ 1

○ Maybe (please clarify)

5. Thank You Very Much

Please type your email address if you would like to be entered into the lottery of prizes. Winners will be contacted via email and will have one week to claim prizes.

1. Enter your email address only if you wish to be considered for prizes.

Email Address:

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APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS' PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORMS AND

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY AND OUTCOME

EXPECTANCY SCALES

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

1. Supervisor's Survey Informed Consent Statement

Culturally Relevant Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy Scales

Dear University Supervisor:
In an attempt to gather supervisors' perception of promoting cultural responsiveness self-efficacy during an intern's field experience, I invite you to complete a 20-25 minute survey.

This survey will help me to evaluation how confident you feel in helping interns to become culturally responsive teachers.

I am conducting this study as part of teacher preparation program improvement efforts. I would like your opinions regarding your promotion of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancies during an intern's field experience.

There are no serious risks in participating in this study. The information you provide will be held in confidence. The data will be stored on a secure website and saved separately from this consent form to protect your identity.

***There are opportunities for you to win some great prizes for your participation and time. If you would like to be considered for the prizes listed below, please type your email on the last page of the survey.

Email Addresses will only appear in list form which will indicate that you have completed the survey and serve as a way to contact winners of prizes. Your email address is NOT attached to your responses.

Prizes include:

- The Kindle (Valued at $189.00)
- Two tickets to the March 29th (Cavs Versus Miami Heat) Game
- Local 4 Star Restaurant Gift Card

Your responses will become part of a larger study of teachers'(both in-service and pre-service) confidence and expectations in regards to culturally responsive teaching. This survey provides you with an opportunity to help improve teacher education programs.

Please be assured that your participation is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time. All data will be stored in a secure, password protected location.

If you desire further information about his study, you may call or write Dr. Brian Harper at the Department of Curriculum and Foundations, Cleveland State University, 2121 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44115, 216.875.9770.
You understand that if you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you can contact Cleveland State University's Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

By typing your initials below, your are indicating your informed consent, stating that you understand your confidentiality rights and that you understand if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you can contact the CSU Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

You may print a copy of this page for your records. Thank you for your cooperation and support.

＊ 1. Do you agree to the consent information listed on this form?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

∗ 2. If you agree to voluntarily complete this survey, please type your initials in the box below. Your initials will serve as your electronic signature.

[ ]

2. Demographic Information

1. What is your zip code?

[ ]

2. What is your gender?

Enter 0 for male
Enter 1 for female
Enter 2 for prefer not to answer

[ ]

3. Type the number next to the ethnic group that best indicates the group to which you belong?

0-African American/Black
1-American Indian
2-Asian
3-Bi-Racial
4-Caucasian/White
5-Hispanic
6-Other
7-Prefer not to answer

[ ]

4. What is your highest level of education?

Choose 0 for Associate's Degree
Choose 1 for Bachelor's Degree
Choose 2 for Master's Degree
Choose 3 for Doctoral Degree

[ ]

5. Please type the name of the college or university where you completed your teacher preparation.

[ ]

6. In what type of setting did you complete YOUR student teaching experience?

Type 0 if urban
Type 1 if suburban
Type 2 if rural
Type 3 if unsure

7. Consider your first teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
It it was in a setting not listed, type 3

8. Consider your second teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
It it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in one location, type 4

9. Consider your third teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
It it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in two locations or less, type 4

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10. Consider your fourth teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
It it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in three locations or less, type 4

[ ]

11. Consider your fifth teaching experience:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, type 0
If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, type 1
If it was in a RURAL Setting, type 2
It it was in a setting not listed, type 3
If you have only worked in four locations or less, type 4

[ ]

12. In the box below, type the number which is next to your last K-12 TEACHING assignment.

0 General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood, Secondary)
1 Special Education (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Intensive, Early Childhood Special Ed.)
2 Fine Arts/Physical Education (Art Ed, Music Ed,Physical Ed., Drama)
3 Foreign Language (e.g. TESOL, Bilingual, Spanish, French, German, Latin, Chinese, Arabic, Japanese)
4 Speech/Audiology
5 Other

[ ]

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

13. How many full years were you a FULL-TIME K-12 TEACHER?
Do not count years spent away from the occupation, even if you've returned or years spent in other educational positions.

