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Examining the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy of Teacher Candidates in Urban Immersive Residency Programs

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EXAMINING THE CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY OF

TEACHER CANDIDATES IN URBAN IMMERSIVE RESIDENCY PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

EXAMINING THE CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY OF TEACHER CANDIDATES IN URBAN IMMERSIVE RESIDENCY PROGRAMS

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Urban immersive residency programs have emerged from partnerships between K-12 schools and universities offering teacher candidates a year-long field experience alongside coursework aligned with the framework and practices in the schools (Zeichner & Bier, 2015). The goals of these programs include teacher candidates applying what they learn during preparation into practice and getting good student outcomes, while building their confidence in teaching diverse students. This study used situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to position urban immersive residency programs as a community of practice where teacher candidate's self-efficacy and understanding of culturally responsive teaching overlap. A mixed methods design was used to compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in residency programs to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs, as well as capture several teacher candidates' perceptions about how their understanding of culturally responsive teaching was influenced by aspects of the one urban immersive residency program they attended. The results can be categorized into three findings: (a) teacher candidates from urban immersive residency and those from traditional programs have moderate CRTSE beliefs; (b) the urban immersive residency program provided a community of practice for teacher candidates that supported their culturally responsive teaching development;

and (c) the urban immersive program residents' perspectives showed clear understanding of culturally responsive teaching. Implications and opportunities for future research are described.

This dissertation is dedicated to my late grandmother, Frances Wilkerson Sutphin. Although we never met, my dad tells me how your spirit of teaching and learning lives on through me. I am so proud to continue forging the path that you started. Also, this work is dedicated to my son, Jacques. I love you to the moon and beyond. My prayer is for you to always try your best in whatever you decide to do. Remember to turn "I can't" into "I can try" and you will be amazed at the outcome.

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On this journey, I have learned that God does not give us more than we can bear, and He surrounds us with the right people. I would like to acknowledge all the people who God placed in my life to encourage and support me during my dissertation journey. These last five years have not always been easy especially going through the COVID-19 pandemic, but I always knew everyone was rooting for me to succeed. I would like to thank my family and friends for your love and support. A special thank you to those who babysat Jacques while I attended class, drafted a paper, or just needed time to relax. I love you all and will forever be grateful.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the United States approximately 80% of public-school teachers are white (U.S

Department of Education NCES, 2019). Prior to the Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. the*

Board of Education, 35 to 50 percent of teachers in integrated school systems were Black (Will,

2019). However, for nearly two decades after the *Brown* decision, Black teachers, principals, and

other staff were fired, demoted, harassed, and bullied especially in the South where they

struggled to accept desegregation (Fultz, 2004). Often the Black teachers who were fired had

more credentials and were better qualified than the white teachers who kept their jobs (Will,

2019). The demographics of the teaching workforce have never recovered from this monumental

Supreme Court decision but there is a slow increase in minority teachers. Based on a 2016 report,

comparing the 1987-88 school year to the 2011-12, minority teachers increased by five percent

(U.S Department of Education, 2016). Teacher demographics may not be changing very fast, but

the student population is changing quickly. Whites are projected to make up 44% of the public-

school student population in 2029 compared to 48% in 2016 (U.S. Department of Education

NCES, 2018). Looking at data from 2012, Redding and Nguyen (2020) discovered "new teachers

work in schools where 52% of students received free or reduced lunch and 47% of the student

population identified as a racial/ethnic minority" (p. 15). These data were compared to reports

from 1988 where these numbers were approximately 20% lower (Redding & Nguyen, 2020).

These changing student demographics along with the slow growth in the number of minority

teachers suggest teacher education programs (TEPs) must prepare teacher candidates for

classrooms filled with students who may not look like them.

Problem Statement

There is a racial mismatch between teachers and their students (Will, 2019). However, this difference between teachers and students is much deeper than just race, Carey et al. (2018) called it the "culture and teaching gap" (p. 59). Most K-12 teachers in the U.S. are white, female, and monolingual, and teacher education programs must move beyond "color blindness" (Milner, 2012b), and prepare teacher candidates to understand the importance of incorporating diverse student's culture into their curriculum and instruction (Carey et al., 2018). Teacher education programs must remember that some white teachers from middle-class backgrounds may have little to no experience working with diverse students (Hancock, 2006). The color-blind approach may result in situations where teachers overlook the importance of students learning about their own worldviews (Milner, 2012b). Culturally responsive teaching addresses this color-blind approach by validating and affirming students' cultural differences and using these differences to guide the curriculum (Gay, 2018). Ignoring race and culture and missing opportunities to teach students about cultural differences can create an environment where stereotyping occurs (Hampton et al., 2008). These stereotypes may come from things seen in the news and media. Teacher candidates can also be guilty of stereotyping or having a lack of understanding about schools with majority Black and Brown students.

Hampton et al. (2008) found teacher candidates expected urban schools to be filled with majority Black and Brown students from working class families. However, they envisioned these urban schools to look like those depicted in the media and used words like "rundown" and "jail-like" to describe the buildings (Hampton et al., 2008). In Watson's (2011) study, teacher candidates viewed non-urban teaching as normal, but considered urban teaching not normal because they would have to deal with additional race issues. These teacher candidates expressed they did not mind teaching in an urban school, but "not too urban" (Watson, 2011, p. 31). The

teacher candidates who were all white except one who identified as Asian, preferred to teach students who displayed characteristics they related to white middle-class students. Results from Watson's (2011) study are consistent with Siwatu's (2011) study where teacher candidates indicated they felt better prepared to teach in suburban versus urban schools. Siwatu (2011) also found that regardless of the school setting teacher candidates felt less prepared to teach Black and Brown students, especially English learners (ELs). Results of these studies indicate how important it is for TEPs to ensure their candidates learn to understand students' cultural differences and connect with diverse learners.

Background

To connect with students from different cultural backgrounds, white teachers must "embrace students' cultural capital through innovative pedagogic methods" (Goldenberg, 2014, p. 132). Goldenberg labeled these pedagogical strategies for working with diverse students "innovative", but these ideas were expressed years prior by scholars Ladson-Billings (1992) and Gay (2002) who called for cultural practices in the classroom. Ladson-Billings (1992) and Gay (2002) used the terms *culturally relevant* or *culturally responsive*, respectively when discussing how teachers can be successful with diverse student populations. While these researchers called for pedagogical changes (e.g., Gay, 2002; Goldenberg; 2014; Ladson-Billings, 1992) others focused on more field experiences during teacher preparation (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2010; Zeichner, 2010). There was much debate on whether there should be a greater focus on pedagogy or practice. Then the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2010) required teacher preparation to be "grounded in clinical practice and interwoven with academic content" (p. ii), these two worlds collided. However, this was not always the case, and it took a while for NCATE to get to this position.

There were many demands during the Civils Rights Movement to address changing student demographics, the accrediting body for TEPs, NCATE added multicultural education to its standards in 1979 (Gollnick, 1992). With these changes, any TEP seeking national accreditation is required to include multicultural education as part of their required curriculum. Additionally, TEPs are required to recruit culturally diverse faculty and teacher candidates for their programs (Gollnick, 1992). NCATE provided glossary definitions of *multicultural perspective* and *cultural diversity* to help TEPs when redesigning their curriculum:

"A multicultural perspective is a recognition of (i) the social, political, and economic realities that individuals experience in culturally diverse and complex human encounters; and (ii) the importance of culture, race, sex and gender, ethnicity, religion, class, and exceptionalities in the education process. Cultural diversity refers to the cultural backgrounds of all students and school personnel with particular emphasis on their ethnicity, race, religion, class, and sex" (Gollnick, 1992, p. 237).

NCATE's standards were criticized for being vague and "allowing a superficial treatment of diversity" (Grant & Gibson, 2011, p. 44). Because the term *multicultural education* lacked a clear definition, Ladson-Billings (1992) introduced the term *culturally relevant.* Culturally relevant teachers empower their students to critically examine the educational content and ask what role it plays in creating a multicultural society (Ladson-Billings, 1992, p. 110). While Ladson-Billings (1992) chose to use the term *culturally relevant*, Gay (2002) preferred the term *culturally responsive*. Culturally responsive teaching uses the "cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively" (Gay, 2002, p. 106). Ladson-Billings (1992) and Gay (2002) provided a pedagogical framework for TEPs to use before placing students in the classroom. Under the current

accreditation, Standard 2 calls for TEPs to offer diversity in field experiences (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation [CAEP], 2019). The new accrediting body for TEPs is Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) which was formed when NCATE and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) design teams decided to combine and create a unified accreditation system (CAEP Design Team Report, 2010). These CAEP standards did not eliminate teaching of cultural diversity in coursework. Instead, TEPs had to expand on cultural diversity and provide field experiences for teacher candidates in diverse classrooms.

Clinical practice or field experiences for teacher candidates can include practicums, tutoring, and student teaching. These experiences vary in length across programs in the United States. According to Darling-Hammond (2010), effective teacher preparation programs have extensive field experiences, at least a full academic year. Darling-Hammond (2010) recognized urban immersive residency programs as high-quality teacher preparation because of the year-long field experience alongside an experienced mentor teacher and immersed in the school community. These urban immersive residency programs are compared to teaching hospitals where expert doctors train medical residents (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Because the residency model has been shown to be successful in recruiting and retaining teachers for urban schools (Guha et al., 2017), the U.S Department of Education has promoted and supported this model with federal funding (Zeichner & Bier, 2015). Along with the field experience, the curriculum of the urban immersive residency programs is aligned with the framework and practices in the school districts where the candidates teach (Zeichner & Bier, 2015). University coursework supports what the teacher candidates are seeing and doing in the classroom, so the hopes are they can apply what they are learning and get good student outcomes. These opportunities for success will help build the teacher candidate's confidence.

When it comes to teachers, their self-efficacy centers around the ability to teach students and get good results. Self-efficacy is defined as a person's judgment of their ability to successfully complete a task and get a particular outcome (Bandura, 1977). Compared to teacher candidates completing student teaching in rural and suburban field placements, those with urban placements reported lower self-efficacy gains (Knoblauch & Chase, 2015). However, teacher candidates in urban setting self-efficacy did increase just not as much as those in the other two settings. The researchers believed the support provided by supervising faculty and other teacher candidates was a reason for the increase in teaching self-efficacy (Knoblauch & Chase, 2015). The findings of Knoblauch & Chase indicated that student teaching has a positive impact on teacher candidate's sense of efficacy when completing an urban field placement (i.e., referred to as urban immersive residency in this study). Gay (2002) suggested teachers incorporate culturally responsive teaching practices into their lessons to achieve academic success for Black and Brown students. Teacher candidates would benefit from feeling more confident in their ability to be culturally responsive and build their self-efficacy in this area. This dissertation seeks to compare the self-efficacy of specific culturally responsive teaching tasks for teacher candidates in year-long urban residency programs to those in traditional preparation programs. The conceptual framework for this study stems from a combination of self-efficacy and culturally responsive teaching in a situated learning context.

Conceptual Framework

Situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) explains and offers an overarching framework for this dissertation about investigating ways that participating in a community of practice within a teacher residency program influences culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy development. Lave and Wenger asserted knowledge development requires learners to be full participants in the

sociocultural practices of a community called *legitimate peripheral participation* (Chapter 1, para 1). Learning by legitimate peripheral participation means there is a strong emphasis on the learner having an evolving membership within the community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). For teacher candidates in this study, the year-long urban immersive program offers them legitimate peripheral participation in the community of practice within schools. My conceptual framework depicts how teacher candidate's knowledge of culturally responsive teaching overlaps with their self-efficacy to create culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE).

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework
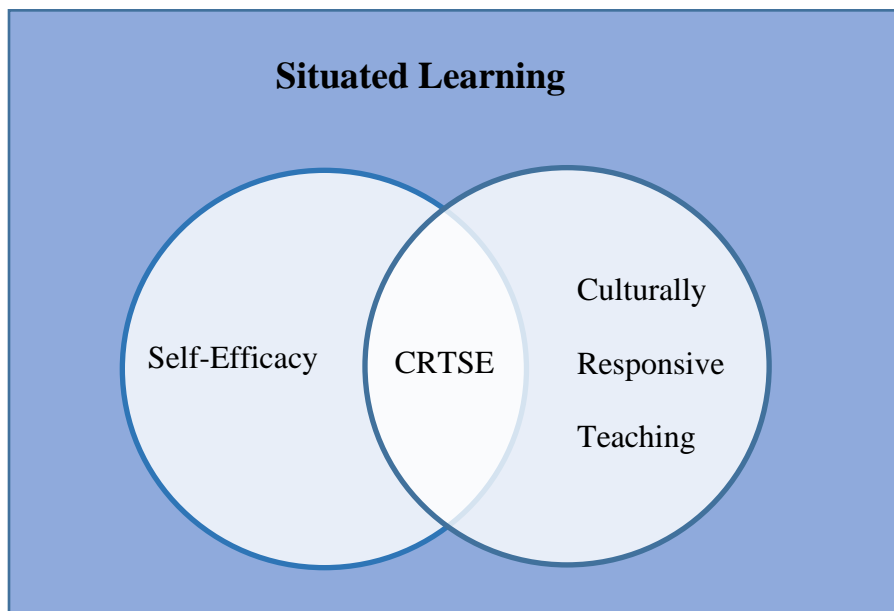
This overlap occurs all while the teacher candidate's participation in their urban immersive residency that starts with observations and evolves into full teaching responsibilities (see Figure 1). Through participation in the urban immersive residency, teacher candidates engage in mastery and vicarious experiences, which helps develop self-efficacy. In this study, the teacher

candidates begin as observers/helpers in the classroom, then they gradually increase their teaching responsibilities over time. The gradual increase of teaching responsibilities allows them to build their efficacy for completing certain tasks. Once a person has built their sense of efficacy, then when faced with a setback they are still likely to persist with the task (Bandura, 1997). The way this urban immersive residency is designed with gradual increase in responsibility, teacher candidates can build culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy by completing smaller tasks before they take over teaching all day.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in residency programs to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs, as well as understanding several teacher candidates' perceptions about how their understanding of culturally responsive teaching was influenced by aspects of the one urban immersive residency program they attended. This dissertation is guided by the following research questions and will add to the literature on CRTSE.

Research Questions

This study will address three research questions:

1) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

2) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

3) What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?

Significance of Study

This research study seeks to report about the CRTSE of teacher candidates in a network of urban immersive residency programs. Studying CRTSE of teacher candidates is one way to determine if urban immersive residency programs are meeting their goal of producing culturally responsive teachers. Additionally, understanding several teacher candidates' perceptions about what aspects of their urban immersive residency program supported their understanding of culturally responsive teaching further uncovers the effectiveness of these types of programs. Students' perceptions about urban immersive residency programs may reveal program features or structures that work well and those that need modifying. This study adds to the limited research on urban immersive residency programs. Moreover, traditional preparation programs may find these results useful because the two types of teacher preparation programs share some common elements, such as, mentor teachers, supervising faculty, and culturally responsive teaching coursework.

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Definition of Terms

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Community of practice: A set of relations among people with a mutual agreement to engage in activities over time with collective learning goals (e.g., Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Culturally responsive teaching: Using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively (Gay, 2002, p. 106).

Culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE): An individual's belief in his or her capabilities to execute specific practices and tasks that are associated with teachers who have adopted a pedagogy for teaching diverse students (Siwatu, 2007).

Legitimate peripheral participation: Learning takes place in a community of practitioners and the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the sociocultural practice of a community (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 21).

Mastery experiences: Personally, accomplishing a task (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy: A person's judgment on their capability to execute a behavior and get a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977).

Urban schools: Using Milner's (2012a) typology the school districts used for this study are considered urban emergent.

Urban emergent schools: These schools are those that are typically located in large cities but not as large as the major cities. They typically have some of the same characteristics and sometimes challenges as urban intensive schools and districts in terms of resources, qualification of teachers, and academic development of students (Milner, 2012a, p. 560).

Vicarious experiences: Seeing others perform activities without adverse consequences that generates expectations in observers that they too will improve if they intensify and persist in their efforts (Bandura, 1977, p. 197).

Chapter Summary

The teaching workforce is still majority white middle-class women, but urban classrooms are becoming filled with Black and Brown students. Accreditation standards continue to require teacher preparation programs to include cultural diversity in coursework and field experiences. These new requirements mean teacher preparation programs must provide teacher candidates with opportunities in the field that may help dispel myths about teaching Black and Brown students and their potential for learning. The target urban immersive residency programs for this study offer realistic field experiences and focus on teacher candidates learning how to be

culturally responsive teachers. Culturally responsive teachers do not take a colorblind approach where everyone is viewed the same. However, culturally responsive teaching affirms students' cultural differences and "teaches to and through these strengths of [culturally diverse] students" (Gay, 2018, p. 36). The conceptual framework for this study draws on culturally responsive teaching, self-efficacy, and situated learning theory. Chapter two examines the literature related to the conceptual framework, urban immersive residency programs, and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in residency programs to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs, as well as understanding several teacher candidates' perceptions about how their understanding of culturally responsive teaching was influenced by aspects of the one urban immersive residency program they attended. This literature review is organized using the conceptual framework (see Figure 1) and begins with an overview of Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning theory, followed by a discussion about self-efficacy, its sources, and how it applies to teacher education. Then, I discuss the importance to field experience for teacher candidates generally and urban immersive residency programs specifically, an alternate model of teacher preparation. After which, I explain the evolution of culturally relevant pedagogy, starting from its beginning in multicultural education, usage across various subject areas, towards the emergence of culturally responsive teaching. Finally, I introduce the instrument that measures culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and discuss the areas within teacher education where it has been used. Through this examination of literature, I theoretically position my dissertation research about teacher candidates prepared in urban immersive residency programs that focus on developing culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Situated Learning Theory

Situated learning theory introduced by Lave and Wenger (1991) views learning as a process that occurs from *legitimate peripheral participation* in a community of practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) emphasized that the term legitimate peripheral participation should not be

decomposed and viewed as individual terms, but the concept should be taken as a whole. Legitimate peripheral participation speaks to "the relations between newcomers, old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). As with any relationship, legitimate peripheral participation presents a complex dynamic. There are many power relations involved in legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The relationship between the old-timer and newcomer is power laden because the old-timer controls the level of experiences for the newcomer (Floding & Swier, 2012). Floding and Swier (2012) explained that the newcomer beginning as an observer has its advantages because they bring a set of "new eyes" to the situation and their observations can be discussed with the old-timer (p. 199). Newcomers entering with a new perspective may be what is needed to help keep practices moving forward. However, these new ideas may need to be adjusted by old-timers because they understand the limitations and values that must remain in place. Woodgate-Jones (2012) discovered classroom teachers (old-timers) believed teacher candidates do bring value to the community of practice with their new ideas. The researcher acknowledged newcomers are not equal contributors nor do they have shared power because the old-timer is still more experienced. Lave and Wenger (1991) described legitimate peripheral participation as a centripetal action where newcomers are moving towards full participation. The community of practice is constantly evolving, so newcomers will become full participants, then eventually they become old-timers (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Teacher candidates are needed to keep the teacher pipeline moving because eventually old timers retire and move out of the classroom. These teacher candidates bring with them fresh ideas from their preparation programs and old timers appreciate these new ideas, but the newcomers must understand their ideas must fit within the community of practice established within that school and classroom cultures.