Choose 0 for 1-5 years
Choose 1 for 6-10 years
Choose 2 for 11-15 years
Choose 3 for 16-20 years
Choose 4 for more than 21 years

14. Do you supervise primarily practicum interns or student teaching interns?

Type 0 for Primarily Practicum
Type 1 for Primarily Student Teachers
Type 2 if you normally supervise both

15. Are you aware of CSU's College of Education's urban field experience requirement?

Type 0 for Yes
Type 1 for No
Type 2 if you have heard of it, but do not know the actual policy

16. After student teaching but before actually teaching, how prepared do you think YOU were (0 being not prepared at all to 100 being totally prepared) for a teaching position in an urban district?

17. After student teaching but before actually teaching, how prepared do you think YOU were (0 being not prepared at all to 100 being totally prepared) for a teaching position in a suburban district?

3. Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Directions:
This survey consists of 40 statements rating HOW CONFIDENT YOU ARE THAT YOU promote specific culturally relevant teaching practices with your interns.

For example:
Statement - I help pre-service teachers adapt instruction to meet the needs of learners

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

Your answer should indicate how CONFIDENT YOU ARE THAT YOU ASSIST YOUR INTERNS in learning to adapt their instruction to meet the needs of students in their field experience classrooms.

You are to indicate your degree of confidence for each statement using any number between 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident).

1. I help pre-service teachers adapt instruction to meet the needs of students

[   ]

2. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' academic strengths

[   ]

3. I help pre-service teachers determine whether their students like to work alone or in a group

[   ]

4. I help pre-service teachers determine whether their students feel comfortable competing with other students

[   ]

5. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from their students' home culture

[   ]

6. I help pre-service teachers implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between their students'home culture and the school culture

[   ]

7. I help pre-service teachers assess their students' learning using various types of assessments

[   ]

8. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' home life

[   ]

9. I help pre-service teachers build a sense of trust with their students

[   ]

10. I help pre-service teachers establish positive home-school relations

[   ]

11. I help pre-service teachers use a variety of teaching methods

[   ]

12. I help pre-service teachers develop a community of learners when their class(es) consists of students from diverse backgrounds

[   ]

13. I help pre-service teachers use their students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful

[   ]

14. I help pre-service teachers use their students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information

[   ]

15. I help pre-service teachers identify ways how their students' communication at home may differ from the school norms

[   ]

16. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' cultural background

[   ]

17. I help pre-service teachers teach students about their cultures' contributions to science

[   ]

18. I help pre-service teachers greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their students' native language

[   ]

19. I help pre-service teachers design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures

[   ]

20. I help pre-service teachers develop a personal relationship with their students

[   ]

21. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' academic weaknesses

[   ]

22. I help pre-service teachers praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language

[   ]

23. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students

[   ]

24. I help pre-service teachers communicate with their students' parents regarding their students' educational progress

[ ]

25. I help pre-service teachers structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents

[ ]

26. I help pre-service teachers help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates

[ ]

27. I help pre-service teachers revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups

[ ]

28. I help pre-service teachers critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes

[ ]

29. I help pre-service teachers design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics

[ ]

30. I help pre-service teachers model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding

[ ]

31. I help pre-service teachers communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their students' achievement

[ ]

32. I help pre-service teachers help their students feel like important members of the classroom

[ ]

33. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students

[ ]

34. I help pre-service teachers use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how their students like to learn

[ ]

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

35. I help pre-service teachers use examples that are familiar to their students who are from diverse cultural backgrounds

[ ]

36. I help pre-service teachers explain new concepts using examples taken from their students' everyday lives

[ ]

37. I help pre-service teachers obtain information regarding their students' academic interests

[ ]

38. I help pre-service teachers use the interests of their students to make learning meaningful for them

[ ]

39. I help pre-service teachers implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups

[ ]

40. I help pre-service teachers design instruction that matches their students' developmental needs

[ ]

4. Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Directions:
The former part of this survey was about how confident you are that you promote the specific statements with your interns. This part of the survey is different.

This 26-item survey will assess YOUR beliefs that engaging in these specific practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes.

You are asked to rate the probability that the behavior will lead to the specific outcome by indicating how probable the behavior stated will lead to the outcome stated. Use any number from 0 (entirely uncertain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome) to 100 (entirely certain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome).

1. A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students

[ ]

2. Incorporating a variety of teaching methods will help my students to be successful

[ ]

3. Students will be successful when instruction is adapted to meet their needs

[ ]

4. Developing a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse cultural backgrounds will promote positive interactions between students

[ ]

5. Acknowledging the ways that the school culture is different from my students' home culture will minimize the likelihood of discipline problems

[ ]

6. Understanding the communication preferences of my students will decrease the likelihood of student-teacher communication problems

[ ]

7. Connecting my students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning

[ ]

8. Matching instruction to the students' learning preferences will enhance their learning

[ ]

9. Revising instructional material to include a better representation of the students' cultural group will foster positive self-images

[ ]

10. Providing English Language Learners with visual aids will enhance their understanding of assignments

[ ]

11. Students will develop an appreciation for their culture when they are taught about the contributions their culture has made over time

[ ]

12. Conveying the message that parents are an important part of the classroom will increase parent participation

[ ]

13. The likelihood of student-teacher misunderstandings decreases when my students' cultural background is understood

[ ]

14. Changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with my students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class

[ ]

15. Establishing positive home-school relations will increase parental involvement

[ ]

16. Student attendance will increase when a personal relationship between the teacher and students has been developed

17. Assessing student learning using a variety of assessment procedures will provide a better picture of what they have learned

18. Using my students' interests when designing instruction will increase their motivation to learn

19. Simplifying the language used during the presentation will enhance English Language Learners' comprehension of the lesson

20. The frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution

21. Encouraging students to use their native language will help to maintain students' cultural identity

22. Students' self-esteem can be enhanced when their cultural background is valued by the teacher

* 23. Helping students from diverse cultural backgrounds succeed in school will increase their confidence in their academic ability

24. Students' academic achievement will increase when they are provided with unbiased access to the necessary learning resources

25. Using culturally familiar examples will make learning new concepts easier

26. When students see themselves in the pictures that are displayed in the classroom, they develop a positive self-identity

5. Optional Questions

The following two questions are optional.

Supervisors' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome

1. On a scale of 0 to 100 with 0 being not at all, in your opinion how effective is the college's (for which you supervise interns) teacher preparation program in preparing pre-service teachers to be culturally responsive?

[   ]

2. Optional Question:
Briefly describe your defintion of an urban school or classroom.

[text box]

3. From where to your perceptions of urban schools and/or classrooms come?

[text box]

6. Thank You Very Much

Please type your email address if you would like to be entered into the lottery of prizes. Winners will be contacted via email and will have one week to claim prizes.

1. Enter your email address only if you wish to be considered for prizes.

Email Address: [   ]

APPENDIX D

TEACHER EDUCATORS' PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORMS AND

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY AND OUTCOME

Teacher Educators' Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy and

1. Teacher Preparation Faculty Survey Informed Consent Statement

Culturally Relevant Teaching Self-Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy Scales

Dear Teacher Educator:
In an attempt to gather teacher educators' perception of promoting cultural responsiveness self-efficacy during the teacher preparation program, I invite you to complete a 20-25 minute survey.