Lave and Wenger (1991) do not clearly define a community of practice, but provide examples of Yucatec Mayan midwives, butchers in U.S. supermarkets, and tailors in Liberia. These examples show how communities of practice can be applied to different fields. Wenger (1998) identified three components of communities of practice: a joint enterprise, mutual engagement, and shared repertoire (p. 2). The joint enterprise is the what the community is about, and what they do together. All members must mutually engage in the community as they share resources, routines, vocabulary, styles, etc. (Wenger, 1998). Situated learning theory focuses on learning as a social practice that involves the person interacting in and with the socially and culturally structured world (Lave & Wenger, 1991). These models of traditional cognitive theory are "distanced from experience" and divide the learning mind from the world (Lave, 2009, p. 202). Learners can participate in the community of practice on different levels: (a) on the outside more as an observer, (b) as an insider, (c) as one who is moving from being an observer to more full participation, or (d) as one who is leaving the community (Zaffini, 2018, p. 39). No matter their level of involvement, participation in the community of practice helps shape the members' identities. The idea of a community of practice can be applied to teacher education where teacher candidates are the newcomers. These teacher candidates all share an interest in one day teaching in their own classrooms. Through engagement in activities and discussions with other teacher candidates, practicing teachers, and supervising teacher educators, they learn the shared repertoire in education. By beginning with legitimate peripheral participation inside schools where teacher candidates can participant in classroom activities, faculty meetings, and less formal spaces, like faculty lounges, they learn about becoming teachers. Over time, teacher candidates move towards full participation in the community of practice which creates opportunities for them to develop their teacher identities (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Blair (2008) discovered a community of practice emerged when new music teachers met regularly in what started as a support group. During the scheduled meetings, participants realized they had common concerns. The learning community shared resources and ideas that helped members grow professionally and they continually supported each other during this process. Jimenez-Silva and Olson (2012) had a similar outcome with teacher candidates learning to work with ELs. The participants believed the learning community was a safe space and provided support like a family. They also felt it helped them understand what it would be like teaching a group of ELs. Both studies Blair (2008) and Jimenez-Silva and Olson (2012) show how engaging in a learning community created a space for teacher candidates to openly discuss their practice and use the information to develop a sense of their own teacher identities. Situated learning theory embraces a sociocultural view that emphasizes learning through authentic social practice. For teacher candidates authentic practice instructing students occurs in the classroom but other factors within the learning community also contribute to their teacher identity development. As teacher candidates' professional teacher identities emerge through their lived experiences, they will develop more teacher self-efficacy. Self-efficacy stems from a closely related theory, social learning theory.

Self-Efficacy

Social learning theorists like Bandura (1971) believe new knowledge is obtained by direct experiences and by observing others model behaviors. During their direct learning experiences, humans are developing ideas about the consequences of their actions. Because of prior experiences, humans start to attribute certain actions with outcomes they value and some actions with undesired results (Bandura, 1971). These thoughts about the outcomes of one's actions are called self-efficacy which is a key component of social learning theory. Perceived

self-efficacy is defined as a person's judgment on their capability to execute a behavior and get a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (2006) warned to not confuse self-efficacy with self-esteem, which is a judgment of self-worth. When people have a strong self-efficacy about a certain task, they will put more effort and time into it, even when challenges arise. The converse is also true, people will avoid tasks they judge themselves incapable of doing.

Sources of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1977) outlined four sources that influence efficacy expectations: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. As part of social learning and situated learning theories, people gain knowledge through their own experiences, so repeated success builds a strong sense of efficacy. After having a great amount of success with a task, occasional failures are unlikely to have a negative impact on personal efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Although, personal mastery is a good starting point, people still rely on vicarious experiences to influence their self-efficacy. Watching others successfully complete a task with favorable outcomes also helps build self-efficacy. However, this use of social comparison by vicarious experiences is not as influential on self-efficacy as personal mastery (Bandura, 1977). The third component that influences self-efficacy is verbal persuasion, which is based on receiving encouragement from others. Again, Bandura (1977) believed efficacy expectations are not as influenced by verbal persuasion as they are by personal mastery. But those who are verbally persuaded and provided resources to complete a task will put more effort into it than those who only receive the resources (Bandura, 1977). Lastly, emotional arousal means that people are likely to examine the amount of stress created when performing a task. Additionally, high anxiety and stress can lead to poor performance. Therefore, people are more likely to expect success when they are not overcome with high stress and anxiety (Bandura, 1977). Having

vicarious experiences does help to diminish high emotional arousal because a person can learn coping skills by observing effective ways of handling the situation (Bandura, 1977). These various sources of information: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal, work together to help shape a person's judgement of their ability to complete a task. Self-efficacy has been applied to many fields including teacher education.

Teacher self-efficacy

Teacher efficacy or teacher self-efficacy are interchangeable terms used to describe the degree of confidence teachers hold about their ability to influence student learning (Klassen et al. 2011). Using Bandura's framework for self-efficacy, researchers began to study teacher self-efficacy in the early 1980's. Gibson and Dembo (1984) were among the first to develop an instrument to measure teacher self-efficacy. Their instrument showed that teacher efficacy was multidimensional and included two factors: personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy. There have been many debates around the Gibson and Dembo (1984) instrument and its validity and what exactly they were able to measure. Bandura (2006) provided a guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. Bandura (2006) advised "there is no all-purpose, one size fits all measure of perceived self-efficacy" (p. 307). Now research around teacher self-efficacy has expanded to instruments that relate to specific tasks such as: math teaching efficacy beliefs instrument (MTEBI) (Enochs et al. 2000), science teaching efficacy beliefs: for elementary in-service teachers (STEBI-A) (Riggs & Enochs, 1990), chemistry teaching self-efficacy beliefs instrument: for middle school teachers (STEBI-CHEM) (Rubeck & Enochs, 1991), and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) (Siwatu, 2007). These instruments ask questions about specific classroom tasks, but it is unclear if high efficacy in these areas lead to better student outcomes.

There are mixed results on how a teacher's self-efficacy is related to students' academic achievement in a specific subject area. An earlier study by Goddard et al. (2000) revealed teacher self-efficacy is a predictor for student achievement in mathematics and reading. Perera's and John's (2020) findings were consistent with Goddard's et al. (2000) findings; they found teachers with a high self-efficacy for teaching mathematics had higher class averages. The researchers believed the results from their study were attributed to the fact that teachers with high-self efficacy are more likely to move away from using direct instruction (Nie et al., 2013). However, when examining student achievement in biology, Mahler et al. (2018) did not find a relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student performance. These studies focused on teacher's self-efficacy and students' test scores, but to help students achieve teachers must first acknowledge their sense of responsibility in student learning.

Diamond et al. (2004) examined if teachers' expectations of students and their sense of responsibility for student outcomes differed based on the racial and socioeconomic (SES) composition of the school. The results of their study revealed "teachers held more deficit-oriented beliefs when most of the students were Black and low-income versus white or [Asian] students from middle-class families" (Diamond et al., 2004, p. 93). These results are consistent with Auwarter and Aruguete (2008) who found that teachers regarded students from low SES backgrounds in greater need of academic support and having less successful futures. Auwarter and Aruguete (2008) concluded that "these teachers would likely feel ineffective when working with low SES students and these feelings of low efficacy would lead to fewer teaching efforts" (p. 245). To help develop teacher candidates' self-efficacy in racially diverse and lower SES setting Thomas and Mucherah (2016) provided them a community-based immersive learning experience. As part of their practicum course for the semester, these teacher candidates spent 10

hours per week at the community center working with children and had the opportunity to plan and teach lessons plus engage with their students' families. Using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001), Thomas and Mucherah (2016) compared the teacher candidates in the immersive group to a control group and found those in the immersive group had greater gains in their self-efficacy throughout the semester. These results support the idea that more authentic experiences in the classroom can help improve teacher candidate's self-efficacy when working with Black and Brown students. To shift teacher candidate's deficit - oriented beliefs about Black and Brown students they must first have successful mastery and vicarious experiences with these students. Teaching comes with a mixture of successes and failures when presenting material to students, so it is expected that teacher's self-efficacy may shift. Dorel and colleagues (2016) discovered teacher candidates entered their field experience with high general teaching efficacy and hopes for obtaining good student outcomes. However, Dorel et al. (2016) found this general teaching efficacy declined after the first semester which the researchers suggested may be due to the "I did not know as much as I thought I did" phenomena (p.47). The teacher candidates' general teaching efficacy did rebound during their third semester and remained high when they exited the program (Dorel et al., 2016). These results show how mastery experiences do contribute to improved self-efficacy for teacher candidates but suggest other factors within the teacher preparation programs may impact efficacy as well. When teacher candidates realize they do not know as much as they thought, then they may rely on their mentor teacher or supervising faculty to demonstrate effective teaching strategies they may model. Plus, these mentors want the teacher candidates to be successful, so they offer encouragement. These resources of modeling and encouragement are available through field placements in teacher preparation programs. Field placements or experiences in teacher preparation provide teacher

candidates a chance to have these different efficacy building experiences: mastery, vicarious, and verbal persuasion.

Importance of Field Experiences in Teacher Preparation

Field experiences are a way to provide teacher candidates with an apprenticeship that allows them to link theory to practice. The time in the classroom provides teacher candidates an opportunity to observe an experienced teacher and work with students themselves. Teacher preparation programs must recognize that intensive field experiences accompanied with thoughtful reflection of the learning experience are necessary for teacher candidates (Caprano et al., 2010). Practicum courses that require teacher candidates to observe and teach one lesson provide teacher candidates with an unrealistic view of classrooms because they do not have to deal with discipline or curriculum issues (Dias-Lacy & Guirguis, 2017). There is much debate about the length of field experiences to produce effective teachers. To move away from the old practicum model, some programs have offered different field experiences such as one-on-one tutoring (Hedrick et al., 2000), one-week summer programs (Lui et al., 2020), after school events (Bottoms et al., 2017), and integrated model with two full days a week at the K-12 site for the entire semester (Eckman et al., 2016). Some of these different field experiences offer potential for teacher candidates to realize the challenges of working with diverse student populations (e.g., Eckman et al., 2017; Lui et al., 2020). Teacher candidates can also learn the importance of building relationships with students in classrooms (e.g., Hedrick et al., 2000; Lui et al., 2020). Some first-year teachers believed their teacher preparation programs did not fully prepare them to teach diverse student populations and that their student teaching experience did not match their first job (Desimone et al., 2013). To address this issue, teacher preparation programs must provide realistic experiences for their teacher candidates. The teacher residency programs

explored in this dissertation offers a year-long field experience that is realistic because candidates may eventually teach in the partnering school district.

Urban Immersive Residency Programs

Teacher residency programs are another model of preparation created to address the national teacher shortage. The first urban immersive residency program began in Chicago in 2001(Guha et al., 2016). Since other school districts and universities have partnered to adopt the urban immersive residency model of teacher preparation. The National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) has helped launch and support 33 urban immersive teacher residency programs (National Center for Teacher Residencies [NCTR], 2021). These programs follow the concept of a medical residency where teacher candidates spend up to a year in the classroom working alongside a mentor teacher. NCTR's mission is to "prepare effective, diverse, culturally responsive educators" (NCTR, 2021). So, to support urban immersive residency programs in preparing culturally responsive educators NCTR offers guidance on recruitment and program sustainability. Teacher candidates recruited into urban immersive residency programs complete their licensure requirements through a post-baccalaureate degree at a partnering university or other certification provider. Urban immersive residency program teacher candidates are more likely to be racially diverse than traditional teacher preparation programs because such programs remove the financial barriers to entry that disproportionately affect individuals of color (Burrell-Craft et al., 2022). After completing an urban immersive residency program, teacher candidates make a commitment to teach in the partnering school district for a certain number of years, typically three to five (Guha et al., 2016).

Mourlam et al. (2019) found teacher candidates believed their university program was rigorous and thought the coursework was relevant to their classroom experiences. The residency

field experience boosted the teacher candidate's confidence, and they became more comfortable managing the classroom and designing lessons. Teacher candidates in Garza's (2014) study recognized how the year-long residency experience helped them link theory to practice. One teacher candidate commented on how knowing the subject matter and teaching it were totally different. Teacher candidates credited their mentors for showing them how to differentiate instruction and improve student engagement by connecting their lessons to the students' lives (Garza, 2014). Along with helping them navigate the classroom and lesson planning, teacher candidates also believed the year-long field experience taught them how to be professional and have parents, students, and administrators view them as the teacher (Garza, 2014). Having authentic field experiences supported by mentors seems to help prepare teacher candidates in residency programs for their own classrooms. This study seeks to determine if urban immersive residency program structures help teacher candidates develop their understanding of cultural responsiveness.

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy

During the civil rights movement of the 1960's and women's movement of the 1970's there was a call for courses that addressed racial and sexual diversity in schools, and in response NCATE required multicultural education as part of teacher education program's (TEPs) curriculum (Gollnick, 1992). However, multicultural education has evolved since then. The practice began with ethnic studies where schools started to recognize heroes and holidays of people with different racial backgrounds so students of color might feel included (Banks, 2013). Ethnic studies only focused on one dimension of diverse cultures, race. Thus, ethnic studies expanded to multicultural education which included discussions of race, class, gender, and language diversity (Banks, 2013).

There remains an unclear definition of multicultural education in the research literature. When examining literature on multicultural education Sleeter and Grant (1987) discovered five approaches: teaching the culturally different, human relations, single group studies, multicultural education, and education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist. Of the five approaches, multicultural education was the most popular. The articles on multicultural education discussed goals, curriculum and instruction, and provided teaching guides with ideas to use in the classroom (Sleeter & Grant, 1987). Although, multicultural education should push for change Sleeter and Grant (1987) found that area to be the least studied. Ladson-Billings (1992) believed her idea of culturally relevant pedagogy aligned with Sleeter and Grant's (1987) multicultural and social reconstructionist area. Thus, Ladson-Billings (1995) moved forward with more research using the term.

Culturally relevant pedagogy is a term coined by Ladson-Billings (1995b) while researching teachers who were successful with Black students. When Ladson-Billings (1992) introduced her term *culturally relevant*, she acknowledged other terms used by researchers to describe the pedagogical practices of teachers working with diverse students. Some of the other terms used were *cultural responsiveness* (Cazden & Leggett, 1981), *cultural appropriateness* (Au, 1980), and *cultural compatibility* (Jordan, 1984). Guided by the work of Osborne (1989), Ladson-Billings (1992) discussed some of the limitations associated with the other terms. However, there was a preference for the term *cultural responsiveness*, but it was not clearly defined by Cazden & Leggett (1981). Later other researchers like Gay (2002) defined culturally responsive teaching and Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) provided a framework for it. Ladson-Billings (1992) suggested that *culturally relevant* be added to the list of terms used to describe pedagogical strategies for working with diverse students.

While planning her research, Ladson-Billings (1995b) carefully selected teachers based on feedback from the principal and the school community. These teachers had been identified by others because their students were academically successful which was measured by more than just their standardized test scores. Along with encouraging academic success for their Black students, these teachers incorporated the student's culture into their lessons and challenged them to recognize social inequities. Helping students in these three areas: academic success, cultural competence, and sociopolitical awareness are the tenets of culturally relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995b). With her work Ladson-Billings (1995a) sought to change the deficit narrative about Black children and their schooling. Her work purposefully chose to highlight the actions of good teachers of Black students. She discovered these teachers were invested in their students because they were part of the community. In the classroom, these teachers had "fluid and equitable" relationships with their students that extended beyond the classroom and into the community (Ladson-Billings, 1995a, p. 163). These fluid relationships meant everyone learned from each other and the teacher welcomed the idea of the students teaching them something new.

Since Ladson-Billings (1995b) named this theory of culturally relevant pedagogy, there has been research on its use by teachers in mathematics (Hubert, 2014), science (Laughter & Adams, 2012; Milner, 2011), history and social studies (Epstein et al., 2011; Martell, 2013; Sampson & Garrison-Wade, 2011). Because the focus of my work is on secondary education, the studies mentioned were conducted with middle or high school teachers. Sleeter (2012) argued there is not enough research on culturally relevant pedagogy citing "(a) persistent faulty and simplistic conception of what [culturally relevant pedagogy] is; (b) too little research connecting its use with student achievement; and (c) elite and white fear of losing national and global hegemony" as reasons for this lack of attention (Sleeter, 2012, p. 568). Aronson and Laughter

(2016) conducted a literature review of articles published between 1995 and 2013 that were related to culturally relevant education across content areas. These researchers limited the studies to those that focused on student achievement or teachers that were achieving student success. Their search resulted in eight studies in mathematics, five studies in science, six studies in history and social studies, and 13 studies in English language arts. However, it should be noted that Aronson and Laughter (2016) included dissertations in their list. If we filter out research focused on secondary education, then the list provided by Aronson and Laughter (2016) shrinks even more. Although, these studies do contribute to the field of research on culturally relevant pedagogy, it does seem that Sleeter (2012) is correct, and more work needs to be done.