This survey will help me to evaluation how confident you feel in helping interns to become culturally responsive teachers.

I am conducting this study as part of teacher preparation program improvement efforts. I would like your opinions regarding your PROMOTION of CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY and OUTCOME EXPECTANCIES in your course(s).

There are no serious risks in participating in this study. The information you provide will be held in confidence. The data will be stored on a secure website and saved separately from this consent form to protect your identity.

***There are opportunities for you to win some great prizes for your participation and time. If you would like to be considered for the prizes listed below, please type your email on the last page of the survey.

Email Addresses will only appear in list form which will indicate that you have completed the survey. Email addresses will serve as a way to contact winners of prizes for those of you who are interested. Your email address is NOT attached to your responses.

Prizes include:

• The Kindle (valued at $189.00)
• Two tickets to the March 29th (Cavs V. Miami Heat) Game
• Local Four Star Restaurant Gift Card

Your responses will become part of a larger study of teachers'(both in-service and pre-service) confidence and expectations in regards to culturally responsive teaching.

This survey provides you with an opportunity to help improve teacher education programs.

Please be assured that your participation is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or may discontinue the survey at any time. All data will be stored in a secure, password protected location.

If you desire further information about his study, you may call or write Dr. Brian Harper at the Department of Curriculum and Foundations, Cleveland State University, 2121 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44115, 216.875.9770.
You understand that if you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you can contact Cleveland State University's Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

By typing your initials below, your are indicating your informed consent, stating that you understand your confidentiality rights and that you understand if you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you can contact the CSU Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

You may print a copy of this page for your records. Thank you for your cooperation and support.

* 1. Do you agree to the consent information listed on this form?

○ Yes

○ No

Page 1

✱ 2. If you agree to voluntarily complete this survey, please type your initials in the box below. This will be used only to represent your electronic signature.

[ ]

2. Demographic Information

1. Choose the answer that BEST describes the location of your home residence.

Select 0 for East
Select 1 for South
Select 2 for West

○ 0

○ 1

○ 2

2. What is your gender?

Enter 0 for male
Enter 1 for female
Enter 2 for prefer not to answer

○ 0

○ 1

○ 2

3. What is your highest level of education?

Select 0 for Bachelor's Degree
Select 1 for Master's Degree
Select 2 for Doctoral Degree

○ 0

○ 1

○ 2

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4. Select the number next to the ethnic group that best indicates the group to which you belong?

0-African American/Black
1-Native American
2-Asian
3-Bi-Racial
4-Caucasian/White
5-Hispanic
6-Other
7-Prefer not to answer

○ 0
○ 1
○ 2
○ 3
○ 4
○ 5
○ 6
○ 7

5. Were you formally trained to be a teacher (Did you graduate from a Teacher Preparation Program)?

Select 0 for yes
Select 1 for no

○ 0
○ 1

3. Previous Work as a K-12 Teacher

The following questions are designed to elicit information about your time spent as a full-time K-12 teacher.

1. Please type the name of the college or university where you completed your teacher preparation.

[ ]

2. In what type of setting did you complete YOUR student teaching experience?

Type 0 if urban

Type 1 if suburban

Type 2 if rural

Type 3 if unsure

○ 0

○ 1

○ 2

○ 3

3. Consider your last K-12 teaching assignment:

If it was in an URBAN Setting, select 0

If it was in a SUBURBAN Setting, select 1

If it was in a RURAL Setting, select 2

If it was in a setting not listed or you are unsure, select 3

○ 0

○ 1

○ 2

○ 3

4. Select the number which is next to your last K-12 TEACHING assignment.

0 General Education (Early Childhood, Middle Childhood, Secondary)

1 Special Education (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Intensive, Early Childhood Special Ed.)

2 Fine Arts (Art Ed, Music Ed, Physical Ed, Drama)

3 Foreign Language (e.g. TESOL, Bilingual, Spanish, French, German, Latin, Chinese, Arabic, Japanese)

4 Speech/Audiology

5 Other

○ 0
○ 1
○ 2
○ 3
○ 4
○ 5

5. How many full years were you a FULL-TIME K-12 TEACHER?

Do not count years spent away from the occupation, even if you returned or spent years in other educational positions.

Choose 0 for 1-5 years

Choose 1 for 6-10 years

Choose 2 for 11-15 years

Choose 3 for 16-20 years

Choose 4 or more than 21 years

- ◯ 0
- ◯ 1
- ◯ 2
- ◯ 3
- ◯ 4

4. Working in Teacher Preparation

The following questions are designed to elicit information about your work in teacher preparation.

1. Choose the answer that best describes your role in the college's teacher preparation program.

- ◯ 0 Full-Time Faculty
- ◯ 1 Part-time Faculty/Adjunct Faculty
- ◯ Other (please specify)

  [   ]

2. How many years have you worked in TEACHER PREPARATION at the POST-SECONDARY level? Round up.

Choose 0 for 1-5 years
Choose 1 for 6-10 years
Choose 2 for 11-15 years
Choose 3 for 16-20 years
Choose 4 for more than 21 years

○ 0
○ 1
○ 2
○ 3
○ 4

3. In the box below, type the number that BEST describes your role in the teacher preparation program.

Select one answer only. I understand that many instructors are cross-categorical, please select the group with whom you work the most.

0 Early Childhood

1 Middle Childhood

2 Secondary

3 Middle and Secondary

4 ALL OF GENERAL EDUCATION (ANSWER CHOICES 0-3)

5 Special Education (Mild/Moderate, Moderate/Intensive, Early Childhood Special Ed.)

6 Fine Arts/Physical Education (Art Ed, Music Ed, Physical Ed., Drama)

7 Foreign Language (e.g. TESOL, Bilingual, Spanish, French, German, Latin, Chinese, Arabic, Japanese)

8 Speech/Audiology

9 ALL OF THE ABOVE (you normally work with interns in all licensure areas)

10 NONE OF THE ABOVE

4. In addition to courses taught, have you supervised Practicum or Student Teaching interns within the last three years?

Select 0 for Yes
Select 1 for No

◯ 0
◯ 1

4. I help pre-service teachers determine whether their students feel comfortable competing with other students

[   ]

5. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from their students' home culture

[   ]

6. I help pre-service teachers implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between their students'home culture and the school culture

[   ]

7. I help pre-service teachers assess their students' learning by using various types of assessments.

[   ]

8. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' home life

[   ]

9. I help pre-service teachers build a sense of trust in with their students

[   ]

10. I help pre-service teachers establish positive home-school relations

[   ]

11. I help pre-service teachers use a variety of teaching methods

[   ]

12. I help pre-service teachers develop a community of learners when their class(es) consists of students from diverse backgrounds

[   ]

13. I help pre-service teachers use their students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful

[   ]

14. I help pre-service teachers use their students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information

[   ]

15. I help pre-service teachers identify ways how their students' communication at home may differ from the school norms

[   ]

16. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' cultural background

17. I help pre-service teachers teach about their students' cultures contributions to science

18. I help pre-service teachers greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their students' native language

19. I help pre-service teachers design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures

20. I help pre-service teachers develop a personal relationship with their students

21. I help pre-service teachers obtain information about their students' academic weaknesses

22. I help pre-service teachers praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their students' native language

23. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students

24. I help pre-service teachers communicate with parents regarding their students' educational progress

25. I help pre-service teachers structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents

26. I help pre-service teachers help their students to develop positive relationships with their classmates

27. I help pre-service teachers to revise instructional material to include a better representation of cultural groups

28. I help pre-service teachers critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes

29. I help pre-service teachers design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics

30. I help pre-service teachers model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding

31. I help pre-service teachers communicate with the parents of English Language Learners regarding their students' achievement