Examining the non-dissertation articles cited by Aronson and Laughter (2016) that focused on secondary education revealed students enjoyed culturally relevant lessons in mathematics (Hubert, 2014) and history (Martell, 2013; Sampson & Garrison-Wade, 2011). Culturally relevant pedagogy was shown to increase students' confidence, motivation, and sense of belonging (Hubert, 2014); students also showed more interest in school (Byrd, 2016; Laughter & Adams, 2012). Incorporating culturally relevant lessons allowed students to discuss issues of race and racism in the classroom (Laughter & Adams, 2012; Martell, 2013) and the history lessons allowed students to view historical events from multiple racial perspectives (Epstein et al., 2011; Martell, 2013; Sampson & Garrison-Wade, 2011).

Like the research conducted by Ladson-Billings (1995a), Epstein et al. (2011) Martell (2013), and Milner (2011) all worked with teachers who had been identified as incorporating culturally relevant practices in their classrooms. Byrd's (2016) quantitative study explored culturally relevant teaching and students' academic outcome but found no relationship. To Sleeter's (2012) point that many of the empirical studies mentioned thus far on culturally

relevant pedagogy in secondary education did not focus on student achievement. However, Ladson-Billings (1995b) pointed out academic success looks beyond standardized test scores. Although, the findings of these mentioned studies do not directly relate to students' academic success, they do have implications for teachers and teacher educators. These studies show that students were engaged when teachers used culturally relevant practices and Sampson and Garrison-Wade (2011) found students preferred those type of lessons.

Milner (2017) believed Ladson-Billings conceptualized culturally relevant pedagogy with race as a critical component. When examining literature from 2004 – 2014 Milner (2017) found studies in mathematics and language arts did not make race a central point. The studies that did focus on race did so only at a superficial level (Milner, 2017). Twenty years after Ladson-Billings coined the term, culturally relevant pedagogy, Howard and Rodriguez-Minkoff (2017) analyzed studies on this field and like Milner (2017) believed there is still more work to be done. Howard and Rodriguez-Minkoff (2017), Milner (2017), and Sleeter (2012) all suspect there is a disconnect between putting the culturally relevant pedagogy theory into practice. Teacher preparation programs need to ensure teacher candidates can enact culturally relevant teaching but, be careful not to provide a limited understanding of culture that can be stereotypical (Howard & Rodriguez-Minkoff, 2017). Leonard and colleagues (2009) researched secondary mathematics teachers of English learners (ELs) and discovered the culturally relevant lesson did not resonate with the students. The purpose of the lesson was for the high school students to examine the calories associated with eating fast food, specifically McDonald's. One respondent reported that these ELs were not very interested in the project because they did not eat a lot of fast food, which meant they were not able to bring about critical consciousness on the subject. Although, they missed the mark on designing a culturally relevant mathematics lesson for their

ELs, the teachers reflected on their practice and what it takes to implement these types of lessons. It should be noted, the teachers in Leonard et al. (2009) were not known for their culturally relevant practices and it was their first attempt after completing a professional development course. This miss was a learning experience for the teachers in Leonard et al. (2009) study but shows how teacher preparation programs must instruct teacher candidates on how to incorporate student's race and culture into their lesson plans. Coursework in teacher preparation programs should include topics such as culturally relevant pedagogy and culturally responsive teaching.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Culturally responsive teaching (CRT) is defined as "using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively" (Gay, 2002, p. 106). Gay (2002) discussed specific pedagogical practices teachers should use in their classrooms with ethnically diverse students. These practices include developing a knowledge base about cultural diversity, including ethnic and cultural diversity content in the curriculum, demonstrating care, building learning communities, communicating with ethnically diverse students, and responding to ethnic diversity in the delivery of instruction (Gay, 2002, p. 106). In her book *Culturally Responsive Teaching Theory, Research, and Practice* Gay (2018) provides examples of what culturally responsive teaching looks like in the classroom. Gay (2018) asserted culturally responsive teaching is a way to unlock higher learning potential of diverse students leading them to better academic achievement.

Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) created a framework for CRT based on motivational conditions which included: establishing inclusion, developing positive attitude, enhancing meaning, and engendering competence. The researchers believed these conditions would lead to

better student engagement because the students had a voice in the learning process, so they would be intrinsically motivated to work. Using Wlodkowski and Ginsberg's (1995) framework teachers should put certain norms in place, so students understand they are part of a learning community, and everyone has a voice. Establishing this type of classroom environment would be considered part of the teachers' classroom management strategies. Brown (2004) interviewed teachers about their classroom management strategies to determine if they were culturally responsive. All teachers in Brown's (2004) study displayed characteristics of being culturally responsive when it came to managing their classrooms. These teachers were able to develop caring relationships with their students built on mutual respect and because of this they were able to effectively deal with disruptive behaviors without handing out harsh punishments. As proposed by Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) the teachers in Brown (2004) created a classroom learning community that operated in a family-like manner with student-student and student-teacher dialogues. These examples support culturally responsive practices as a way of making classroom experiences better for all students.

I will not provide an extensive list of studies on culturally responsive teaching because as Milner (2017) pointed out some researchers use the terms *culturally responsive* and *culturally relevant* interchangeably. Like Ladson-Billings (1992), Gay (2018) acknowledged other terms: *culturally relevant*, *culturally sensitive*, *culturally congruent*, *culturally reflective*, that were being used in the literature to explain the importance of aligning classroom practices with students' cultural backgrounds but stated her preference for *culturally responsive*. Howard and Rodriguez-Minkoff (2017) acknowledged the two terms: *culturally responsive* and *culturally relevant* are minimally different and arguing about the difference is counterproductive. For this

dissertation, I choose to use *culturally responsive* because that language aligns with the instrument I plan to use. This instrument measures culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy

Using Bandura (1977) framework for creating efficacy scales, Siwatu (2007) created the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) scale. The CRTSE measures teachers or teacher candidate's efficacy around implementing culturally responsive teaching practices. Questions on the CRTSE cover four components of culturally responsive teaching: curriculum and instruction, classroom management, student assessment, and cultural enrichment (Siwatu, 2007). After pilot testing the instrument, Siwatu (2007) administered the CRTSE to teacher candidates enrolled in two programs in the Midwest. The findings revealed teacher candidates were efficacious in their ability to build relationships with students and make them feel welcomed as members of the classroom community (Siwatu, 2007). However, teacher candidates scored lower on being able to communicate with EL students. Since Siwatu (2007) introduced the CRTSE scale, it has been used by other researchers with teachers and teacher candidates (Chu & Garcia, 2014; Cruz et al., 2020; Fitchett et al., 2012).

Cruz et al. (2020) learned similar results as Siwatu (2007) but surveyed teacher candidates along with experienced teachers. The researchers also discovered CRTSE scores increased with years of experience indicating the importance of mentorship and continuing professional development for novice teachers (Cruz et al., 2020). Looking deeper at the teacher demographic data and CRTSE scores, Cruz et al. (2020) observed teachers whose first language was not English had significantly lower CRTSE scores. These results by Cruz et al. (2020) contradicted findings by Chu and Garcia (2014) who studied CRTSE in special education teachers. Chu and Garcia (2014) found special education teachers who identified as non-white

had higher CRTSE scores than their white counterparts. In Cruz et al. (2020) study, race was

separated out a little further and teachers who identified as Hispanic were the only group to score

significantly higher than whites. Both studies show race, language, and experience may have an

impact on teacher's culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Fitchett et al. (2012) conducted a pre-post analysis of CRTSE of social studies teacher

candidates after using an in-depth culturally responsive teaching model in their methods course.

Results on this study indicated that the model was helpful in improving the teacher candidate's

desire to work in diverse settings. The teacher candidates also became confident in their abilities

to teach culturally responsive content (Fitchett et al., 2012). This study revealed the importance

of teacher preparation programs trying to improve CRTSE for teacher candidates through their

coursework. There is limited research on CRTSE which lead to the justification for this

dissertation study.

Chapter Summary

Residency programs emerged to fill teaching vacancies in hard-to-staff schools like those

in urban areas which serve large populations of Black and Brown students (Guha et al., 2016).

Teacher's general efficacy for instructing Black and Brown and low SES students is low

(Auwarter & Aruguete, 2008; Diamond et al., 2004), but mastery experiences with these students

helps improve efficacy (Thomas & Mucherah, 2016). Self-efficacy plays a major role in the

amount of effort a person puts into a task. So, if teachers have low teaching efficacy for diverse

students, then they will be less likely to put effort into trying different instructional strategies to

engage these students. Because classrooms are filling with Black and Brown students, culturally

responsive practices in various subject areas have been shown to engage diverse students.

Culturally responsive teachers build relationships with their students, create positive learning

environments, allow the students to have a voice in the classroom, and they ensure students' cultural backgrounds are represented in lessons. Preparing teacher candidates to be successful with diverse students means, they need to have high culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Most studies on teacher candidates look at general teaching efficacy, which does not measure their perceptions about their ability to be culturally responsive teachers. There is limited research on culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Mastery experiences for teacher candidates can occur through participation in the social practices within schools. In urban immersive residency programs, mastery experiences are offered as part of the teacher candidate's placement in the school's community of practice where they are guided by a mentor in the classroom and other teacher faculty outside the classroom. This dissertation's findings will contribute to the limited research on CRTSE by conducting a mixed methods investigation. In the next chapter, methodology, research design is described, rationale for the approach is provided, and specific details for conducting this dissertation study are expressed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study used an explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Mixed methods research "provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 12). These strengths include the use of all tools for data collection and being able to bridge numbers and words (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Fixed and flexible design components are purposefully combined in mixed methods research (Kroll & Neri, 2009). There are four key questions to consider about the quantitative and qualitative data when designing a mixed methods study: level of interaction, priority, timing, and procedures for mixing (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The level of interaction considers if the quantitative and qualitative data will be independent of each other or interactive. Priority refers to which methods will have greater importance. The timing determines at what point during the study each type of data were collected. Lastly, mixing of the quantitative and qualitative data is considered the most important decision and must be purposeful (Kroll & Neri, 2009). Researchers can decide to mix the results during the data collection, data analysis, interpretation, or the design phase of the study.

For the current study, I collected the quantitative data first and then followed-up with the qualitative data. Although the quantitative data was collected first, the primary emphasis was placed on the qualitative data which helped further explain the results. Fetters et al. (2013) pointed out that during the study, "qualitative data can provide detailed information about the nature of the experiences of subjects" (p. 2141). Mixing of the quantitative and qualitative data

occurred at the interpretation phase of this study. The explanatory research design allowed me to answer three research questions.

Research Questions

This study addressed three research questions:

1) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

2) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

3) What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?

Conceptual Framework

I assert that teacher candidates'(CRTSE) develops through legitimate peripheral participation in an urban immersive residency program through the school's community of practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) posited that legitimate peripheral participation is not a linear process. My conceptualization of Lave and Wenger's perspective is illustrated in my revised conceptual framework (see Figure 2). I theorized that culturally responsive teaching and self-efficacy start to overlap as the teacher candidate progresses through their urban immersive residency program and the amount of overlap varies dependent upon each individual's perception of their ability to carry out culturally responsive teaching.

The residency program provides teacher candidates with legitimate peripheral participation in the community of practice of schools where they can observe and eventually

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework Community of Practice
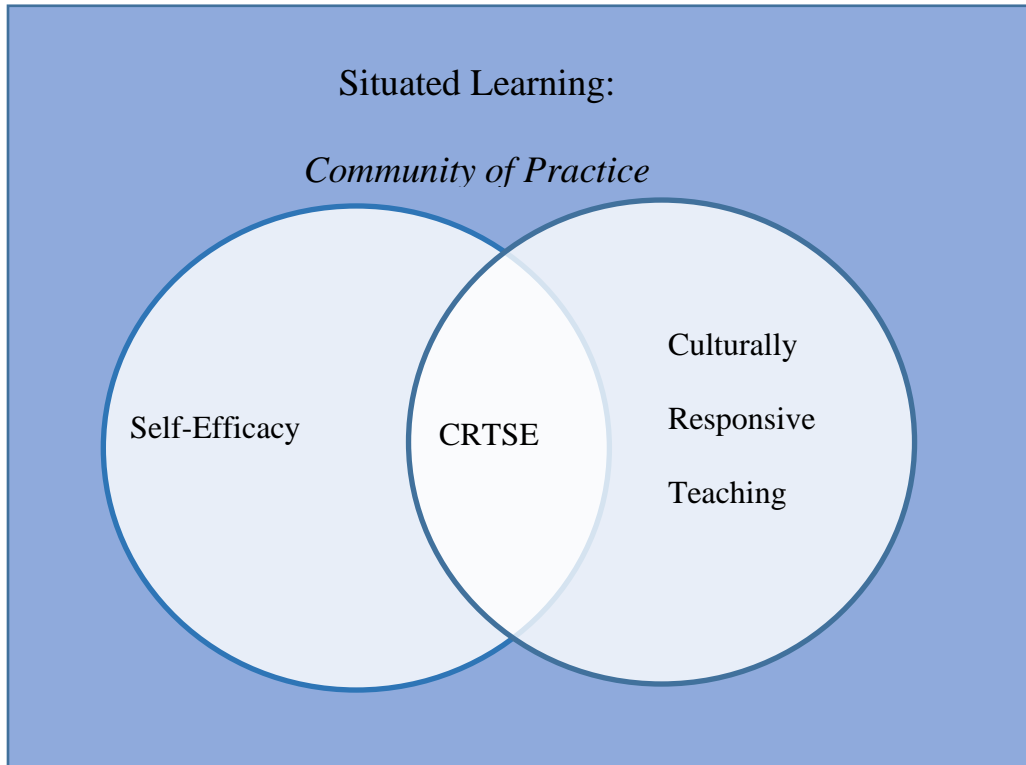
demonstrate their ability to be culturally responsive. Initially, teacher candidates begin their

residency experience as observers and vicarious experiences may be the main efficacy sources. A

goal of the residency program is to assign each teacher candidate a mentor teacher who displays

culturally responsive teaching practices. So, as the teacher candidates observe their mentor

teacher being culturally responsive and getting good outcomes with Black and Brown students,

they may start to feel as though they can get similar results. The teacher candidates may be able

to have some mastery experiences while observing and coteaching with their mentor. When the

teacher candidates begin to take on more teaching responsibilities in their classrooms, they

become full participants and the main efficacy sources come from mastery experiences plus verbal persuasion. If mastery experiences are not occurring or limited, then teaching feedback and verbal persuasion from their mentor teacher and supervising faculty can continue to build the teacher candidate's self-efficacy. The community of practice should continue to provide the teacher candidate support, so they can have more mastery experiences. Bandura (1977) identified mastery experiences as the main source of efficacy, so the teacher candidate's culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy should grow. During the residency field experience, the teacher candidates are in a community of practice with mentor teachers, supervising faculty, and teacher educators all contributing to their CRTSE. The people and activities in the community of practice contribute to the teacher candidate's knowledge of culturally responsive teaching in different ways and help build their self-efficacy in this area. It is expected that over time becoming full participants in the community of practice should lead to an overlap between culturally responsive teaching and self-efficacy, thus CRTSE knowledge is gained and grows. The conceptual framework mentions components of the residency program used in this study.

Setting

The National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) began in 2007 and is a network of 33 residency programs across 21 states (National Center for Teacher Residencies [NCTR], 2021). Residency programs are supported by NCTR through counseling and curriculum services, so each program can identify barriers and reach their goals (NCTR, 2021). One of NCTR's goals is to help urban immersive residency programs recruit, prepare, and retain diverse, culturally responsive teachers for Black and Brown students from low-income backgrounds (NCTR, 2021). While NCTR does support 33 different programs who work with hard-to-staff schools, the population of teacher candidates interviewed for this study are from one urban immersive

residency program. This urban immersive residency program has partnerships with a neighboring midsize university located in the Southeastern United States and surrounding K-12 school districts. Using Milner's (2012a) defining framework, these school districts would be considered *urban emergent*. Urban emergent schools are in cities smaller than urban intensive, which are places like New York or Los Angeles, but they still experience a lack of resources (Milner, 2012a). Some examples of urban emergent cites are Nashville, Austin, and Charlotte.

Teacher candidates are enrolled in a rigorous 15-month post-baccalaureate program and depending on their track, upon completion they will receive a Master of Science in Secondary Education or Master of Science in Education with a concentration in Special Education from the university. The university coursework places a strong emphasis on culturally responsive teaching. University courses are offered in the evenings because teacher candidates spend five days a week in the K-12 classroom. Tuition for the master's degree is covered, plus the residents receive a stipend when the K-12 school year begins. As part of the contractual agreement, in return for the stipend and free tuition, teacher residents are required to commit to teaching for three years in the K-12 school district where their placement is completed.

At the beginning of the school year, each teacher candidate is paired with a mentor teacher from the school district where they will eventually work. These mentors have been carefully selected by the school district as individuals who display culturally responsive practices and completed clinical coaches training. Teacher candidates work in the mentor's classroom and learn from participating in teaching activities alongside the mentor. As teacher candidates become part of the school community, their responsibilities gradually increase from assisting or observing to teaching all classes. During this active stage of development, the mentor is there to provide guidance and immediate support, but university faculty also frequently visit the

classroom to provide feedback on the teacher candidate's progress as well. This extra layer of supervision allows teacher candidates to learn from multiple parties within their community of practice throughout their field experience.

Field placement

Each residency program has its own unique placement procedures and length of the actual residency may vary. But teacher candidates typically report to the school at least four days per week and follow the same contract hours as their mentor teachers. Along with working in the classroom, the teacher candidates participate in other duties with their mentors such as attending faculty and department meetings, parent-teacher conferences, and individualized education plan (IEP) meetings. In the beginning, teacher candidates spend most of the time observing their mentor teachers, assisting with students, and learning how to write lesson plans. Over time, the teacher candidates become more immersed in the school community and take on full responsibility teaching and working with the students. The field placement lasts at least one school year with the teacher candidates receiving breaks for holidays determined by the district's academic calendar. The teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs with the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) network are the focus of this study.

Participants

The participants in this study are teacher candidates enrolled in urban immersive residency programs in the NCTR network. This network includes over 1400 teacher residents. Participants are seeking initial teacher licensure in critical shortage areas such as K-12 special education, secondary mathematics, secondary science, and secondary English. Although, these are the national critical shortage areas some participants may receive licensure in other subjects (Guha et al., 2017). Partnering school districts work with the university to identify their needs

and which licenses can be obtained through the university courses offered. Candidates are selected for the program by going through an application process which includes a panel interview with university faculty and the school district administrative personnel. Because the candidates are enrolled in a post-baccalaureate program, they must already possess a bachelor's degree in a field related to their subject area. However, a bachelor's degree in any subject will suffice for candidates wanting to become a special education teacher. Ages of the teacher candidates vary as some are recent college graduates and others are adult career switchers. The level of previous teaching experience for the teacher candidates also varies, as some had previously worked in schools as teachers' assistants, but others have no previous experience in a K-12 classroom. At the time of data collection, some participants were teacher candidates completing their field residency and some were new teachers who had graduated from an urban immersive residency program within the last two years. After approval from the institutional review board (see Appendix A), to recruit participants for this study, I went through the research department at NCTR and used relationships built as a teacher educator.

Data Collection

Quantitative Data

Due to the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) which protects students' education records, the call for participants was sent through the NCTR network. The NCTR was selected as a convenience sample because my position as a teacher educator allowed me access to this network. Still, teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs within the NCTR network are a good sample for this study because NCTR focuses on supporting residency programs in creating culturally responsive teachers. Following all NCTR research protocols, I drafted an email and sent it to a NCTR research team member. This NCTR research team

member, then forwarded my email containing a description of the study and link to the survey to all program directors. Program directors then decided if they would like to proceed with the research and forwarded the call for participants to their current residents and recent graduates. The NCTR research team also included an announcement in their October weekly newsletters which is sent out to program directors and other affiliated program staff members. A twenty-week time frame was set for teacher candidates to submit their responses to the online survey. During this twenty-week period, I sent out monthly email reminders directly to the teacher candidates in the urban immersive residency program that I had access to because of my position.

After providing informed consent (see Appendix B) each participant completed the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) scale (Siwatu, 2007) online using Qualtrics. The CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) asks respondents to rate how confident they are in completing culturally responsive teaching tasks. Teacher candidates also provided their age range, race, gender, grade level they were assigned during residency, future licensure area, and the number of months they had completed in the K-12 classroom as a resident. At the conclusion of the questionnaire, there was a question asking the teacher candidate respondents if they were willing to participate in an interview for the study. As an incentive, the call for participant's email advertised that those who completed the survey would have the option to enter a drawing for one of four $25 Amazon gift cards. A respondent's willingness to be interviewed did not affect if they could enter the drawing, it was their choice if they took part in either of these options. Those who wanted to enter the drawing provided their name, phone number, and email address; however, they were reminded this information was not linked to their CRTSE

responses; Qualtrics software ensured this separation of data. Data from the CRTSE scale was collected after the 2021-2022 school year began.

Instrument. The culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) scale asks a person to rate their confidence in being able to enact certain culturally responsive teaching practices (Siwatu, 2007). This instrument contains 41 Likert-scale items which respondents must rate on a scale from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident). The paper version of the instrument (see Appendix C) has a 10-point scale at the top and respondents rate themselves by writing any number from 0 to 100. For this study, I adapted the survey to collect data electronically in Qualtrics and respondents moved a slider across and stopped at their desired location. In the electronic version of the survey the "I am able to" statements and 10-point scale had to be included with every question (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

Online Format of the CRTSE Survey

The numbers on the slider are displayed while moving it, but once the slider is stopped the number selected is not revealed unless the respondent goes back to move the slider again. These adaptations to the online version do not alter the instrument; the total scores on the instrument ranged from 0 to 4100. The "I am able to" statements actually rated phrases like "build a sense of trust in my students", see Appendix C for the full questionnaire. I received permission to administer the CRTSE scale from Siwatu (see Appendix D).

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data was collected from teacher candidates using in-depth interviews. As previously mentioned after completing the CRTSE instrument respondents were asked if they would be willing to be interviewed. Along with their contact information respondents who volunteered to be interviewed also answered a question about their perceived average CRTSE score. Because respondents were unlikely to remember their average CRTSE score, the choices were divided into four intervals: little confidence (0 to 25), some confidence (26 to 50), moderately confident (51 to 75), and very confident (76 to 100).

Eight weeks into collecting quantitative data from the CRTSE survey, I contacted the respondents who volunteered to be interviewed. These six interviewees were all from the midsize university with the urban immersive residency program located in the Southeastern United States. Four participants were teacher candidates and two had previously completed the urban immersive residency program and were new teachers with their own classroom. The purpose of the interviews was to determine was aspects of the urban immersive residency program contributed to the teacher candidate's understanding of culturally responsive teaching. Data collected during interviews explained how teacher candidates defined culturally responsive

teaching and what facets of the urban immersive residency experience impacted their culturally responsive practices. Prior to conducting each interview, I emailed each participant the informed consent (see Appendix E) which they signed and emailed back to me. Before proceeding with interview questions, I asked the participants if they had any questions about the informed consent. Interviews were conducted using a semi-structured format via the web-conferencing platform, Zoom, and were recorded. To maintain confidentially, each participant chose a pseudonym for themselves and changed their name in the web-conferencing platform before I started recording. These pseudonyms were also used in my research documents. The interview protocol is attached in Appendix F. Each research questions and the data collection method and analyses used are presented (see Table 1).

Table 1

Research Questions, Data Collection & Analysis

Research Question	Collection Method	Method of Analysis
1. How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?	CRTSE survey Siwatu (2007) administered in Qualtrics. (Appendix C)	Compute CRTSE strength index for each teacher candidate. Calculate the confidence intervals for teacher candidates (those with less than nine months of residency experience)
2. How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?	CRTSE survey Siwatu (2007) administered in Qualtrics. (Appendix C)	Compute CRTSE strength index for each new teacher. Calculate the confidence intervals for new teachers (those with more than nine months of experience)
3. What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive	Semi-structured interviews	First round: In-vivo coding Second round: pattern coding

residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?	(Appendix F)

Validity & Trustworthiness

Internal reliability for the 41-item measure was .96 as estimated by Cronbach's alpha (Siwatu, 2007, p. 1092). When pilot testing the CRTSE survey Siwatu (2007) conducted a factor analysis but found a one-factor solution was best.

To ensure the trustworthiness of the qualitative data, the researcher watched the recorded interview again to verify the accuracy of the transcripts and included extra comments when the interviewee used hand gestures to emphasize what they were saying. A rich, thick description of each interview participant is provided to ensure transferability beyond this study. Additionally, the interviews were in-depth about culturally responsive teaching and interactive, which created ontological authenticity – the interviewee became more aware of culturally responsive teaching and their beliefs about it by participating in the interview, which may be a catalyst for enhancing their culturally responsive teaching approaches (Grant & Lincoln, 2021; Lincoln, 1995). Finally, I articulate my research positionality, so my background and current role in teacher preparation are transparent.

Researcher Positionality

As a former high school mathematics teacher and current teacher educator, I lack personal knowledge of what can be gained during student teaching or any field experience because I entered teaching through provisional licensure. Meaning, I was hired as a full-time teacher and had three years to complete education coursework while I was teaching, so I never

had a chance to learn as an apprentice. Prior to becoming a teacher, I had years of experience tutoring math formally and informally, as a part-time job in college and helping friends, respectively. Additionally, my last full-time job before accepting a teaching contract was being a tutor in different mathematics classrooms during the school day. Although, I had been in classrooms and worked with teachers and students before, I was never formally taught "best practices" in education or learned specific methods for teaching mathematics effectively, so I learned through experiences.

I can recall the first faculty meeting with a guest speaker to discuss testing data and how to use this data to improve instruction. I was sitting with my colleagues listening as the speaker presented slide after slide of data related to student subgroups: special education, SES background, race, etc. Honestly, I was clueless during this entire meeting because I only had one month of experience as a teacher and did not know test scores should be broken down like this, plus I kept getting lost with the acronyms the speaker used. Over time, after working with my mentor, meeting with other teachers in my professional learning community, and attending more faculty meetings, I learned the jargon and started to use it. Not only did I learn to talk like a teacher, but these things collectively shaped what I understood as "best practice." I constructed my knowledge of teaching practices by doing or through social practice as Lave and Wenger (1991) would call it. Because my experiences on the job taught me, as a researcher, I desire to study teacher candidates and how their urban immersive residency experiences help develop their understanding of culturally responsive teaching. Additionally, the results of this study will contribute to the research on urban immersive residency programs and show if the intensive field experience provided by these programs are helping to bridge the gap between theory and

practice. The findings of this study will provide me with insight that I can use while preparing teacher candidates for their future classrooms.

Data Analysis

The CRTSE scale was administered through Qualtrics, and individual responses remained anonymous. At the end of the twenty-week data collection period, the CRTSE survey responses were downloaded from Qualtrics as an Excel file. To measure the CRTSE of each teacher candidate, the sum of their item responses was calculated. The CRTSE survey (Siwatu, 2007) contains 41 items, so the total sums ranged from 0 to 4100. Each respondent's CRTSE strength index was calculated by dividing their total sum by the number of items, 41; these strength indices ranged from 0 (low self-efficacy beliefs) to 100 (high self-efficacy beliefs) and provide the strength of teacher candidate's CRTSE beliefs (Siwatu, 2011). After computing the individual CRTSE strength indices, descriptive statistics were calculated in Excel to determine the mean, which served as the point estimate. Confidence intervals correspond to the mean point estimate, or in this study mean strength index, plus the margin of error. To calculate the margin of error in Excel, the descriptive statistics included the 95% confidence level. The upper and lower limits of the confidence interval were calculated respectively by adding or subtracting the mean and the 95% confidence level. Following Young and Young (2021) methodology of using Excel stock option to plot the 95% confidence intervals, the current study was compared to 21 previous studies on CRTSE of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. This comparison was made through visual examination of mean strength indices and the margin of error, which represented the 95% confidence interval for each study.

Confidence intervals (CIs) are used in this study to compare the CRTSE strength indices of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs to teacher candidates from

traditional preparation programs. Using null hypothesis statistical significance testing does not allow for accumulating knowledge across studies and "can be an artifact of sample size because given a fixed effect size, larger samples are more likely to generate statistical significance" (Zientek et al., 2012, p. 278). Zientek et al. (2012) identified three advantages for using CIs: "(a) CIs provide a range of plausible estimates for population parameters, (b) CIs provide information about the precision of the estimate, and (c) CIs aid in synthesizing results and interpreting replicability" (p. 281). Cummings (2008) supported the use of confidence intervals over p-values when replicating studies and found that 83% of confidence intervals will include the mean of a replicated study. Based on these criteria confidence intervals are a good choice for this study. This study replicated what other studies have done and measured the CRTSE of teacher candidates. The 21 studies used by Young and Young (2021) to determine the 95% confidence interval of teacher candidate's CRTSE include the initial study by Siwatu (2007) (see Table 2).

Table 2

Previous Studies on Teacher Candidate's CRTSE

Article	N	Strength Index	CI
Young et al. (2017)a	50	79.27	[78.41, 80.13]
Young et al. (2017)b	34	80.43	[78.93, 81.93]
Evans (2016)a	73	76.02	[73.06, 78.98]
Evans (2016)b	92	78.49	[75.89, 81.09]
Evans (2016)	10	80.95	[72.63, 89.27]
Fitchett, Starker, Salyers (2012)	20	76.14	[69.89, 82.39]
Frye et al. (2010)	55	77.11	[75.23, 78.99]
Lastrapes & Negishi (2012)	46	73.50	[69.47, 77.53]
Matkins, McDonnough, Goff (NA)a	8	62.50	[56.26, 68.74]
Matkins, McDonnough, Goff (NA)b	8	77.20	[72.97, 81.43]
Matkins, McDonnough, Goff (NA)c	8	77.70	[71.67, 83.73]
Ostendorf (2015)	24	80.52	[76.30, 84.74]
Peters, McMullen, & Peters (2018)	110	70.10	[68.22, 71.98]
Siwatu (2007)	225	84.05	[82.93, 85.17]

Siwatu (2011)a	34	76.55	[73.19, 79.91]
Siwatu (2011)b	34	79.63	[76.04, 83.22]
Siwatu (2011)c	8	83.69	[78.10, 89.28]
Siwatu & Starker (2010)	84	78.87	[76.08, 81.66]
Siwatu et al. (2016)	8	77.59	[70.09, 85.09]
Yvette (2014)a	81	75.98	[71.30, 80.66]
Yvette (2014)b	22	75.31	[65.69, 84.93]

Note. Adapted from Young & Young (2021) p. 17

For the qualitative data, the interview video recordings were used to correct any mistakes in the transcription. The video recording also allowed me to note in the transcription when the interviewee used hand gestures to emphasize what they were saying. Once validated and annotated, the interview transcripts were loaded into the qualitative analysis software NVivo; each interview transcript was coded. For the first cycle of coding, the transcripts were analyzed using in-vivo coding. In-vivo coding is good for those that wish to "prioritize and honor the participants voice" (Saldana, 2009, p. 74). The in-vivo codes allowed the participants' words to be used when reporting the findings of this study. Pattern coding was used as the secondary coding technique. The second cycle of coding "further manages, filters, highlights, and focuses the salient features of the qualitative data for generating categories and themes" (Saldana, 2009, p. 8). Pattern coding provided me with enough information to develop the overarching themes from the research.

Limitations

Due to only interviewing participants from one urban immersive residency programs in the NCTR network, the results of this study are not generalizable to the population of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs across the United States. Larger studies with teacher candidates from all urban immersive residency programs or those with longer field

experiences may be helpful to determine if there is a difference between traditional and nontraditional preparation programs. This study assumes the teacher educators and supervising faculty who instruct the graduate level classes and oversee classroom observations, respectively, are culturally responsive and convey these practices to the teacher candidates. While these faculty are the old-timers in the community of practice who are presumed to have the most CRTSE, this may not be the case. A comprehensive study where all members in a community of practice CRTSE is measured might be necessary to confirm this assumption.

I must also ensure the participants feel comfortable sharing their experiences and understand their responses will be kept confidential. My position as a teacher educator at the same university as the interviewees does create a power dynamic, so the participants may be hesitant to share. I will try to ensure participants feel comfortable sharing their experiences and hope they are forthcoming with the information provided during the interview process.

Implications

This study does have several implications for me as a teacher educator. The results of this study will help reveal what additional areas teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs may need support in when implementing culturally responsive teaching practices. Each school placement is different, and no field experience can provide a teacher candidate with every scenario they may face in the classroom, therefore some issues must be covered through coursework. The findings from this study can be used by the urban immersive residency programs to understand how their teacher candidates CRTSE scores compare to the range of possible scores for the population of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. If residency candidate's scores are lower, then the urban immersive residency programs may consider how they can better support their teacher candidates. The results of this study may

provide the groundwork for larger studies on teacher candidates' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy in urban immersive residency programs.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the methodology; a mixed-methods explanatory sequential design was used to add to the limited research on CRTSE, specifically in urban immersive residency programs. The quantitative data was collected first by using the CRTSE survey (Siwatu, 2007) and the qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews. Data collected from previous studies on CRTSE by Young and Young (2021) will be compared to the present study. Chapter four presents the results from the quantitative and qualitative data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in residency programs to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs, as well as understanding several teacher candidates' perceptions about how their understanding of culturally responsive teaching was influenced by aspects of the one urban immersive residency program they attended. Quantitative data collection was through the CRTSE survey and qualitative data was collected using in-depth interviews. This study sought to address three research questions:

This study will address three research questions:

1) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

2) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

3) What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?

The remainder of this chapter presents the study results and addresses the research questions.

Quantitative Results

The CRTSE survey was used to address the first two research questions. The survey was administered anonymously online using Qualtrics. The link for the CRTSE survey was emailed directly to teacher candidates and recent urban immersive residency program graduates enrolled

at one NCTR network university in mid-September. Also in mid-September, the NCTR research team emailed program directors informing them about the study and posting the survey link in the mid-October NCTR newsletter. A total of 42 people submitted the CRTSE survey over the course of the twenty-week data collection period; the raw data was exported from Qualtrics as an Excel file.

Data Cleaning

Before starting data analysis, incomplete submissions were removed from the Excel data set. A feature of Qualtrics included a survey progress percentage column exported in the raw data, this number represented the percentage of the full survey a respondent completed. So, numbers from this column were examined for surveys that were not 100 percent completed. Of the 42 submissions, 18 were removed because their surveys were not 100 percent completed. One of the 24 remaining surveys was marked as 100 percent completed, but the respondent skipped five different questions in the middle, so the results were included in the final data set. The five unanswered questions were marked as zero which assumed the respondent had "no confidence" in that specific area. All other 23 respondents completed the entire survey with some entering their own values of zero indicating "no confidence".

Demographic Statistics

Using the most recently published 2019-2020 NCTR data, these 24 respondents represent 1.7% of NCTR total enrollment. Table 3 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the 24 respondents.

Table 3

Characteristics of Quantitative Participants (n =24)

Characteristic	N	%
Race		

Asian/ Asian American	1	4.2%
Black/ African American	14	58.3%
Hispanic or Latino	3	12.5%
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	1	4.2%
Other	3	12.5%
White/Caucasian	2	8.3%
Gender		
Female	20	83.3%
Male	4	16.7%
Non-binary	0	0.0%
Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
Age range		
20 – 29	11	45.8%
30 – 39	5	20.8%
40 – 49	4	16.7%
50 – 59	3	12.5%
60 +	1	4.2%
Time in classroom (residency)		
0 -3 months	11	45.8%
4 - 6 months	8	33.3%
6 - 9 months	0	0.0%
9+ months	5	20.8%
Licensure Area		
Math	0	0.0%
Science	4	16.7%
Special Education	14	58.3%
English Language Learner	0	0.0%
Other (Elementary Education)	6	25.0%

The respondents were seeking certification in three different licensure areas: K-12 special education, elementary education, and secondary science. Special education ($n = 14$) was the greatest, followed by elementary education ($n = 6$), and the least was secondary science ($n = 4$). Most of the respondents identified as female ($n = 20$). Over fifty percent of the respondents identified as Black ($n = 14$) and 12.5% were Hispanic or Latino. Based on the racial

demographics, this sample was majority people of color. At the time of survey completion, most respondents ($n = 11$) had been in their field placement for zero to three months. Five of the respondents ($n = 5$) had been in their residency field placement for nine or more months ($n = 5$), so for this study they will be classified as new teachers with their own classroom. More than nine months of experience was considered a new teacher because one school year is around 10 months. Most of the respondents were 20 to 29 years old ($n = 11$), four respondents were 40 to 49 years old, and three respondents were 50 to 59 years old.

Comparing CRTSE Among Residency and Traditional Candidates

The first research question was answered using the quantitative data from the CRTSE survey. Teacher candidates were identified as those who answered the question "how long have you had been in the classroom portion of the residency program?" with zero to three months, four to six months, or six to nine months. So, the total number of teacher candidates in this study was $n = 19$. Analysis of the 41-item survey results began by calculating the cumulative sum for each teacher candidate participant ($n = 19$). The maximum cumulative score of all 41 items is 4100, participants' scores ranged from 721 to 4065. To determine the strength index for each participant, the cumulative sum was divided by 41. Strength indices can range from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident), the lowest participant's score was 17.59 and the highest was 99.15. To calculate the mean strength index and 95% confidence interval, Excel Analysis ToolPak was used to compute descriptive statistics for the dataset. Table 4 displays the mean strength index, standard deviation, 95% confidence interval.

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Candidates*

Teacher Candidates Data	
N	19

M	68.66
SD	22.64
95% CI	[57.74,79.57]

The mean strength index of the teacher candidates was determined to be 68.66 (*SD* = 22.64).

The 95% confidence interval (CI) was calculated to be [57.74, 79.57]. To answer research

question 1: *How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher*

candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in

traditional preparation programs? the confidence interval for the teacher candidates were

plotted to show how teacher candidates from an urban immersive residency program compared

to the teacher candidates in 21 previous studies on CRTSE. The graph displays the 21 previous

studies on CRTSE used by Young and Young (2021) with the 22nd highlighted in red, being the

teacher candidates from the current study (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

95% Confidence Interval for Teacher Candidates Plus the Current Study
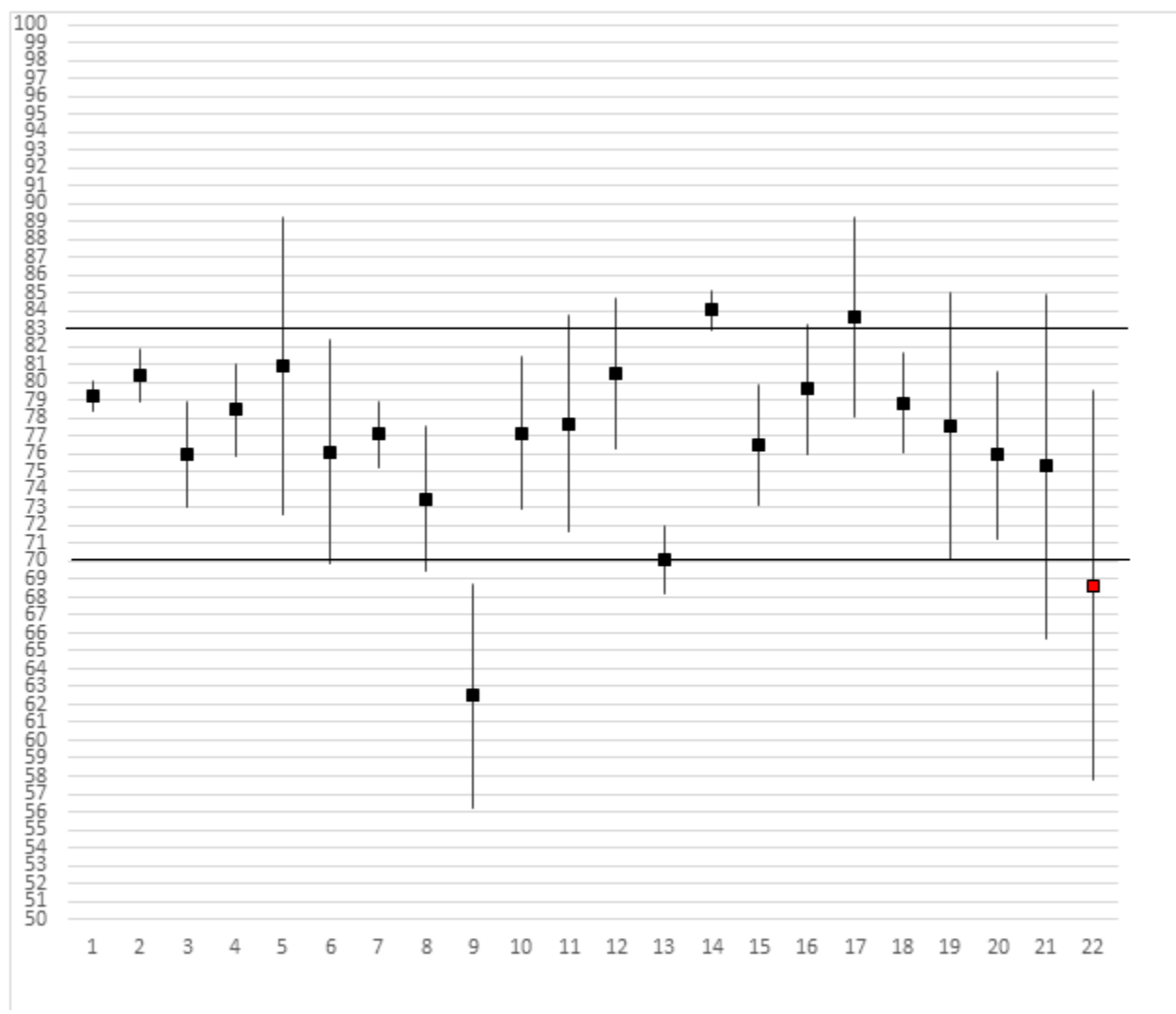
Note. Data from studies 1 - 21 is from Young & Young (2021) see (Table 2) and study 22 is the current study.

The sample sizes for the 21 comparison studies ranged from 8 to 255 and the strength

indices ranged from 62.50 to 84.05 (see Table 2). Using these 21 studies and plotting their

confidence intervals, Young and Young (2021) determined the plausible range of the CRTSE

strength index for teacher candidates to be between 70 and 83. Horizontal lines are drawn on the graph to highlight the expected range of 70 to 83 established by Young and Young (2021). Through visual inspection of the graph (see Figure 4), it is noticeable that the mean CRTSE strength index for the teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs is outside of the lower bound of that expected range; it is 1.34 points lower. While the mean CRTSE strength index for the current study is below the expected range, it is important to look at the margin of error in this value, which was considered when calculating the 95% confidence interval. Looking at the upper band of the 95% confidence interval for the CRTSE strength index of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs, it does overlap with the expected ranged for teacher candidates determined by Young and Young (2021). This overlap or intersection indicates that the plausible range for the CRTSE strength index for teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs is within the expected range for the population of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. Thus, to directly answer research question 1, there is no statistically significant difference between the CRTSE strength index of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs and teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs.

Comparing CRTSE Among New Teachers and Teacher Candidates

The second research question was answered using the CRTSE survey results from participants who had spent more than nine months in the classroom for their urban immersive residency program. Given the time frame of data collection and a typical school year starts in September and is about 10 months, it was assumed those with more than nine months of experience were new teachers with their own classrooms. These new teachers had recently graduated their urban immersive residency program. For the current study, five respondents fell

in this category (n = 5). The cumulative sum of the 41-item survey was calculated for the five

new teachers. Cumulative scores ranged from 2492 to 3939 with the highest possible score of

4100. To determine the CRTSE strength index, each cumulative score was divided by the total

number of items, 41. Possible scores could range from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100

(completely confidence), the range of the strength indices for participants in this study was 69.22

to 96.07. Descriptive statistics were computed using Excel Analysis ToolPak to determine the

mean strength index for the new teachers, standard deviation, and 95% confidence interval (see

Table 5).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for New Teachers

New Teacher Data	
N	5
M	79.42
SD	11.00
95% CI	[65.76, 93.08]

The mean strength index for the new teachers was found to be 79.42 (*SD* = 11.00). The

95% CI for the CRTSE strength index was calculated to be [65.76, 93.08].

To address research question 2: *How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy*

(CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to

teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs? the confidence interval for the data was

plotted to examine how the new teachers from urban immersive residency programs compared to

teacher candidates from 21 previous studies on CRTSE. Figure 5 shows the graph of the 21

previous studies on CRTSE used by Young and Young (2021) with the 22nd being the data from

new teachers in the current study.

Figure 5

95% Confidence Interval for Teacher Candidates and New Teachers from Current Study
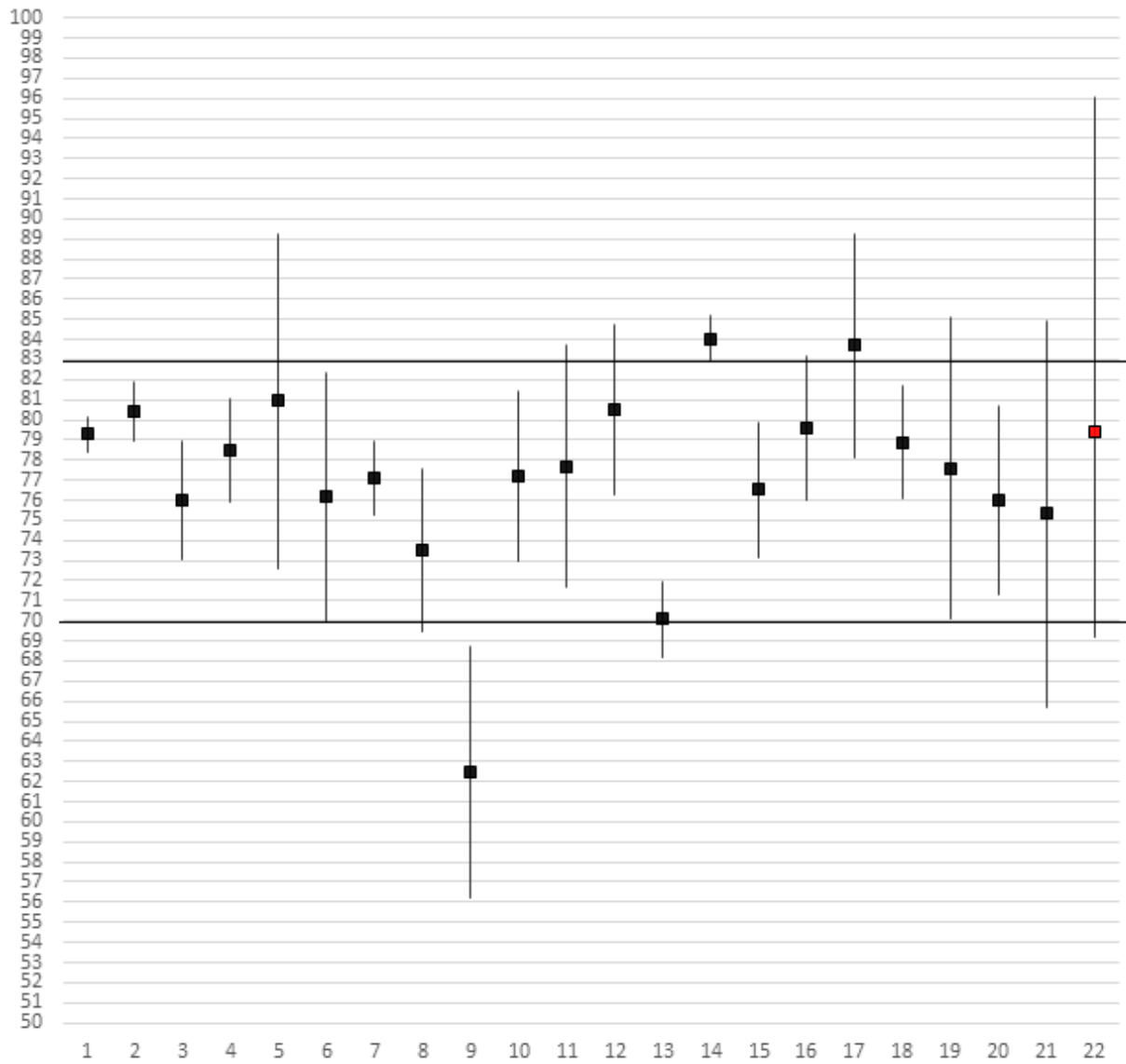
Note. Data from studies 1 - 21 is from Young & Young (2021) see (Table 2) and study 22 is the current study.

Based on Young and Young (2021) the plausible range of the CRTSE strength index for teacher candidates is between 70 and 83, so the horizontal lines are drawn to highlight that range.

Due to the very small sample size, the confidence interval was larger than other studies with more participants. Visually inspecting the graph (see Figure 5), the 95% confidence interval for the mean CRTSE strength index of new teachers from residency programs does intersect the range for teacher candidates determined by Young and Young (2021). This intersection means the new teachers from urban immersive residency programs are expected to have a CRTSE strength index within the range of the population of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. To directly answer research question 2, there is no statistically significant difference between the CRTSE strength index of new teacher from residency programs and teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs.

Qualitative Results

To address research question three, qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews with six participants. A description of each participant is provided (see Table 6); they were all from the same previously described teacher residency program. Because the survey results were anonymous, the participants were asked to select an interval that included their perceived mean CRTSE score. Possible mean scores on the CRTSE survey range from zero to 100, so the scale was broken into quartiles: little confidence (0 - 25), some confidence (26 – 50), moderately confident (51 – 75), and very confident (76 – 100). Analysis of the qualitative findings begins with rich description of each participant along with their definition of culturally responsive teaching.

Participants

There were six interviews conducted. Using the study's criteria for classifying teacher candidates and new teachers, of the six participant interviews, four teacher candidates and two

new teachers were interviewed. All participants selected a pseudonym to be used in this study.

Each participant had their own unique definition of culturally responsive teaching.

Table 6

Description of Interview Participants

Name	Sex	Race	Age Group	Experience	Licensure Area/ Discipline Taught	Perceived CRTSE Range
Caleb	M	White/Scottish	60 – 64	Candidate	SPED/ MS Math	26 – 50
Dawn	F	Black	45 – 49	Candidate	SPED/ Elementary	0 – 25
Sarah	F	White/Hispanic	25 – 29	Candidate	Secondary Science	26 – 50
Shawntel	F	Black	45 – 49	Candidate	Secondary Science	76 – 100
Leigh	F	Asian &White	45 – 49	New Teacher	SPED/ MS Math	26 – 50
Nicole	F	Black	25 – 29	New Teacher	SPED/ Elementary	51 – 75

Note. Names are pseudonyms. Participants were asked their race as an open-ended question.

Caleb was the only male interviewed, he was between 60 and 64 years old and identified as white from Scottish decent. He was seeking licensure as a special education teacher and his residency placement was a co-teacher in a seventh-grade math classroom. Caleb had previous experience substitute teaching and believed his mean CRTSE strength index was between 26 to 50, some confidence. When asked to define culturally responsive teaching Caleb said it was "responding to each student according to where they are from emotionally, socially, and every other way, and then dealing with them according to that context." Having seven children of his own including a set of twins, Caleb understood that all children were different and had various needs.

Dawn was a teacher candidate seeking initial teaching licensure in special education. She identified as a Black female between the age of 45 to 49. Before entering the teacher residency program, Dawn was working at the same Title 1 school as a teacher's assistant. The school had a high population of English Learners (EL) students and her previous job as a teacher's assistant

required her to work with struggling readers. Her definition of culturally responsive teaching included "showing sensitivity towards cultural differences." She described these differences as "language differences, cultural differences, respect to any religion, or lots of different things." Because she had worked at the school where she was placed, she was very familiar with the school's culture.

Sarah was a 25- to 29-year-old white Hispanic female, seeking initial licensure in secondary science. Her residency placement was in a seventh-grade science classroom. Sarah had many years of previous experience working with children as a nanny, babysitting, and was even a camp counselor as a teenager. She defined culturally responsive teaching as "being aware and accepting of our students' beliefs, and values, and their cultures, and translating that into our classroom to make them feel appreciated and accepted in the classroom environment." Sarah perceived her mean CRTSE ranged between 26 and 50.

Shawntel was a 45- to 49-year-old Black female, she was seeking licensure in secondary science. Shawntel had previously been a long-term substitute in another state and was seeking a provisional science teaching license in that state then had to move. After she moved, she began working in schools again as a substitute teacher and para-professional before entering the teacher residency program. With several years of previous experience in schools, Shawntel's perceived mean CRTSE score was between 76 to 100 and her knowledge and confidence in culturally responsive teaching showed in her interview answer. Her definition of culturally responsive teacher centered on the educator being "conscious of the surroundings of how the kids are living." She placed an emphasis on "[the student's] economic status." She also thought educators should "teach in a way that [the content] relates to a student so that they can be able to retain the information and it is not something so far-fetched that they are not able to really understand it."

Two key phrases she used was to "bring [the content] closer to home" and "something that is relatable."

Leigh identified as two races: Asian and white and was 45 to 49 years old. She was a new teacher and had completed the teacher residency program the previous year. While she was on her own, she still had another teacher at the school that served as her coach, and they had a good relationship. She was certified as a special education teacher and along with teaching a resource class she co-taught eighth grade math with two different teachers. Although Leigh perceived her mean CRTSE score was between 26 to 50, working with two different math teachers made her conflicted and she lacked confidence in her definition of culturally responsive teaching. During the interview it seemed as if she wanted confirmation that her answer was correct because each statement started with "I guess" and the final statement ended with "maybe." She defined culturally responsive as "when you are interested in getting to know your students and seeing and trying to get an idea of what backgrounds they are from and what their interests are and their family." She shifted towards learning and included "how [the students] like to learn and what they're interested in" and her final statement was 'teaching is not just teacher driven but more student-centered." Before entering teacher residency program, she had worked as a substitute teacher and done volunteer work.

Nicole identified as a Black female between 25 to 29 years old and was the most experienced interviewee; she was in her second year of teaching in her own classroom. She had completed the teacher residency program at the height of the global COVID-19 pandemic and her first full year of teaching was done mostly through virtual instruction. Nicole worked in retail before deciding to enter the teacher residency program. Working with children was something she had considered, so her psychology major included a minor in childhood studies and

sociology. She defined culturally responsive teaching as "being able to understand where your students are coming from physically, mentally, emotionally, and how that might affect their interactions with people and how they learn." Nicole perceived her mean CRTSE score was between 51 to 75, but after answering most of the interview questions, she wondered if she had marked herself too high. Her licensure was in special education, and she was working in an elementary school.

Community of Practice

To answer research question three: *What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?* during the interview, the participants were asked what part of the urban immersive residency program helped them become confident in culturally responsive teaching. All but one of the participants mentioned their mentor teacher as an excellent resource. Nicole was the only person who did not mention her mentor, but it had been almost two years since she was a teacher resident. Shawntel commented "they paired me with the perfect person" and thought she was learning a lot from having a mentor teacher younger than her. The coursework was also mentioned by most participants, and they named specific university classes where they had discussed culturally responsive teaching. Leigh commented that the "different university professor's teaching styles" engaged them in various ways. She enjoyed the online discussions and how the professors incorporated hands-on activities. Most participants thought the additional readings provided by the university faculty along with extra trainings required through the urban immersive residency program and school sites were helpful. Dawn felt that specifically "reading the case studies" helped her more than the coursework. Caleb was the only participant to list the racial affinity groups as helping him understand culturally responsive teaching. He thought being

in the white affinity group was challenging but said "it is making me change the way I see different cultures relative to each other." Talking to and asking questions of past and current teacher residents was mentioned by two participants. Dawn, who had previously worked at her residency site for eight years was the only participant to name the administrative team as helping her get more comfortable with being in a lead role. In her previous role as a teacher's assistant, Dawn was assigned to use a phonics-based program to help struggling readers, so she was familiar with how the administration supported these students. Leigh mentioned her co-teacher who had 20 years of teaching experience being a good resource. Although, each participant had varying thoughts on what resources were most helpful to them, all elements listed were part of the community of practice that specifically existed within their urban immersive residency program.

Understanding Culturally Responsive Teaching

Three themes emerged to describe how the participants developed their understanding of culturally responsive teaching: (a) being more self-reflective; (b) accepting new classroom dynamics; and (c) learning through counterexamples.

Being Self-Reflective. The participants were learning to be more self- reflective about their practices. Caleb who is over 60 admitted

> "It is a new language for me and some of the terms are being redefined and I bristled at that to begin with a little bit, but then I realized language evolves all the time and we do not think anything of it."

Shawntel who is also older acknowledged being "old school" and having to shift her first thoughts from "[these kids] are just acting bad." She even went as far to say she needed to "take [her] personal opinions about things and learn to leave that at the door", so she could "service

those kids." Shawntel specifically mentioned learning to adjust to students' different cultures which to her was more than race, it included sexual orientation, language, and religious beliefs. She wanted to ensure all students felt included in her classroom. Although Nicole had the most experience teaching, she still found herself "checking" her thoughts and was learning better ways to approach situations. She would constantly remind herself that sometimes others do not always think the same way she does. Instead of changing her thoughts, Leigh experienced some uncertainty around her culturally responsiveness because being Asian and white students made remarks about the color of her skin and how she did not understand them. Their remarks made her go home and ask herself "how can I make a connection?" Sarah reflected on how the students' experiences were different than how she grew up and she was always making that comparison. These comments show how the participants were self-reflective and trying to change some of their old habits, but they were also accepting new classroom dynamics.

Accepting New Classroom Dynamics. Participants were learning to understand that being culturally responsive meant accepting new classroom dynamics. Shawntel had a problem with students using cell phones in the classrooms, but instead of making it a source of contention, she decided to address it so that "[the teacher and students] are both winning." Although, she did not elaborate on her cell phone policy, Shawntel was accepting cell phones as a part of the students' "culture". Caleb said his classroom was loud and there was a certain amount of "hubbub" that was not distracting, but "ubiquitous." The students were still getting work done while being noisy, so Caleb accepted it as part of the classroom dynamic. Nicole was adjusting to working at the student's pace because she realized when they were pushed too much, the students sometimes shut down. Caleb and Shawntel both gave up yelling in the classroom. Caleb said, "the world yells at these kids louder than I ever will be able to." Shawntel's mentor

brought it to her attention that her tone was too loud and shared how the students would better receive her if she changed her tone. During the interview, Shawntel gave a jaw dropping look of shock, indicating how she felt when she paid attention to how the students "received" her mentor, who did not yell at them. Another habit Caleb had to break in the classroom was giving students nicknames. In the past, he had used nicknames as a "bridge for [him] to have something to call people that is individual and personal, even if [he] had not got their name yet." When talking about his old ways he said they were "insensitive" and "getting people's names is hyper important."

Learning Through Counterexamples. Leigh's experience seemed to be different from the other participants where her understanding of being culturally responsive came through counter examples. She questioned the cultural responsiveness of policies put in place by the school's administration and other teachers. One policy she questioned was requiring the middle school students to walk in straight lines in the hallway to and from lunch on "level zero", meaning no talking. She said it was hard for her to enforce this rule, especially after seeing the students sit in a class for 90 minutes struggling with the content and "just disengaged." But when class ended and the students walked into the hallway and saw their friends she stated, "you see the excitement." So, it was hard for her to be what she called an "authoritarian" and automatically say "okay level zero." Leigh expressed this is what the administration expected but "[I] wish that [I] could give them more freedom." A similar situation where Leigh struggled was her co-teacher's policy of no talking during homeroom. The students could eat their breakfast in the classroom and had about 20 minutes before class time started, but her co-teacher did not allow talking during this time. Leigh had a middle school aged child who attended a different school in the district, so she really wrestled with accepting no talking policies put in place by the

school's administration and her co-teacher. Her own child did not experience these types of no talking policies at lunch or homeroom and talking with friends during those times were the highlight of her child's school day. When Leigh shared with her child that students at her school had to walk in a straight line to lunch on "level zero" her child stated "why? that is like in elementary school." Leigh could not provide an answer as to why this policy was in place and shared, she did question an administrator about it. But this administrator had joined the school two years ago and did not know about the school's previous policies, so Leigh thought it must be a safety measure put in place because of the COVID-19 pandemic. However, her own child attended the same school district, so Leigh understood these were not district-wide policies.

Meetings were another place where Leigh noticed a lack of cultural responsiveness from her colleagues. She said some meetings turned into a "big gossip type water cooler, where [they] were just talking about the kids and all their defects." She felt her colleagues had good relationships with the students but said "in my brain it is hard sometimes navigating through that because [I am] learning from these same teachers." Leigh understood her colleagues' statements were wrong because their remarks went against what she had learned in her residency program and trainings. She commented "I am glad education is moving this way" and she was hopeful. Leigh went on to say "[it is] going to be hard" indicating change would be difficult because she was trying to be "social emotional" but her co-teachers were still making these demeaning remarks about students. Leigh was the only participant who shared detailed counter examples of culturally responsive teaching. Nicole mentioned advocating for her students and their parents when someone makes "an offhand remark" but did not share specific examples of the negative comments made or by whom.

Enacting Culturally Responsive Teaching. The second part of the research question asked about being able to enact culturally responsive teaching. Two themes emerged relating to the specific ways the participants had been able to demonstrate being culturally responsive through their actions: (a) having a shared language and (b) building relationships. Dawn and Nicole provided more literal examples of having a shared language, when they said their school offered a translator for special education meetings with EL parents. Dawn even mentioned how her school, that serviced a large EL population, sent home written materials in different languages. She also commented on the translation feature they used in the online learning programs to help EL students understand the directions for completing those assignments. Caleb shared how he always wanted to speak to each student in their "heart language" meaning he always asked people to teach him how to say hello in their native language. Sarah offered a different example of having a shared language by changing the names used on assignments to names like the students in her classroom. She said, "there's no John's or Sally's that go to our school." She wanted to make the students feel their names were not that complicated and could be on a school assignment. Recognizing students' body language was also brought up by Dawn, who said she watched how the students entered the classroom each morning. Nicole stressed she was a big proponent of "talking to students like they are people." Even though her students were in elementary school, she felt it was important not to "talk at them" or "talk down to them" but she felt it was important to speak with them in a manner like they are capable of understanding.

Most examples shared about building relationships by the participants were related to relationships with their students. After attending a training at her school, Sarah came up with the idea of having a calendar of events. Each month the students were allowed to update the calendar with dates of special events such as their birthday, games, concerts, and plays. Sarah and her

mentor then recognized the students in class on their birthday and supported them by attending their after-school activities. Sarah was also excited about her new idea "the fridge", where she used whiteboard space to post samples of student's work from that week. Leigh and her co-teacher did "about me" slides during the beginning of the school year to get to know students. She would ask them about the type of music they liked or allowed them to show her videos of them dancing on their cell phones. Caleb's approach to building relationships was to "get permission to be in their space." To build relationships with what he called "the high behavior flyers", he would go where they were which was in-school suspension or the resource room. He said those students attracted him because he spent a lot of time outside the principal's office as a kid. Caleb also extended his relationship building to the parents. He developed a system of calling home to brag on students who were being compliant which for him meant being prepared for class or sitting down and doing their work. These calls were made during class while all students were present, so this created a system of what he referred to as "currency" because then other students wanted to earn good calls home too. Caleb joked that "I end up having a better phone book than [the school's database] has of the most important number for each kid." Realizing that these parents typically did not answer calls from the school, he setup a Google Voice account to make those calls. Shawntel wanted the students in her classroom to understand "we are a community" and helped them understand they need to show respect for each other because "we are family." She felt the students viewed her as "the mom" and they talked and discussed issues they were facing. Each class started with "good times, bad times, anytime" which allowed students to share whatever they wanted about their personal lives with the entire class. For some issues she spent a few minutes discussing it with the students because it was important for her to have "whole children." Shawntel recognized if they were mentally focused

on things happening in their lives, students would not be able to learn Biology, so she tried to put those issues to rest before starting a lesson.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the results presented in order of the study's research questions. The process for cleaning the quantitative data was described along with demographic data on the survey respondents ($N = 24$). A detailed description of the six participants interviewed was included to provide context. Results from the quantitative survey data revealed there was no statistically significant difference between teacher candidates and new teachers from urban immersive residency programs and teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. Results from the qualitative interviews revealed teacher candidates from one urban immersive residency program identified several program resources that helped them understand culturally responsive teaching. Five themes emerged from the qualitative data on how teacher candidates developed and enacted their understanding of culturally responsive teaching. These results can be categorized into three findings, the first is that teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs and those from traditional programs have moderate CRTSE beliefs. Secondly, the urban immersive residency program provided a community of practice for teacher candidates that supported their culturally responsive teaching development. Third, the urban immersive program residents' perspectives showed clear understanding of culturally responsive teaching. In the next chapter, I discuss these findings and include the study's implications and limitations.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter begins with an overview of the purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods study along with the research design and research questions. Then I provide a summary of the results from the data analysis shared in chapter four. A discussion of the findings follows which includes my interpretation of how the qualitative results support the quantitative results and the relationships to extant literature about culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) and teacher preparation. Lastly, implications for teacher preparation and further research will be explained along with this study's limitations.

Dissertation Overview

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to compare the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in residency programs to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs, as well as understanding several teacher candidates' perceptions about how their understanding of culturally responsive teaching was influenced by aspects of the one urban immersive residency program they attended. Urban immersive residency programs offer an intensive field experience along with university coursework. Because of the various support systems built-in, I used situated learning theory to position the urban immersive residency program as a community of practice for teacher candidates. Twenty-four participants from urban immersive residency programs within the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) network completed the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) survey (Siwatu, 2007). Based on this study's criteria 19 participants were classified as teacher candidates because they had less than nine months of experience in the urban immersive field residency and five were classified as new teachers with more than nine months of urban

immersive residency experience. Survey participants were asked if they would be willing to sit for an in-depth interview, and six teacher candidates volunteered. The six interviewees were from one urban immersive residency program in the Southeastern United States. Using the survey results, a mean CRTSE strength index was calculated for each participant and these data were used to determine a 95% confidence interval (CI). The 95% CIs were plotted to answer research questions one and two. The six interviews were coded for themes to address research question three. The research questions that guided this study are:

1) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

2) How does the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) of new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program compare to teacher candidates in traditional preparation programs?

3) What aspects of teacher candidates' urban immersive residency program contributed to their perceived ability to understand and enact culturally responsive teaching?

Summary of Results

To answer research question one a visual comparison was made of the 95% CI of the mean CRTSE strength index between the current study and 21 previous studies on teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. These data from the 21 previous studies on CRTSE were from a literature synthesis conducted by Young and Young (2021). In their literature synthesis, Young and Young (2021) determined the plausible range for teacher candidate's CRTSE to be between 70 and 83. Because the participants in these 21 studies were from traditional preparation programs, this range is the expected population parameter for the

mean CRTSE of teacher candidates. For research question one, the graph showed there was no statistically significant difference between the mean CRTSE for the teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs and teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. The 95% CI for the strength indices for the 19 teacher candidates intersected with the expected range of 70 to 83. The same data from Young and Young (2021) was used to answer research question two but for this analysis the strength indices for the five new teachers was calculated. Comparing the 95% CI for the five new teachers in this study to the 21 previous studies revealed there was no statistically significant difference. The 95% CI for the five new teachers who completed an urban immersive residency program intersected with the expected range of 70 to 83 for teacher candidates from traditional programs. While the quantitative results were not significant, the qualitative results were rich and paint a very different picture about the importance of urban immersive residency programs. Research question three was answered using the interview data. During the semi-structured interviews, participants named different parts of the urban immersive residency program that helped them become confident in being culturally responsive teachers. Being more self-reflective, accepting new classroom dynamics, and learning through counterexamples were the three themes that emerged to explain how the participants started to understand culturally responsive teaching. Two themes described how the participants demonstrated being culturally responsive: (a) building relationships and (b) having a shared language. These themes further support how the participants developed and enacted culturally responsive practices and contribute to the interpretation of the results.

Discussion of Findings

CRTSE of Residency Teacher Candidates

The results of this study provide information on the CRTSE beliefs of teacher candidates in an urban immersive residency program and what elements within the program helped develop these CRTSE beliefs. The CRTSE strength indices of the teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs ranged from 17.59 to 99.14 with a mean score of 68.66 ($SD =$ 22.64). The respondent with the lowest score of 17.59 entered 0 for over half of the questions meaning they had no confidence at all in their ability to complete that specific task. Because this score was so low, it was examined to determine if it was an outlier; it was five-tenths of a point away but not an outlier. Comparing the 95% CI for the teacher candidates in the urban immersive residency program [57.74, 79.57] to the expected CRTSE range of 70 to 83 determined by Young and Young (2021) found there was an intersection. This intersection indicates there is not a statistically significance difference in the mean CRTSE scores of teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs and traditional programs. The mean CRTSE strength index for this sample ($M = 68.66$) was 1.34 below the lower boundary. Over half of the participant's average CRTSE strength indices were below the lower boundary of 70 determined by Young and Young (2021). Using the scale created by Siwatu (2007) this sample of teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs were moderately confident in their ability to complete the specific culturally responsive teaching tasks. These results might be expected because at the time they completed the CRTSE survey most of the participants ($n = 11$) had been in their urban immersive residency no more than three months. Mastery experiences are the greatest efficacy building sources Bandura (1977) and at this early stage in their urban immersive residency programs the teacher candidates start off as observers and helpers in the classroom. During her interview, Shawntel shared that the students viewed her as a helper and

were adjusting to her being their teacher. At the time of the interview, Shawntel had been in the urban immersive residency for five months and was just starting to take on full teaching responsibilities in the classroom. At the beginning of the urban immersive residency most of teacher candidates are observers, so they must rely on other efficacy building sources: vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, or emotional arousal. When they completed the survey these teacher candidates were less than halfway through their urban immersive residency and based on Shawntel's experience, they would be taking on more responsibility midway through their placement. The findings suggest teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs have moderate CRTSE beliefs which is the same as teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. However, most of the teacher candidates in this study were less than halfway through their urban immersive residency placement, so it is assumed their CRTSE beliefs may increase over time. Based on the results from studies by Cruz et al. (2020) and Thomas et al. (2020) these teacher candidates have the chance to develop their efficacy for culturally responsive teaching beliefs as they spend more time in their field placement. Thomas et al. (2020) conducted a pre- and post-analysis of the CRTSE beliefs of teacher candidates and found they had a statistically significant increase after a 16-week community-engaged program. Cruz et al. (2020) found that CRTSE beliefs increased with each year of teaching experience. So, with a nine-month residency placement and more mastery experiences, it would be expected that the CRTSE beliefs for the teacher candidates in this study to grow as well.

CRTSE Beliefs of New Teachers

The CRTSE strength indices for the new teachers who had completed an urban immersive residency program ranged from 69.22 to 96.07 with a mean score of 79.42. The 95% CI was calculated to be [65.76, 93.08] which intersected with the expected range for teacher

candidates of 70 to 83 determined by Young and Young (2021). This intersection indicates there is no statistically significant difference between new teachers who completed urban immersive residency programs mean CRTSE strength indices and what is expected of teacher candidates. The mean CRTSE strength index for the new teachers ($M = 79.42$) was closer to the upper boundary of 83 and using Siwatu's (2007) scale indicates they were very confident. Young and Young (2021) suggested doing an item-specific analysis when the mean CRTSE strength index is higher than 78. Because these new teachers are very confident in their CRTSE beliefs an item-specific analysis will provide information on what areas they need to strengthen. Examining the item-specific averages, the new teachers in this study scored the lowest in being able to: (a) design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics ($M = 32.8$); (b) teach students about their cultures' contribution to science ($M = 51$); and (c) model classroom tasks to enhance English Learners' (ELs) understanding ($M = 52$).

Findings suggest new teachers who completed urban immersive residency programs are very confident in their overall CRTSE beliefs, but they are least confident in modelling for EL students and designing math and science lessons that relate to different cultures. The items with the lowest mean CRTSE scores for this study are consistent with Ostendorf (2015) dissertation study on the CRTSE beliefs of special education teachers. Data from this study's interviews affirmed some of the issues the special education teachers had with the mathematics content and working with EL students. In her interview, Leigh a special education teacher who co-taught middle school mathematics said, "if I am with a smaller group and I am aware of the content and I feel more confidence with that part, then I feel like I am definitely more engaging with the students." In this statement she was referring to her understanding of the mathematics content and earlier in the interview admitted sometimes she struggled with it. New special education

teachers like Leigh who struggle with understanding the mathematics content may not know how to incorporate cultural groups' contributions into a lesson. Based on Leigh's explanation of her schedule, she spent most of her day co-teaching mathematics inclusion classes and had one class for resource. Chu and Garcia (2014) analyzed teaching assignments of K-12 special education teachers and their CRTSE scores and found those with higher scores taught in resource classes. In resource classes, special education teachers can set their own rules versus inclusion classes where they may feel they are following the general education teacher's lead. In chapter four there is an example of how Leigh had an issue with her co-teacher's no talking policy, so she wrestled with fully enforcing it. For a special education teacher like Leigh that struggles with the mathematics content plus feels they lack a voice in the classroom policies, then it is understandable why they would be less confident in certain culturally responsive teaching tasks. The same low CRTSE score would also be expected for a special education teacher who struggled in science.

Besides struggling with content specific items, the lowest CRTSE beliefs for teachers in this study was related to enhancing EL student's understanding. During her interview Nicole, a special education teacher who taught in an elementary school mentioned wanting to be able to communicate more with people in different languages. She thought "learning languages [was] a good way to be able to understand the culture and understand where people are coming from or at least their thought process." Nicole's desire to learn different languages might be a good idea because Chu and Garcia (2014) found a positive association between CRTSE scores and multi-lingual teachers. These results from Chu and Garcia (2014) make perfect sense because being multi-lingual allows a teacher to remove the language barrier and focus on building relationships

with students just as Nicole wanted. The participants in this study that described teaching a high

population of EL students did not report they were multi-lingual.

Linking Theory in the Community of Practice

The six participants interviewed for this study credited different components of their

urban immersive residency program to their understanding of culturally responsive teaching.

These components made up the community of practice that exists within their urban immersive

residency program. A community of practice has three key characteristics: a domain,

community, and the practice Wenger (1998). Although, the participants did not use the term

"community of practice" or may not be aware of it, they identified these key characteristics when

they shared what parts of the urban immersive residency program helped them understand

culturally responsive teaching. The overall domain of the urban immersive residency program is

the structure of the partnership between the school districts and the university. Both the

university and school districts have a common goal of producing culturally responsive teachers

who are committed to staying in the classroom. While the domain of the urban immersive

residency program was not specifically stated by interviewees, they had signed a contract

indicating they understood the program's expectations. Findings from the interviews show the

teacher candidates identified several people as their community and additional practices as the

resources that helped them with culturally responsive teaching. Again, I theorized using my

conceptual framework graphic (see Figure 6). This conceptual framework graphic is updated

with specific elements from the community of practice mentioned by the participants during their

interviews. Members of the community included the mentor teacher, other school staff, the

cohort of teacher candidates, and university faculty. The examples shared in this study

demonstrate how the members of the community were working towards a shared goal of helping

the teacher candidates improve their instructional practice and become culturally responsive classroom teachers. Additional trainings, readings, and the racial affinity groups were identified as part of the shared resources or practice that supported teacher candidates in the urban immersive residency program.

Figure 6

Updated Conceptual Framework with Community of Practice Elements
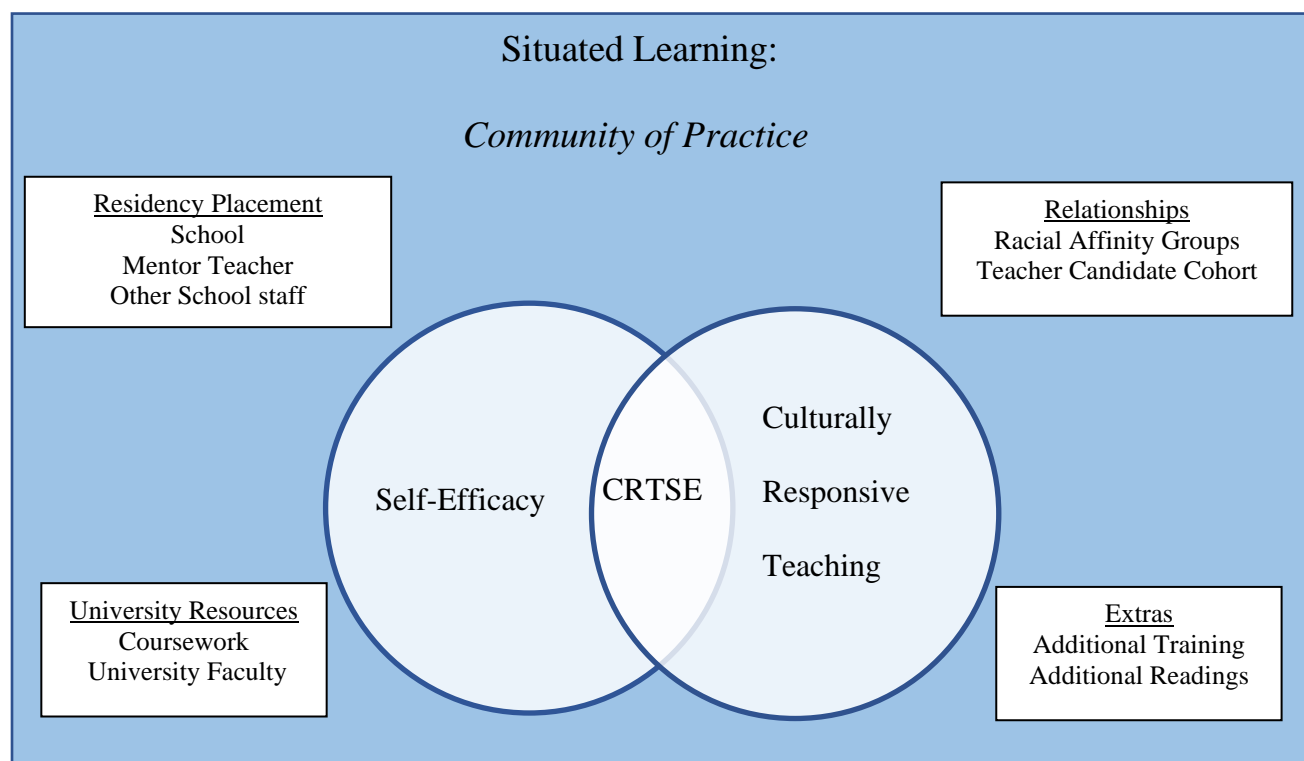
These findings are more extensive than those of Mourlam et al. (2019) where teacher candidates identified the residency field placement, mentor teacher, university faculty, and coursework as the key elements that impacted their development. Mourlam et al. (2019) believed the link between the university coursework and the field residency created a community of practice. The urban immersive residency programs in this study meet the criteria for being a community of practice as well and findings suggest the teacher candidates bridged theory to practice. Jimenez-

Silva and Olson (2012) discovered conducting a case study with one EL student helped teacher candidates in their learning community link theory to practice. The researchers found the case study allowed the teacher candidates to develop their teacher identity and envision how they would work with EL students in their future classrooms. While the current study does not focus on teacher identity, examples shared during the interviews show how the mentor teacher's guidance and interactions with the students in the classroom made teacher candidates reflect on how they needed to change and better align their actions with the theories being taught. Two themes emerged from the interviews: (a) being self-reflective and (b) accepting new classroom dynamics, which describe how the participants changed. Caleb compared all the information he was receiving about culturally responsive teaching to learning a new language. At first, he struggled to accept culturally responsive practices, but he realized languages evolve over time and so should he. Shawntel learned from her mentor, the "old timer" Lave and Wenger (1991) in the community of practice, that yelling in the classroom was ineffective in getting students to listen. Based on her experiences in the classroom, Nicole started to "check" her own thoughts and realized she needed to help students understand how certain behaviors were wrong. Her initial thoughts were that the students should already know better but the training provided by the school made her realize they did not. Change can be difficult, but the teacher candidates in this study like those in Jimenez-Silva and Olson realized change was necessary. Unlike the teacher candidates in the study by Jimenez-Silva and Olson, those in the current study were able to put changes into action because of the urban immersive residency. The findings suggest resources in the community of practice helped teacher candidates realize they needed to adjust, and these adjustments showed they were putting theory into practice.

Efficacy Building Within the Community of Practice

The urban immersive residency provided interview participants a chance to have mastery experiences and be successful enacting culturally responsive teaching tasks. Two themes emerged that described how participants were able to be culturally responsive in the classroom: (a) having a shared language and (b) building relationships. Dawn and Nicole used translation resources provided by their schools so they could effectively communicate with EL parents during special education meetings. This translation service ensured these participants could have mastery experiences during special education meetings and they felt good about being able to meet the parents' needs. Sarah's idea of a shared language was changing the names on the instructional materials she presented to her classes. Gay (2002) suggested to develop culturally responsive teachers, then teacher candidates needed to analyze instructional materials for lack of cultural diversity and revise them. Working with her mentor, Sarah revised materials to better fit the students in her classroom. Sarah's mentor also assisted her with breaking down the science content in ways the students better understood. By teaching her to revise materials to include more cultural diversity, the mentor teacher was trying to create more mastery experiences for Sarah. The participants were not asked about other efficacy building sources, so they were not as easy to define. But the findings do reveal the participants had vicarious efficacy building experiences in the classroom. Shawntel mentioned observing her mentor teacher being successful with students without yelling, so she decided to change her tone. This vicarious experience allowed Shawntel to realize if her mentor had a good relationship with the students without yelling, she could too. Dawn liked reading the case studies because they offered real life examples. These case studies were another way the teacher candidates could build efficacy vicariously. Leigh was planning to use some of her co-teacher's suggestions when reviewing

mathematics in her resource class. She liked how this co-teacher worked with the students and using her suggestions indicated Leigh was hopeful she could get the same results when teaching her resource class. These findings suggest mastery and vicarious experiences contributed to the teacher candidates and new teachers CRTSE beliefs. Clark and Newberry (2019) reported a moderate correlation between three sources of efficacy and teacher candidates' sense of self-efficacy. These sources were verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and mastery experiences. While Bandura (1977) asserted mastery experiences as the greatest sources of efficacy, Clark and Newberry did not find much difference in the three efficacy sources. In the current study, self-efficacy for culturally responsive teaching tasks was measured and interview data explained how mastery and vicarious experiences contributed.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Most participants shared different ways they were building relationships with students and these examples fit within the three broad propositions of culturally responsive teaching: (a) conception regarding self and others, (b) social relations, and (c) conceptions of knowledge (Ladson-Billings, 1995b). Caleb understood his strengths and what he had to offer his students. He mentioned not being able to buy everyone a gift card or coach them baseball but knew he could tutor students in mathematics and take a few minutes to call home to brag on them. Shawntel wanted to ensure students in her classroom felt like they were family. Before starting instruction, she took time to ask about her students' lives because she thought it would help clear their minds and allow them to focus on the science content later. Leigh, a new teacher, struggled with some of her school's policies which she did not view as culturally responsive and enforcing these policies made her more authoritative than she would have liked to be. Still, Leigh tried to build connections with students by having them share videos with her and allowing them to talk

at the beginning of her resource class. Sarah was building a classroom community by creating the class social calendar and attending school events. She also offered incentives for the class with the highest test average; this encouraged collaboration among the students. Nicole was very passionate about advocating for her students and their parents. She shared her knowledge and offered a different perspective for those who talked down to students. In her opinion, elementary students were knowledgeable and should be talked to and treated as if they were capable of understanding. These participants were like the teachers in Brown's (2004) study; they developed personal relationships with students and created a caring classroom environment. Brown examined how urban teachers were culturally responsive in their classroom management strategies. The teachers in Brown's study treated students with respect and had open lines of communication and the same ideas were shared by teachers in this study. The findings indicate that through their actions, the participants were demonstrating they knew how to be culturally responsive teachers.

Limitations

This study is not without limitations. The small sample size of residency candidates does not represent the population of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency program within the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) network. The online survey did not collect data on the urban immersive residency program's location because CRTSE scores across residency programs was not being compared. Still, having the residency location would have been helpful information to better understand the sample. A larger sample size from more urban immersive residency program is needed for generalizability of the study's results. Interviewees for this study were from one urban immersive residency program, so this study lacks the criteria of balance (Grant & Lincoln, 2021); experiences may differ across programs, so additional

viewpoints are missing. Participation in this study could have been affected by the global COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the pandemic, teacher burnout was high and one of the stressors is anxiety related to teaching demands (Pressley, 2021). Asking teachers to complete a 41-item survey when some were adjusting to face-to-face instruction may have seemed like an additional demand. Eighteen people did not complete the online survey which was setup to display four questions at a time and if the respondents were on their cell phone it may have become too tedious to complete.

In my role as a teacher educator, I had previous interactions with all interviewees. Knowing that I had a working relationship with their program director some interview participants may have felt uncomfortable sharing certain information about their experiences.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study are relevant to urban immersive residency programs wanting to gain insight on their effectiveness to produce culturally responsive teachers. Urban immersive residency programs within the NCTR network have a mission of creating culturally responsive teachers but how do they measure it. The comments shared by Leigh indicate her school district was not implementing culturally responsive practices in all schools. Leigh's child who attended middle school in the same district had different policies and they were dealing with the same COVID-19 safety measures. These inconsistencies across the district were a source of internal conflict for Leigh who understood these policies went against what she had learned in the residency program. Effective urban immersive residency programs have strong school district and university partnerships where both parties are integrating a shared curriculum (Guha et al., 2016). Leigh's experience signals the beginning of a disconnect between the two parties and it was unclear if these policies were due to the COVID-19 protocols and would be adjusted later.

The comments made by Leigh's colleagues indicate districts with urban immersive residency partnerships may want to extend training beyond mentors and offer schoolwide trainings. If teacher candidates are going to be hired in the school where they complete their residency, then it would best service the partnership to have all teachers in the building aligned with the same goal.

Findings from the item-specific analysis of the CRTSE survey show urban immersive residency programs may need to ensure teacher candidates are being prepared in content specific culturally relevant practices. Although, special education teachers are not required to the teach mathematics or science, they are placed in co-teaching roles and must assist in these courses. Most urban immersive residency programs offer early career mentoring (Guha et al., 2016), so they may want to consider providing support on culturally responsive practices in mathematics and science for new teachers in these subjects and special education teachers assigned to co-teach in these subjects.

Modeling for EL students was another area of concern for the new teachers in this study. While it might not be reasonable to require all residency candidates be certified in EL, it may be feasible for programs to offer free training for those who want it. Nicole had a desire to learn and better support her EL students, so if her urban immersive residency program presented her with the opportunity to complete additional free training, she probably would have completed it. Another option is to require the training for teachers in schools like Dawn where there is a high population of EL students.

Based on the mean CRTSE strength indices for teacher candidates and new teachers, urban immersive residency programs are doing a good job preparing culturally responsive teachers. Even while in the early stages of their urban immersive residency, they are measuring

up to candidates from traditional preparation programs. Traditional preparation programs may want to examine how they can model some of the structures put in place by urban immersive residency programs to improve their programs.

Implications for Research

This study examined the CRTSE beliefs of teacher candidates in urban immersive residency programs and new teachers and compared them to teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. Longitudinal studies following teacher candidates as the progress through the program and get their own classrooms would likely reveal how CRTSE beliefs grow through the yearlong urban immersive placement and beyond. A longitudinal study following one cohort as they move through their urban immersive residency with an item-analysis would reveal how teacher candidate's confidence for specific culturally responsive tasks changed.

While most of this study's respondents were seeking certification in K-12 special education a comparison of urban immersive residency candidates across content areas is worthy of exploration. Urban immersive residency programs usually provide initial licensure in high needs areas: K-12 special, science, mathematics, and EL (Guha et al., 2017), so it would be interesting to know if those seeking licensure in science and mathematics are able to incorporate students' cultural contributions to their lessons. Item-analysis research on CRTSE showed teacher candidates are less confident in their ability to work with EL students (Cruz et al., 2020; Ostendorf, 2015; Siwatu, 2007), so studying how EL teacher candidates determine their CRTSE beliefs in these areas would be helpful for residency programs.

In this study qualitative data was collected through in-depth interviews, so classroom observations could add richness to a study. Field observations and field notes could provide specific details from the researcher's perspective on vicarious and mastery experiences. A mixed

methods study with each participant's CRTSE score along with interviews, field observations, and notes would add more information about the school environment, student population, and mentor teacher.

This study assumed the mentor teachers selected were culturally responsive in their practices and the teacher candidates were able to build efficacy through vicarious experiences. A comprehensive studying examining the CRTSE beliefs of teacher candidates, and their mentor teachers could reveal more information about vicarious experiences. If mentor teachers have lower CRTSE beliefs than their teacher candidates, then urban immersive residency programs may want to consider how they can better support mentors.

Conclusion

Based on the survey results, the teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs had moderate confidence in their CRTSE beliefs. The CRTSE beliefs of teacher candidates from urban immersive residency programs was not statistically different from the expected CRTSE range of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. New teachers who completed urban immersive residency programs had more confidence in their CRTSE beliefs than teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. Having already completed a yearlong urban immersive residency with more opportunities for efficacy building experiences it would be expected that the new teachers were more confident. Still, the CRTSE beliefs of the new teachers who had completed residency programs was not statistically different from the expected range of teacher candidates from traditional preparation programs. The urban immersive residency program created a community of practice where the participants gathered and shared knowledge about culturally responsive teaching. Different aspects of one urban immersive residency program created efficacy building opportunities that helped participants

become more confident in their own perceived ability to be culturally responsive. During the

interviews, participants were able to provide specific examples of how they were able to

demonstrate culturally responsive teaching practices in the classroom. These examples fit within

Ladson-Billings (1995b) three propositions of culturally responsive teaching. The participants in

this study understood culturally responsive teaching and their residency program provided the

community of practice needed to build their self-efficacy.

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APPENDIX A

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH

Physical Address
4111 Monarch Way, Suite 203
Norfolk, Virginia 23508
Mailing Address
Office of Research
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Fax(757) 683-5902

DATE: September 21, 2021

TO: Melva Grant, Ph.D
FROM: Old Dominion University Education Human Subjects Review Committee

PROJECT TITLE: [1800732-1] Examining the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy in a
                          Teacher Residency Program
REFERENCE #:
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE:

REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category #2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The Old Dominion University
Education Human Subjects Review Committee has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB
REVIEW according to federal regulations.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence within our records.

If you have any questions, please contact John Baaki at (757) 683-5491 or jbaaki@odu.edu. Please
include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Old Dominion
University Education Human Subjects Review Committee's records.

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT
OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY

(This information will be produced as text for use in online survey)

PROJECT TITLE: Examining the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy in a Teacher Residency Program

INTRODUCTION
The purposes of this form are to give you information that may affect your decision whether to say YES or NO to participation in this research, and to record the consent of those who say YES. This research will examine your culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy during your teacher residency program. All survey data will be collected online, and interviews will be completed via Zoom.

RESEARCHERS
Principal Investigator, Melva Grant, Ph.D., Associate Professor Darden College of Education and Professional Studies Department of Teaching and Learning
Investigator, Latanya Sutphin, Doctoral Candidate, Curriculum & Instruction, Darden College of Education and Professional Studies

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH STUDY
This research study seeks to examine the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy of teacher candidates in a residency program. The purpose of this research study is to examine how teacher candidate's culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy is affected as they move from peripheral to full participation in an urban field placement. I am asking that you complete the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) survey which should take about 15 minutes and then consider participating in a 30-minute interview. The CRTSE survey will ask you questions about your culturally responsive teaching practices. I am seeking your consent to take the CRTSE survey and then participate in a Zoom interview. I hope to have about 3000 teacher candidates from residency programs in the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) network complete this survey. Based on the feedback from the survey, I will then select around 12 respondents for the interviews. You have been selected because your programs focus on culturally responsive teaching practices. Teacher candidates who complete the CRTSE survey have the option to enter a drawing for one of four $25 Amazon e-gift cards.

If you choose YES (consent) then you will be taken to the CRTSE survey. Participation is voluntary and you can stop at any time by closing the survey and there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. If you complete the entire survey at the end, you have the option to enter a drawing for the $25 Amazon e-gift cards. To enter the drawing, you will be directed to another data collector where you enter your name, email address, and phone number. This separate data collector will also ask if you are willing to participate in an interview. To maintain anonymity, this data collector is not linked to your

CRTSE survey responses and your willingness to do an interview does not affect your chances in the drawing.

If you choose NO (not to consent) then you will not proceed to the survey and will exit the program.

EXCLUSIONARY CRITERIA
You should be currently enrolled in a teacher residency program or a recent graduate of a residency program. If you are a recent graduate of a teacher residency program, then you should not have more than 3 months of experience teaching full-time in your own classroom as that would keep you from participating in this study.

RISKS AND BENEFITS
RISKS: If you decide to participate in this study, then there is a risk that a release of confidential information can occur. However, the survey is administered using online software that protects all identifying information for respondents. If you choose to provide information for future contact, the information is not connected to any individual survey responses and cannot be connected manually by the research team. There is no risk of association between these data because of the technology being used by for survey administration. And, as with any research, there is some possibility that you may be subject to risks that have not yet been identified.

BENEFITS: There are no direct benefits.

COSTS AND PAYMENTS
The researchers want your decision about participating in this study to be voluntary. I am offering you a chance to win one of four $25 Amazon gift cards as a small incentive to participate and complete the survey. Once you have completed the survey, you will have the option to enter the drawing by providing your name, email address, and phone number. The contact information you provide will not be linked to your survey responses so that your anonymity will not be compromised.

NEW INFORMATION
If the researchers find new information during this study that would reasonably change your decision about participating, then they will give it to you.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The CRTSE survey is anonymous, meaning that your responses are not connected to you. Individual responses are confidential, meaning that no one will know how an individual responded. If a response includes identifying information, it will not be shared publicly.

WITHDRAWAL PRIVILEGE

It is OK for you to say NO (not consent) to this survey. Even if you say YES now, you are free to say NO later, and not participate in the survey or stop the survey at any time and there are no negative consequences. A NO decision by you will not affect your relationship with Old Dominion University, or otherwise cause a loss of benefits to which you might otherwise be entitled.

COMPENSATION FOR ILLNESS AND INJURY
If you say YES, then your consent in this document does not waive any of your legal rights. However, in the event of illness or injury arising from this study, neither Old Dominion University nor the researchers are able to give you any money, insurance coverage, free medical care, or any other compensation for such injury. In the event that you suffer injury as a result of participation in any research project, you may contact Dr. Melva Grant at the following phone number: 757-683-5725 or Latanya Sutphin at the following phone number: 757-472-9662, Dr. John Baaki the current IRB chair for DCEPS at 757-683-5491 at Old Dominion University, or the Old Dominion University Office of Research at 757-683-3460 who will be glad to review the matter with you.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT
By choosing YES (consent), you are saying several things. You are saying that you have read this form or have had it read to you, that you are satisfied that you understand this form, the research study, and its risks and benefits. The researchers should have answered any questions you may have had about the research. If you have any questions later on, then the researchers should be able to answer them:

Latanya Sutphin 757-472-9662
Dr. Melva Grant 757-683-5725

If at any time you feel pressured to participate, or if you have any questions about your rights or this form, then you should call Dr. John Baaki, the current IRB chair for DCEPS; jbaaki@odu.edu, 757-683-5491, or the Old Dominion University Office of Research, at 757-683-3460.

And importantly, by signing below, you are telling the researcher YES, that you agree to participate in this study. The researcher should give you a copy of this form for your records.

Please, select YES to indicate your decision to consent and take the survey or select NO to exit the survey without participating.

APPENDIX C

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
No Confidence At All					Moderately Confident					Completely Confident

I am able to:

_____ 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 Learner's 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.

_____ 41. teach students about their cultures' contributions to society.

APPENDIX D

TEXAS TECH UNIVERSITY
College *of* Education™

Permission To Use Instrument(s)

Dear Researcher:

You have my permission to use the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale, the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectations Scale, and/or the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scale in your research. A copy of the instruments are attached. Request for any changes or alterations to the instrument should be sent via email to kamau.siwatu@ttu.edu. When using the instrument(s) please cite accordingly.

- **Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale**

  Siwatu, K. O. (2007). Preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs. Teaching and Teacher Education, 23, 1086-1101.

- **Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectations Scale**

  Siwatu, K. O. (2007). Preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs. Teaching and Teacher Education, 23, 1086-1101.

- **Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scale**

  Siwatu, K. O., Putnam, M., Starker, T. V., & Lewis, C. (2015). The development of the culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy scale: Development and initial validation. *Urban Education.* Prepublished September 9, 2015.

Best wishes with your research.

Sincerely,

Kamau Oginga Siwatu, PhD
Professor of Educational Psychology

Box 41071 | Lubbock, Texas | 79409-1071 | T 806-834-5850 |F 806-742-2179

An EEO/Affirmative Action Institute

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

(This information will be emailed to participants before completing a Zoom interview)
OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY

PROJECT TITLE: Examining the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy in a Teacher Residency Program

INTRODUCTION
The purposes of this form are to give you information that may affect your decision whether to say YES or NO to participation in this research, and to record the consent of those who say YES. This research will examine your culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy during your teacher residency program. All interviews will be completed via Zoom.

RESEARCHERS
Principal Investigator, Melva Grant, Ph. D, Associate Professor Darden College of Education and Professional Studies Department of Teaching and Learning
Investigator, Latanya Sutphin, Doctoral Candidate, Curriculum & Instruction, Darden College of Education and Professional Studies

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH STUDY
This research study seeks to examine the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy of teacher candidates in a residency program. The purpose of this research study is to examine how teacher candidate's culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy is affected as they move from peripheral to full participation in an urban field placement. I am asking that you schedule a time to meet via Zoom so you can answer some interview questions about culturally responsive teaching. This interview should take about 30 – 40 minutes and I would like to record the Zoom meeting. Before sitting down for an interview, you must have completed the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) online survey portion of this research. I hope to have about 3000 teacher candidates from residency programs in the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR) network complete the CRTSE survey. Based on the feedback from the survey, I will then select around 12 respondents for the interviews.

If you choose YES (consent) then print and sign this form and email it back to me, then we will proceed to schedule a Zoom interview date and time. Participation is voluntary and you can stop the interview at any time and there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled.

If you choose NO (not to consent) then send me an email back indicating, you would not like to schedule a Zoom interview.

EXCLUSIONARY CRITERIA

You should have completed the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) scale prior to interview if not that would keep you from participating in an interview for this study. By first completing the CRTSE means you were currently enrolled in a teacher residency program or a recent graduate of a residency program. If you are a recent graduate of a teacher residency program, then at the time of your CRTSE survey submission you did not have more than 3 months of experience teaching full-time in your own classroom.

RISKS AND BENEFITS
RISKS: If you decide to participate in this study, there is a risk that a release of confidential information can occur. Pseudonyms will be used for people and their affiliated institutions, and locations will be described and not named specifically when reporting findings related to interview data. The actual interview data will be stored on ODU password protected storage and only accessible to the CRTSE researchers who have been and continue to be trained about the proper handling of human subjects' data. And, as with any research, there is some possibility that you may be subject to risks that have not yet been identified.

BENEFITS: There are no direct benefits.

COSTS AND PAYMENTS
The researchers want your decision about participating in this study to be absolutely voluntary. The researchers are unable to give you any payment for participating in the interview portion of this study.

NEW INFORMATION
If the researchers find new information during this study that would reasonably change your decision about participating, then they will give it to you.

CONFIDENTIALITY
The researchers will take reasonable steps to keep private information, such as your name or age range confidential. The researcher will keep your identity confidential by using pseudonyms or codes when referencing data connected with you to reduce risks of your anonymity being compromised. These data will be secured on ODU password protected storage devices and if information is printed it will be locked in filing cabinets. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, and publications; but you will not be identified. Of course, your records may be subpoenaed by court order or inspected by government bodies with oversight authority.

WITHDRAWAL PRIVILEGE
It is OK for you to say NO. Even if you say YES now, you are free to say NO later, and walk away or withdraw from the study -- at any time. Your decision will not affect your relationship with Old Dominion University, or otherwise cause a loss of benefits to which you might otherwise be entitled.

COMPENSATION FOR ILLNESS AND INJURY

If you say YES, then your consent in this document does not waive any of your legal rights. However, in the event of illness or injury from this study, neither Old Dominion University nor the researchers are able to give you any money, insurance coverage, free medical care, or any other compensation for such injury. In the event that you suffer injury as a result of participation in any research project, you may contact the Responsible Principal Investigator, Dr. Melva Grant at (757) 683-5725 the investigator, Latanya Sutphin at (757) 472-9662, Dr. John Baaki the current IRB chair for DCEPS at 757-683-5491 at Old Dominion University, or the Old Dominion University Office of Research at 757-683-3460 who will be glad to review the matter with you.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT

By signing this form, you are saying several things. You are saying that you have read this form or have had it read to you, that you are satisfied that you understand this form, the research study, and its risks and benefits. The researchers should have answered any questions you may have had about the research. If you have any questions later on, then the researchers should be able to answer them:

Latanya Sutphin 757-472-9662
Dr. Melva Grant 757-683-5725

If at any time you feel pressured to participate, or if you have any questions about your rights or this form, then you should call Dr. John Baaki, the current IRB chair for DCEPS; jbaaki@odu.edu, 757-683-5491, or the Old Dominion University Office of Research, at 757-683-3460.

And importantly, by signing below, you are telling the researcher YES, that you agree to participate in this study. The researcher should give you a copy of this form for your records.

Subject's Printed Name & Signature	**Date**
Parent / Legally Authorized Representative's Printed Name & Signature (If applicable)	**Date**

INVESTIGATOR'S STATEMENT

I certify that I have explained to this subject the nature and purpose of this research, including benefits, risks, costs, and any experimental procedures. I have described the rights and protections afforded to human subjects and have done nothing to pressure, coerce, or falsely entice this subject into participating. I am aware of my obligations under state and federal laws and promise compliance. I have answered the subject's questions and have encouraged him/her to ask additional questions at any time during the course of this study. I have witnessed the above signature(s) on this consent form.

Investigator's Printed Name & Signature	**Date**

APPENDIX F

Pre-Interview Script:
You were sent a copy of the consent form for this research study. You have returned a signed copy of this consent form, but before we proceed do you have any questions about the consent form?
(If yes, the researcher will address any questions).
If no, then ask: *Do you consent to this interview being recorded?*
If yes, before I start recording, please change your name to a pseudonym you would like me to use when referring to you in my documents.
If no, then the researcher will take ample notes.

Interview Protocol

Rapport Building Questions:
How are you doing today?
So, tell me what were you doing before you were accepted in the residency program?

Background Questions:
1) When is your expected graduation date from the program? How long have you been in the K-12 residency?
2) What grade level and subject are you working in?

Interview Questions:

3) In your own words, what is culturally responsive teaching?
4) How did you develop this understanding of culturally responsive teaching?
5) Give a few examples of how you were able to be culturally responsive in your classroom teaching?
6) How long did it take you to become comfortable with incorporating these practices in your lessons?
7) When you completed the survey, you indicated your culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy was _____, so what would you like to improve? Why?
8) What part of your teacher residency program helped build your confidence in your ability to be culturally responsive?

Demographic Questions:
9) What is your race?
10) Pick a range that identifies your age: 21– 24, 25 – 29, 30 – 34, 35 – 39, 40 – 44, 45 – 49, 50 – 54, 55 – 59, 60 – 64, 65+
Follow-Up Questions:
Can you share anything else about culturally responsive teaching that we may not have covered?
Can you say more about that?

VITA

NAME: Latanya Sutphin

EDUCATION:

2017— Present:	Ph.D. Curriculum & Instruction, Old Dominion University, VA. Expected Graduation May 2022.
2014 - 2015:	M.Ed. Curriculum & Instruction Mathematics, Concordia University-Portland, OR [online].
2006 – 2008:	M.S. Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Florida, FL [online].
2003—2004:	B.S. Chemistry, Old Dominion University, VA.
1999—2002:	B.S. Physics, Emory & Henry College, VA.

EXPERIENCE:

2016— Present:	Master Teacher, MonarchTeach Program, Old Dominion University, VA.
2011—2016:	Mathematics Teacher, Amherst County High School, Amherst, VA.
2009—2011:	Mathematics Teacher, Battlefield High School, Haymarket, VA.
2005—2008:	Mathematics & Physics Teacher, Windsor High School, Windsor, VA.

LICENSURE:

2018 – 2023:	Collegiate Professional License ─ Commonwealth of Virginia

PUBLICATIONS:
Refereed Articles

Ferguson, S., & Sutphin, L. (2021). Analyzing the impact on teacher preparedness as a result of using Mursion as a risk-free microteaching experience for pre-service teachers. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*. https://doi.org/10.1177/00472395211067731

Ferguson, S., & Sutphin, L. (2019). Pre-service STEM teachers' views of teaching before and after their first lesson. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *13*(2), 14.

Peer-Reviewed Presentations

Ferguson, S. & Sutphin, L. (2018, May). *Exploring step 1 students' views of teaching.* Presentation at the Annual UTeach Conference, Austin, TX.

Ferguson, S. & Sutphin, L. (2021, June). *Using Mursion simulations to build step 1 students' confidence.* Presentation at the Annual UTeach Conference [virtual], Austin, TX.