32. I help pre-service teachers help their students feel like important members of the classroom

33. I help pre-service teachers identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards culturally diverse students

34. I help pre-service teachers use a learning preference inventory to gather data about how their students like to learn

35. I help pre-service teachers use examples that are familiar to thier students from diverse cultural backgrounds

36. I help pre-service teachers explain new concepts using examples taken from their students' everyday lives

37. I help pre-service teachers obtain information regarding their students' academic interests

38. I help pre-service teachers use the interests of their students to make learning meaningful for them

39. I help pre-service teachers implement cooperative learning activities for their students who like to work in groups

[ ]

40. I help pre-service teachers design instruction to match their students' developmental needs

[ ]

6. Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Directions:
The former part of this survey was about how confident you are that you promote the specific statements in your courses. This part of the survey is different.

This 26-item survey will assess YOUR beliefs that engaging in these specific practices will have positive classroom and student outcomes.

You are asked to rate the probability that the behavior will lead to the specific outcome by indicating how probable the behavior stated will lead to the outcome stated.

Use any number from 0 (entirely uncertain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome) to 100 (entirely certain the behavior will lead to the specified outcome).

1. A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students

[ ]

2. Incorporating a variety of teaching methods will help my students to be successful

[ ]

3. Students will be successful when instruction is adapted to meet their needs

[ ]

4. Developing a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse cultural backgrounds will promote positive interactions between students

[ ]

5. Acknowledging the ways that the school culture is different from my students' home culture will minimize the likelihood of discipline problems

[ ]

6. Understanding the communication preferences of my students will decrease the likelihood of student-teacher communication problems

[ ]

7. Connecting my students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning

8. Matching instruction to the students' learning preferences will enhance their learning

9. Revising instructional material to include a better representation of the students' cultural group will foster positive self-images

10. Providing English Language Learners with visual aids will enhance their understanding of assignments

11. Students will develop an appreciation for their culture when they are taught about the contributions their culture has made over time

12. Conveying the message that parents are an important part of the classroom will increase parent participation

13. The likelihood of student-teacher misunderstandings decreases when my students' cultural background is understood

14. Changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with my students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class

15. Establishing positive home-school relations will increase parental involvement

16. Student attendance will increase when a personal relationship between the teacher and students has been developed

17. Assessing student learning using a variety of assessment procedures will provide a better picture of what they have learned

18. Using my students' interests when designing instruction will increase their motivation to learn

19. Simplifying the language used during the presentation will enhance English Language Learners' comprehension of the lesson

20. The frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution

21. Encouraging students to use their native language will help to maintain students' cultural identity

22. Students' self-esteem can be enhanced when their cultural background is valued by the teacher

* 23. Helping students from diverse cultural backgrounds succeed in school will increase their confidence in their academic ability

24. Students' academic achievement will increase when they are provided with unbiased access to the necessary learning resources

25. Using culturally familiar examples will make learning new concepts easier

26. When students see themselves in the pictures that are displayed in the classroom, they develop a positive self-identity

27. Briefly describe your defintion of an urban school or classroom.

28. From where do your perceptions of urban classrooms come?

29. Briefly define a culturally responsive teacher.

30. On a scale of 0-100 with 0 being not at all, how do you rate your ability to be a culturally responsive teacher educator?

31. Do you believe that one can learn to be culturally responsive?

Select 0 for Yes
Select 1 for No

◯ 0 Yes

◯ 1 No

◯ Maybe (please specify)

32. On a scale of 0-100 with 0 being not at all, in your opinion how effective is your college's teacher preparation program in preparing prospective teachers to be culturally responsive?

33. Approximately what percentage (0-100) of your classes do you teach on-line?

7. Thank You Very Much for Your Assistance with My Research

Please type your email address if you would like to be entered into the lottery of prizes. Winners will be contacted via email and will have one week to claim prizes.

1. Enter your email address only if you wish to be considered for prizes.

Email Address: