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Addressing the Preparedness to Implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards

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ADDRESSING THE PREPAREDNESS TO IMPLEMENT THE ILLINOIS CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING AND LEADING STANDARDS

by

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how many people were in my corner from start to finish. Thank you to each and every one of you for playing an integral role in the completion of this project.

ABSTRACT

This is a quantitative study designed to assess the beliefs of teachers as they relate to the preparedness levels to successfully implement culturally responsive pedagogy. With a new mandate for Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards in Illinois, educators and district leaders must now prepare for state-wide implementation by October 2025. Currently, many pre-service teachers are receiving training in this area. In-service teachers, however, may lack learning experiences regarding culturally responsive teaching. In addition to this population, rural educators without exposure to diverse populations lack authentic experiential opportunities to build culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy. Though vicarious learning experiences are a valid alternative for these teachers, this may not prove to be an adequate substitute for building culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. The researcher explored a sample of current Illinois K-12 in-service educators (n = 179) using three scales: the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE), Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) and Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy (CRCME) scales created by Siwatu (2007) and Siwatu et al. (2015). This study addressed the influence of factors such as age, gender, and teaching location on Illinois educators' beliefs and readiness to implement the Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. Findings indicated that CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME scores were positively correlated and that an educator's understanding of cultural assets vs. deficits resulted in an increase in CRTSE. Additionally, age and teaching location were not found as predictors of CRTSE.

Keywords: Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy, Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards, CRTSE, CRTOE, CRCME

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CRCME	Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy
CRT	Culturally Responsive Teaching
CRTLS	Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards
CRTOE	Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy
CRTSE	Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy
ELL	English Language Learner
ESSA	Every Student Succeeds Act
IDLRTN	Illinois Diverse and Learner-Ready Teacher Network
IHE	Illinois Higher Education
ISBE	Illinois State Board of Education
JCAR	Joint Committee on Administrative Rules
LEA	Local Education Agency
MA SEL-TEd	Massachusetts Consortium for Social Emotional Learning in Teacher Education
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
SEM	Social Emotional Learning
TDM	Tailored Design Method
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly changing educational landscape, providing equitable opportunities for all students is critical. Students who belong to marginalized populations endure continuing disadvantages relating to the majority culture whose values, language, and behaviors are imposed on those not considered within that designation. These individuals may also be excluded from accessing a variety of resources and societal opportunities. Because of the reality of an unequal balance of power, discrimination continues to persist (Henkel, 2004). Among countless other types of educational divides, achievement gaps regarding racial, educational, cultural, and digital factors continue to widen (Dallavis, 2011; Gillborn, 2014; Gormley & McDermott, 2014; Howard, 2010; Kretchmar & Zeichner, 2016; Malo-Juvera et al., 2018). As this occurs, students from various groups experience lower rates of academic achievement, career prospects, and other life goals in general (Gay, 2002). The concept of P-20 education involves a focus upon the continuum of learning from birth through a person's career (and beyond), commonly conceptualized as a pipeline. As such, P-20 leaders and educators must focus upon narrowing these discrepancies, especially for members of groups negatively affected by the inequitable distribution of educational opportunities and a lack of potential benefits afforded by advantageous experiences and possibilities.

One approach P-20 leaders and educators can exercise to lessen various educational divides is to embrace students' cultural capital, thus placing increased value upon the cultural backgrounds and experiences of all individuals (Goldenberg, 2013). To some, this may pose a daunting task. Yet educators should not be expected to exhibit perfection nor omniscience in their knowledge about their students (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2017). Instead, they need to

pursue solutions that lessen cultural inequalities in the classroom. This can be achieved through a commitment to learning about historical elements and culturally developed skills and knowledge bases that provide individuals and family units with the ability to function conditionally within a culture (Howard, 2010; Moll et al., 1992).

When the type of classroom environment an educator provides is one that clearly conveys respect for all students' cultures, including an educational climate conducive to all learners, this exhibits cultural responsiveness (Codrington, 2014; Gay, 2003). This pedagogical approach "empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (Ladson-Billings, 1994, pp. 17-18). Influential scholars utilizing culturally responsive teaching assert that culturally responsive approaches aide in connecting students with their lives outside of the school environment in ways that increase access to academic skills (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995a; Gay, Paris & Alim, 2014; Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). These instructional approaches not only acknowledge cultural diversity but provide cultural respect for students' identities and knowledge bases, thus embracing cultural capital (Ladson-Billings, 1995a; Paris, 2012; Vass, 2017). Building upon students' cultural capital is effective when educators aspire to improve the learning environment and increase rates of student involvement and achievement (Au & Mason, 1981; Giouroukakis & Honigsfeld, 2010; Vyas, 2004).

Recent scholarship has shown that preservice education programs across the nation are incorporating instruction and training regarding culturally responsive teaching practices into their programs with the intent of embracing this approach (Donahue-Keegan et al., 2019; Kretchmar & Zeichner, 2016). The inclusion of these practices is relevant for incoming educators in the profession, but this does not address current practicing educators, especially those who received

educational degrees from institutions prior to the time when those programs began incorporating direct instruction on culturally responsive teaching pedagogy. Realistically, as integrating instruction on culturally responsive teaching is not nationally mandated at this time, not all institutions have necessarily implemented this type of training. Given that members of this teaching population have not received instruction in this area, the question remains whether individuals from this category personally feel prepared to incorporate culturally responsive teaching methods in their classrooms.

Another relevant population to consider regarding this focus consists of educators who teach in areas with low levels of diversity among students, especially considering race and ethnicity. These geographic locations such as rural districts simply may not provide exposure to diverse factors which can therefore create a lack of experiential learning opportunities on both the parts of teachers and students (Kolb, 1984). This, too, is not widely addressed in the existing literature.

The scope of concentration in scholarship is not wide enough when considering teachers' preparedness to successfully incorporate culturally responsive teaching and leading. Focusing on the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy of in-service (or seasoned/veteran) teachers and those providing instruction in rural areas should also occur along with the current focus on pre-service teachers and those teaching in urban areas. This can result in a more comprehensive understanding of the needs of teachers tasked with implementing culturally responsive teaching and leading standards.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the preparedness and self-efficacy levels of educators tasked with complying with a new state mandate and its directives in Illinois, as

Illinois educators currently face the approaching implementation date for the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE)'s set of culturally responsive teaching and leading standards (see Appendix A). As previously indicated, integrating culturally responsive teaching practices is not federally mandated at this time. However, following the federal government's authorization of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 2015, all states are required to "advance equity by upholding critical protections for America's disadvantaged and high-need students" (United States Department of Education, 2022, para. 8). In response to upholding this law, state leaders and educators in Illinois formed the Illinois Diverse and Learner-Ready Teacher Network (IDLRTN) as part of compliance with ESSA initiatives (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b).

At its inception, members of IDLRTN chose to focus primarily on Illinois teacher candidates' ability to support and empower their students without discrimination (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b). This network was then responsible for providing recommendations for Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards (CRTLS) to the Illinois State Board of Education (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b). Following IDLRTN's recommendations, Illinois's Joint Committee on Administrative Rules (JCAR) officially added to the Administrative Code for Illinois schools in 2021 regarding Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards for all Illinois Educators (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021). The standards address the relationship between students, families, communities, and the educational environment (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021).

With the new addition to the Administrative Code by JCAR came the consent for the state board to require implementation of the standards by October 2025 (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021). Based on the guidance from the IDLRTN, this constituted the incorporation of instruction on culturally responsive pedagogy in all Illinois higher education institutions. Now,

with the implementation deadline nearing, it is imperative for P-20 leaders, those tasked with the seamless integration of learning across a continuum, to determine the needs of Illinois educators.

Making determinations in this area could potentially allow for professional development opportunities for educators relevant to these needs. Ultimately, the goal of this research was to aid leaders in determining localized needs for professional development and provide guidance for the successful implementation of the Illinois Culturally Relevant Teaching and Learning Standards.

Framework

The theoretical framework for this quantitative study originates in Bandura's (1977) work with social cognitive theory on self-efficacy and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The culturally responsive teaching theory (Gay, 2003) along with the theory of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2007) were also part of the theoretical and conceptual framework for this study. These theories were used to describe teachers' levels of preparedness to implement culturally responsive teaching.

Social Cognitive Theory on Self-Efficacy

Due to the focus on teachers' beliefs in their ability to implement culturally responsive teaching and leading, Bandura's (1977) research on social cognitive theory was utilized as a theoretical framework. Within the social cognitive theory on self-efficacy, Bandura argued that individuals with high self-efficacy believe in themselves and exhibit high performance while the opposite is true of those with low self-efficacy, stating that individuals who do lack confidence in themselves end up with lower performance rates. Bandura stated that when an individual can believe in his/her own capabilities, one's specific determined goals can then be attained. Researchers frequently utilize this theory to identify people's beliefs in their capabilities to

exercise control over their own functioning and events that affect their lives (Evans, 2017; Hawke, 2022; Sarker, 2012; Wilkins, 2020).

Bandura's (1977) theory explained that one's level of self-efficacy can provide the foundation for motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. Bandura also posited that individuals create composite views of self and self-worth based off their own backgrounds and experiences. Bandura even stated that individuals with strong levels of self-efficacy consequently set higher goals for themselves and display a stronger sense of commitment to those goals. This theory was used to guide an understanding of teachers' own beliefs and the potential impact(s) of those convictions on their contextual instructional practices which ultimately impact overall student achievement.

Sociocultural Theory

Since this research also contained a focus on social and cultural contexts, Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory was utilized as a second part of the theoretical framework in the study. Vygotsky explained that cultural conditions directly contribute to an individual's development, showing that learning is primarily a social practice that becomes internalized. His sociocultural theory also provided the construct of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), the "space between what a learner can do without assistance and what a learner can do with adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). The ZPD provides context for teachers to use scaffolding to maximize learning and mastery. Given that P-20 educators and leaders exist as agents within the concept of the ZPD, embracing students' cultural capital and funds of knowledge becomes an important part of maximizing learning among all students. The present study used Vygotsky's research on the effects of society and culture on learning, especially concerning diverse populations of students.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

The theory of culturally responsive teaching also provided a foundation of the study's framework. Gay (2003) stated that educators who provide an environment where students are culturally respected demonstrate this practice. Culturally responsive teaching theory is grounded in prioritizing differentiated teaching methods to fit the cultural needs of all students (Gay, 2003) and embodying a willingness to listen, reflect, and celebrate the value that diverse factors offer (Howard, 2010). Ladson-Billings (1995b) stated that this type of pedagogy assists in building cultural competence and academic student achievement, but this is dependent upon a teacher's culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE).

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE)

The study also utilized CRTSE, which expands on the concept of teacher self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) defined teacher self-efficacy as a "teacher's belief in his or her ability to organize and execute the course of action needed to successfully complete a teaching task in a particular circumstance" (p. 22). Drawing on this concept and scholarship on culturally responsive teaching, Siwatu (2007) designated culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy as a separate entity distinguished by addressing a teacher's belief in his or her individual ability to provide instruction in a culturally appropriate and responsive way.

The research for this quantitative study was completed using data obtained by administering a three-part survey. The first was the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self Efficacy (CRTSE) scale, an instrument developed by Siwatu (2007) and aimed at discerning teachers' beliefs in their ability to effectively execute duties, obligations, and potentially stressful situations related to their professional pursuits (Siwatu, 2011). The second was the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) scale, an instrument also developed by

Siwatu (2007) and aimed at gathering information about preservice teachers' beliefs about culturally responsive instructional practices in correlation with student behavior and outcomes (Siwatu, 2007). The third survey was the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy (CRCME) scale, an instrument developed by Siwatu et al. (2015). This instrument seeks to elicit a confidence rating in teachers' abilities to manage student behaviors in a culturally responsive manner. Combined, this multi-faceted instrument drew upon the overall theory of culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy.

Research Questions

A primary research question was created that provided overall guidance for this study: What is the relationship between factors such as an educator's years of experience or regional location and his/her preparedness to implement culturally responsive teaching and leading standards? The following research questions were then developed to address the primary research question:

RQ1: What is the relationship between educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy and their implementation of culturally responsive teaching and leading standards? This was measured using three scales that asked respondents to rate their confidence levels regarding educational tasks utilizing a Likert type format on a range of 0-100 with 0 representing no confidence and 100 representing complete confidence.

RQ2: What is the relationship between an educator's understanding of cultural assets/deficits and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? This was measured using three scales that asked respondents to rate their confidence levels regarding educational tasks utilizing a Likert type format on a range of 0-100 with 0 representing no confidence and 100 representing complete confidence.

RQ3: What is the relationship between duration of teaching experience and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? This, too, was measured using three scales that asked respondents to rate their confidence levels regarding educational tasks utilizing a Likert type format on a range of 0-100 with 0 representing no confidence and 100 representing complete confidence.

RQ4: What is the relationship between school locale type and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? This also was measured using three scales that asked respondents to rate their confidence levels regarding educational tasks utilizing a Likert type format on a range of 0-100 with 0 representing no confidence and 100 representing complete confidence.

Significance of Study

For educators, implementing any new standards and/or procedures in the classroom has the potential to cause challenges and create a certain degree of stress if scholarly work is not performed regarding the accessible ways to utilize these standards in all classrooms. The literature on culturally responsive teaching shows that studying culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy maintains the potential to inform best practices in this area (Evans, 2017; Siwatu). At present, minimal comprehensive research exists that explores preparedness levels regarding culturally responsive teaching and leading standards of both urban and rural educators and in-service and pre-service teachers.

Given that Illinois educators are required to implement the new Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards by October 2025, a scope of focus in research needs to shift. This change in concentration involves widening to include not only preservice teachers but ones who are seasoned veterans and those teaching in rural areas. The current body of literature does not necessarily explicitly address potential barriers for educators in these populations. As a

result, this study analyzed members of each population – especially educators teaching in rural areas – and the relationships among variables.

Definitions

Provided below is a list of key terms and definitions utilized in the research project.

Access – equal/equitable opportunities for students to take rightful advantage of their education (Sander et al., 2011)

Asset thinking – focusing upon strengths of each student and viewing diversity as positive resources, especially regarding thought, culture, and individual traits; the characteristics that students bring into the classroom are seen as valuable attributes rather than detriments (Renkly & Bertolini, 2019)

Cultural capital – accumulation of culturally-based knowledge and skills that individuals can use in settings other than in just their original context, especially as transferred from outside the classroom to the learning environment (Paris, 2012)

Culturally responsive pedagogy – an approach that "empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (Ladson-Billings, 1994, pp. 17-18)

Culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy – teachers' individual beliefs in their ability to effectively create an inclusive, respectful classroom environment where cultural characteristics are recognized as assets and high expectations are maintained for all students (Siwatu, 2007; Siwatu, 2011)

Culturally responsive teaching – a research-based approach to teaching that connects students' cultures, language, and life experiences with their educational experience in school (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995a; Nieto, 2015; Villegas & Lucas, 2002b)

Culturally sustaining teaching – practices that not only welcome but encourage students to maintain their cultural practices learned in their home and community, thus allowing students to simultaneously exist within the culture of their home and school (Paris, 2012)

Deficit thinking – criteria by which educators ascribe blame for academic or behavioral difficulties of some students to the students themselves, their families, communities, and cultures, thus holding students from historically oppressed populations responsible for the challenges and/or inequalities that they face (Davis & Beyerbach, 2009)

Dominant culture – the majority culture appearing within a group setting whose values, language, ways of life, and behaviors are forced upon a subordinate culture through economic or political power, a monopolization of communication channels/agents/techniques, and suppression of values and/or patterns of behavior (Henkel, 2004)

Experiential learning – the process of learning by direct transformative experiences along with reflecting upon the experiences (Kolb, 1984)

Funds of knowledge – historically cultivated elements and culturally honed skills and knowledge bases that provide individuals and family units with the ability to function conditionally within a culture (Moll et al., 1992)

Self-efficacy – an individual's belief in his or her capacity to perform behaviors necessary to produce specific achievements; reflects confidence in the ability to wield control over one's own motivation, behavior, and environment (Bandura, 1977)

Teacher self-efficacy – a "teacher's belief in his or her ability to organize and execute the course of action needed to successfully complete a teaching task in a particular circumstance" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 22)

Vicarious learning – in the absence of immersive experiences, this type of learning can occur as an alternative means to developing knowledge through first-hand experiences (Cruz et al., 2020; Siwatu, 2011)

Summary

Culturally responsive teaching refers to a set of practices designed to build on students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds as teaching and learning occur. While this can positively affect students' well-being and overall educational experiences, research has appeared to mainly focus on examining pre-service teachers' self-efficacy to implement culturally responsive teaching practices. Using the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2007), the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scale (Siwatu, 2007), and the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy scale (Siwatu et al., 2015), the researcher executed a study that explored the relationships between populations of educators to discern levels of self-efficacy in implementing CRT practices and the factors that affect teachers' self-efficacy in delivering culturally responsive teaching.

Without an understanding of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, further achievement gaps can possibly develop that have the potential to negatively affect current and future students (Evans, 2017; Bailey et al., 2021). Instead, discerning teachers' CRTSE can inform P-20 educational leaders, those dedicated to making decisions to support student success from early education through adulthood while collaborating with stakeholders from all areas, of how teachers' beliefs can affect their classroom practices. This can in turn lead to equipping teachers with specific skills and resources that they can use to develop culturally responsive educational spaces and experiences that positively impact students.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholarship has exposed a current need for intricate, ongoing training programs for the development of educators' culturally responsive skills, especially as prompted by current factors regarding diversity and cultural divides (Gormley & McDermott, 2014; Malo-Juvera et al., 2018). These types of skills include authentic engagement with students from cultural backgrounds different from one's own and implementation of practices that combine culture and learning without reducing any parts of students' identities (McCoy et al., 2017). Even as preservice education programs are now widely incorporating culturally responsive learning processes and training as a standard component (Nadelson et al., 2012), local considerations still must be made regarding individual school districts and their needs, especially concerning regional settings and seasoned educators.

Growing professionally to support students' progress is a part of the process of becoming culturally responsive educators. To embody cultural responsiveness, an educator must strive for his/her classroom to function equitably (Nieto, 2015). Hammond (2015) claimed that educators are certainly poised to become leaders who embrace culturally responsive teaching. To achieve, foster, and maintain this, both preservice and seasoned educators in all geographic areas of the nation need opportunities to successfully grow and learn.

Every Student Succeeds Act

In 2015, President Barack Obama signed into law the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) which built upon the prior No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in conjunction with progress made by educators and policymakers in the years since that mandate had been enacted (United States Department of Education, 2022). ESSA includes provisions intended to ensure

success for students and schools. The law mandates each of the following actions (United States Department of Education, 2022):

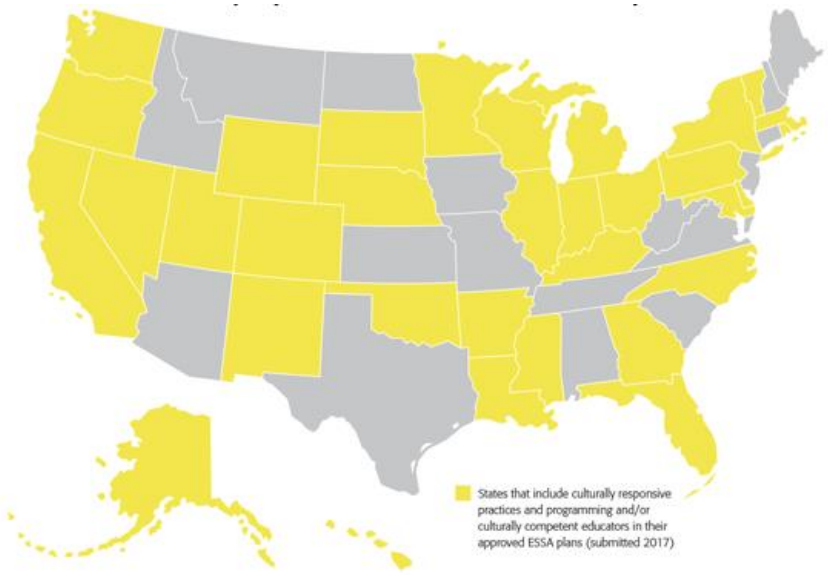
- Advancing equity by upholding critical protections for America's disadvantaged and high-need students
- Requiring that all students in America be taught to high academic standards that will prepare them to succeed in college and future careers
- Ensuring that vital information is provided to educators, families, students, and communities through annual statewide assessments that measure students' progress toward those high standards
- Helping to support and grow local innovations—including evidence-based and place-based interventions developed by local leaders and educators—consistent with the following programs:
    - Investing in Innovation, a program that funds local educational agencies (LEAs) and nonprofit organizations in partnership with (a) one or more LEAs or (b) a consortium of schools
    - Promise Neighborhoods, a program that funds nonprofit organizations, which may include faith-based nonprofit organizations, institutions of higher education, and Indian tribes
- Sustaining and expanding historic investments in increasing access to high-quality preschool programs
- Maintaining an expectation that there will be accountability and action to create positive change in our lowest-performing schools where groups of students are not making progress and where graduation rates are low over extended periods of time

New Illinois Standards

The initiation of the ESSA represented a commitment to all students' attainment of a well-rounded set of skills and the goal of fully preparing them for success in college and careers. This ushered in an emphasis on educators' cultural consciousness (Thomas et al., 2020), what Hansuvadha and Slater (2012) described as the knowledge of behaviors, dispositions, and policies specific to a group so that individuals can interact effectively with other cultural groups. The United States Department of Education (2022) reported that in 2017, 42 states had adopted some form of culturally responsive initiatives to ensure that a successful educational experience is provided for all students in a way that does not detract from students' identities and access students' funds of knowledge.

Figure 1

Culturally responsive education included in Every Student Succeeds Act state plans



Note. The states shaded in yellow indicate the states that include culturally responsive practices

and programming and/or culturally competent educators in their approved ESSA plans. From Culturally responsive education under ESSA: A state-by-state snapshot by A. Schettino et al., 2019.

As a state included on this list, Illinois was in the initial stages of creating its state plan. State leaders had determined an interest in seeking solutions to diversify teacher pipelines and ensure that teachers be prepared to teach a multi-cultural population of students, embracing students' race and ethnicity as an asset in their learning (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b). To further this commitment, in 2018, Governor Bruce Rauner's administration instituted the Illinois Diverse and Learner-Ready Teacher Network (IDLRTN), a group of Illinois educators assembled to collaborate on moving forward with the current initiatives. Their primary concentration centered on Illinois teacher candidates' preparation to support and empower their students regardless of the students' race, ethnicity, national origin, language, religion, physical ability, income status, sexual orientation, or gender identity. The network then provided its recommendations for Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards to the Illinois State Board of Education (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b).

On March 2, 2021, Illinois's Joint Committee on Administrative Rules (JCAR) – a twelve-member legislative bipartisan oversight committee, split evenly between Republicans and Democrats and appointed by the Illinois General Assembly (Illinois General Assembly, 2021) – officially added to the Administrative Code for Illinois schools regarding Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards for all Illinois Educators. This addition to the Administrative Code by JCAR gave the Illinois State Board of Education consent to proceed with its implementation plan for the standards set for October 2025 (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021). These standards comprise eight areas of directives with 65 subpoints regarding the

following: self-awareness and relationships to others; systems of oppression; students as individuals; students as co-creators; leveraging student advocacy; family and community collaboration; content selections in all curricula; and student representation in the learning environment (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021). Within relevant literature, many of these are addressed in relationship to their importance, though not in a clear and specific way regarding their implementation.

The Standards' Potential

Based on existing scholarship, implementing the Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards has the potential to achieve educational leaders' objective of inclusively advancing the learning of all individuals in an equitable manner (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995a; Villegas-Lucas, 2002a). In a statement released by the Illinois State Board of Education (2021), the new standards were adopted to attain the goal of narrowing the achievement gap through cultural responsiveness by asking educators to reflect on their teaching practices and strive to familiarize themselves with students' families and values. Howard (2010) emphasized the importance of closing the achievement gap and its pervasive disproportions, especially as race inequality is a significant and persistent aspect of the education system in the United States (Gillborn, 2014).

With the current structures and policies existing in educational systems, (Hagopian [of We Can Win: Social Justice Advocacy Inside and Out of the Classroom], 2015) claimed that culturally biased curriculum and teaching are among the top contradictory issues working against students today, ranking alongside tracking, zero-tolerance discipline guidelines, overcrowding of class sizes, funding shortages, and mandatory standardized testing, all resulting in inequalities among student populations. The United States Department of Education's (2022) mission

explicitly states a commitment to the promotion of student achievement and preparation for global competitiveness by fostering educational excellence and ensuring equal access. To uphold this mission and make teaching and learning relevant and responsive, Paris (2012) described the need to end the imbalance of equality and systemic inequalities with culturally sustaining pedagogies.

Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading

Research on culturally responsive teaching (also referred to as culturally relevant teaching in other published works) reveals a consistent definition of the concept and its principles. Educators who embrace culturally responsive teaching embody a willingness to listen, reflect, and celebrate the value that diverse factors offer (Howard, 2010). When an educator provides an environment where all students know that their cultures are respected and that the classroom's climate is conducive to learning for members of all types of cultures, this manner of teaching is exemplified (Codrington, 2014; Gay, 2003). Paris (2012) stated that culturally responsive teaching gives educators a superior approach to teaching rather than assuming that there is one mode of practice, one that equates culture with the nucleus of teaching.

While culturally responsive and culturally relevant teaching are both terms used throughout literature on the topic, Paris (2012) expanded the term culturally *responsive* to culturally *sustaining* to indicate progress that has been made, especially since Ladson-Billings (1995b) asserted that assuming teachers automatically know how to utilize effective culturally responsive teaching practices due to their existing knowledge of best classroom practices would represent a narrow mindset. Changing cultures and societies continue to alter the face of education, and even though literature reveals that educators previously countered this issue by inserting culture into their educational practices, this is unethical (Paris, 2012).

Ladson-Billings (1995b) suggested that culturally relevant pedagogy would help produce students who can achieve academically, demonstrate cultural competence, and understand as well as critique the "existing social order" (p. 474). Even so, Fasching-Varner and Seriki (2012) argued that in the years since Ladson-Billings's publications in 1995, many educators have struggled with putting culturally responsive teaching practices into action. In an updated publication, Ladson-Billings (2014) claimed that culture and scholarship are both fluid and called for culturally responsive pedagogy to continue to take on new forms due to changing demographics in education. Hollie (2019) labeled these changes as exciting and worthy of rebranding as *cultural and linguistic* responsiveness based on new landscapes. Regardless of its name, Hollie (2019) asserted that this pedagogy is necessary in classrooms every day.

Literature on culturally relevant pedagogy explains this concept as "using cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant and effective" (Gay, 2002, p. 109), following the premise that information should be presented consistently within cultural frames of reference (Dickson et. al, 2016). Codrington (2014) further provided a definition of culturally responsive teaching as "one that sharpens the analysis of teaching practices that would serve the primary needs of students from oppressed racial/ethnic groups and ends violations of civil liberties" (p. 1022). These groups are often underrepresented or misrepresented.

Culturally responsive educators commit themselves to attending to students' needs – including those from the under and misrepresented populations – to help their own cultural competencies with the intention of affirming and validating cultural differences and to create inclusive spaces, ones where teachers promote valid relationships between culture and learning (Gay, 2002). Just as their experiences at school affect students, their lives outside of the school

setting impact them, too, and culturally responsive teaching acts as a bridge between the two (Dickson et al., 2016; Hollie, 2019; Malo-Juvera et al., 2018; Marrun, 2018; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). A considerable amount of time, then, is spent in both areas of students' lives. As such, focusing on cultural competence and critical consciousness work directly to benefit students by helping them succeed (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2017; Smith, 2020; Thomas et al., 2020; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a).

Drawing on this description relates to maintaining high expectations for students without causing them to feel they must compromise parts of their identities. To understand culturally responsive teaching, this must encompass a concentration on learning about varying cultures and their unique aspects to enhance learning opportunities for all (Abacioglu et al., 2020; Darrow, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 2014; McKoy et al., 2017). Activating students' prior knowledge and incorporating aspects of their culture as a natural part of the classroom landscape can provide beneficial connections for students (Malo-Juvera et al., 2018).

However, Paris (2012) cautioned oversimplifying a mindset of engineering bridges when considering culturally responsive teaching and leading. Drawing on the work on Gutierréz (2008, as cited in Paris, 2012)), he explained that educators should not just see the connections made between the home and school environments as part of a bridge but instead part of a larger abstract concept of a third space. This metaphorical space is a new visualized plane where neither school is brought into the home nor is home brought into the school, instead acting as an extension, resulting in the creation of new representational territory.

In these spaces, Chuang et al. (2020) asserted that "well-developed, culturally responsive teaching frameworks can facilitate teachers' understanding of how students' cultural background and experiences can be used to enhance student learning" and is a "fundamental pedagogical

approach that should be included in teacher preparation and applied in learning activities in culturally diverse classrooms" (p. 2443). Marrun (2018) provided an explanation that this type of approach can start with an element as simple as respecting students' names with appropriate pronunciations. She shared an anecdote about the mispronunciation of a Latina student's name. After the student's teacher had pronounced her name incorrectly, the student did not correct the teacher's error due to cultural norms shared in her home. Since those norms dictate that a youth should not correct an elder, she explained how by mispronouncing a student's name, the teacher broke his responsibility to value and honor a part of that student's identity. Even though this was unintentional, the situation could have avoided due to a variety of strategies (Peterson & Alley, 2015). Marrun (2018) described that this type of occurrence also transpires when educators Anglicize or rename students, especially students of color. Both examples illustrate the absence of culturally responsive pedagogy.

Rationale for Culturally Responsive Teaching/Pedagogy

Literature reveals a rationale for implementing culturally responsive pedagogy (Chuang, et al., 2020). Many researchers agree that culturally responsive teaching has been associated with increased student engagement and achievement, yet literature shows that culturally responsive teaching practices in classrooms have not widely been used across all districts in the current educational climate, even when attrition rates among races continue to widen (Abacioglu et al., 2020; Hutchison & McAlister-Shields, 2019). Since teaching and learning are shaped by cultural influences, a need exists for teachers to develop inclusive cultural understanding to best interact with students, especially ones experiencing disparities between cultures in their homes and schools, for these individuals can experience a disconnect with learning and low rates of social-emotional growth (Abacioglu et al., 2020; O'Keefe et al., 2019). Teachers need to learn about the

various elements of students' cultures to provide heightened equitable access and foster students' competencies, thereby embracing these elements as part of cultural scaffolding (Groulx & Silva, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2021b).

Students' cultural diversities are apparent in daily lives, and scholarship in this area represents how a culturally relevant pedagogy can help educators learn how to connect to such a central part of individuals' representations of themselves (Ashbrook, 2021; Hutchison & McAlister, 2019). The emergence of culturally responsive pedagogy has even become an essential element in so many teacher education programs, for mounting evidence illuminates the importance for teachers in all types of schools and at all levels to develop culturally responsive skills (Donahue-Keegan et al., 2019). This encourages teachers to engage with students in meaningful ways that avoid stereotyping and misrepresenting individuals' identities (Gay, 2002). Learning about students, their lives, and their backgrounds in authentic ways enhances the connections between teachers and students, even when individuals from these two groups do not share the same cultural backgrounds (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b).

The need for intensive changes in education to decrease cultural inequalities is what Ladson-Billings (2008) labeled as a noble goal but one that is challenging and requires a new type of foresight. In addition to what educators can gain from preservice teaching programs, this goal requires effective preparation at the local level for school districts. Scholars continue to assert the achievement gap under many titles – racial, educational, cultural, structural, etc. – but come to the same conclusion: the gap persists and warrants a priority in education, especially as technology becomes a new barrier that widens the disparities (Dallavis, 2011; Howard, 2003; Howard, 2010; Kretchmar & Zeichner, 2016). The technological barrier only increases the necessity to strive for inclusiveness treatment in the classroom environment for all students.

Cultural Considerations

Before educators can effectively work to decrease cultural inequalities using culturally responsive teaching methods, the concept of culture is understandably important to contemplate. Culture helps a student make sense of his/her identity and shapes world perceptions (Noel, 2011), understandably making it a complex construct. As a term with no concrete, single definition agreed upon by all social scientists (Banks, 1999), culture exists as an intangible, dynamic construct that is continuously changing (Noel, 2011). Hammond (2015) provided a deeper understanding of the roots of culture, explaining that culture operates on three levels: surface, intermediate (or shallow), and deep. This helps explain why individuals may try to justify incorporating culture into the classroom as opposed to inserting education into culture, asking students to potentially sacrifice components of their cultural identity.

Surface culture is made up of tangible and concrete attributes like clothing, food, holidays, and music: one element that particularly seems to be incorporated into classrooms as an attempt to bring culture into that space (Noel, 2011). Relevance here, though, is not enough for an authentic experience (Paris, 2012), especially if it does not maintain and value cultural heritage. Intermediate culture is comprised of norms, working principles, and unspoken rules among a group of people. Within this level, nonverbal communication and deep cultural values are embedded as important concepts, particularly concerning an emotional measure (Hammond, 2015). Deep culture, then, exists as the level at which cultural values are used psychologically to determine an element of danger (i.e., microaggressions) or safety within a cultural environment (Noel, 2011). At this level, schema is used to understand the ways to function within a given culture (Marrun, 2018).

Hammond (2015) and Noel (2008) described these three levels as a "culture tree," with deep culture as the roots (containing language, perceptions, and beliefs), shallow culture represented as the trunk and branches on the tree (i.e., laws and art), and surface culture as the fruit of the tree (i.e., visible signs of the roots such as linguistic patterns). A wide range of shallow and surface cultures are observable, but many common values can be found rooted across different types of deep culture (Noel, 2008). This metaphor shows how deep culture needs to be placed at the core of culturally responsive teaching and leading. These types of cultural considerations encompass teachers embracing aspects of culturally responsive pedagogy, though admittedly, there is essentially a daunting challenge at the prospect of a teacher feeling pressure to become omniscient about each of his/her students' daily lives, backgrounds, and circumstances (Banks, 1999).

Nieto (2015) stated that to be effective, an educator needs to realize that a certain degree of mental, physical, and emotional acuity is necessary. She stated, "Teaching is not for the faint of heart. It is not easy; it never has been" (p. 9). Nieto (2015) claimed that teaching is *doing*, encompassing reflection, planning, nurturing, dreaming, scheming, imagining, effecting, judging, succeeding, failing, and improving, followed by starting this sequence over and moving through each of these actions again. Yet literature indicates that the educational reform measures behind culturally responsive pedagogy do not necessitate omniscience (Frye et al., 2010). Instead, scholars describe that a shifting mindset should occur, maintaining that there is no prescribed strategy to understand every aspect of each individual and instead encouraging a commitment to best practices that work on individual levels for educators (Ladson-Billings, 1995a). Making the commitment of time, energy, and compassion for all students with an awareness of the culturally diverse factors among them is what constitutes a culturally responsive educator (Nieto, 2015).

Espinoza-Gonzalez et al. (2014) further explained that cultural consciousness cannot be reduced to a checklist, chart, or collection of behaviors and/or attributes. However, action must occur (Espinoza-Gonzalez et al., 2014), especially as so many students are marginalized and in need of empowerment.

Banks (1999) further described culturally responsive educators as possessing each of the following: knowledge of the major paradigms in multicultural education, knowledge of the major concepts in multicultural education, historical and cultural knowledge of major ethnic groups, and pedagogical knowledge about how to adapt curriculum and instruction to the unique needs of students from diverse cultural, ethnic, and social-class groups. This is a process that requires hands-on experience that can lead to professional growth, and Villegas and Lucas (2002a) even described this as a lifelong learning experience. Frye et al. (2010) stated that the commitment requires continuous work throughout an educator's career to best serve students.

Knowledge of Major Paradigms in Multicultural Education

Banks (1999) explained that several paradigms exist regarding students of color and those from low-income families. These paradigms all contain the assumptions that students from these groups have low levels of academic achievement. Two of these are the cultural deprivation paradigm and the cultural difference paradigm. Banks (1999) and Jensen et al. (1988) indicated that the cultural deprivation paradigm involves the belief that low-income students have lower academic achievement levels and potentially lower potential of success stemming from their positions within poverty along with their social-class and cultural upbringings and due to no fault to instructional practices, namely ineffective ones. Those who follow this paradigm attempt to change the student to fit within the majority culture of the school rather than performing the inverse action (Aronson & Gonzalez, 1995; Banks, 1999; Slavin, 1995).

The cultural difference paradigm, though, theorizes that students from low-income homes and students of color do not operate from a deficit but rather a rich set of cultural values that simply do not fit in with the mainstream culture of schools, thereby causing students from these groups the inability to achieve academic success, again, under no fault of the school institution. This paradigm indicates that since these students' language, learning styles, values, norms, and behavioral constructs differ from the dominant school culture most valued by society, these attributes prevent academic success (Ladson-Billings, 1994). While the cultural differences have the potential to enrich, advocates of this paradigm believe that they deter the students' success (Banks, 1999; Tulkin, 1972).

Knowledge of Concepts in Multicultural Education

Understanding the concepts of culture, macrocultures, and microcultures is meaningful in understanding the core of multicultural education (Banks, 1999). By conceptualizing this complex idea that constitutes so many intangible, symbolic, and ideational aspects, educators can better understand the construct of a human-made environment (Banks, 1999; Berger, 1995; Geertz, 1995) and in turn help students develop healthy conceptions of the dynamic, complex, and changing nature of cultures, especially to model the prevention of stereotyping. With this type of changing climate, this places the need to assess the preparedness levels for all educators to implement culturally responsive teaching and leading standards at the forefront of multicultural education.

Historical and Cultural Knowledge of Major Ethnic Groups

Along with the general knowledge of major concepts in multicultural education, culturally responsive educators also need an understanding of historical and cultural elements of ethnic groups which helps integrate culture into curriculum (Banks, 1999; Takaki, 1989). Banks

(1999) indicated the following concepts as key: origins and immigration; shared culture, values, and symbols; ethnic identity and sense of peoplehood; perspectives, worldviews, and frames of reference; ethnic institutions and self-determination; demographic, social, political, and economic status; prejudice, discrimination, and racism; intra-ethnic diversity; assimilation and acculturation; revolution; and knowledge construction. A consideration of these elements contributes to culturally responsive teaching and leading due to diverse classroom populations that could exist in any district.

Pedagogical Knowledge for Adaptation

Culturally responsive pedagogy calls for adaptation that refers to curriculum and instruction. Culturally responsive educators recognize the needs of students from different cultures, ethnic groups, and social classes and strive to implement research-based and pedagogically sound differentiated methods. Culturally responsive teaching also includes valid, relevant, and balanced curriculum choices at the planning, implementation, and reflection stages of building and teach a curriculum in a culturally responsive manner (Banks, 1999; Howard, 2010). Without a focus on designing and implementing a curriculum that is culturally responsive to members of entire student body, teachers are overlooking basic needs of students from all populations.

Critical Reflection

Critically reflective practices are also an important part of culturally responsive teaching and leading as a means of incorporating issues of equity and social justice into teaching theory and practice (Howard, 2003). Literature indicates that engaging in cultural reflection can be uncomfortable (Howard, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2021b). Nevertheless, students need educators to engage in critical reflection, both regarding beliefs and actions, especially considering the

overarching objective to decrease dropout rates and increase student achievement for individuals from all cultures (Ladson-Billings, 2021b). To aid in this endeavor, reflection can assist in determining best practices for culturally responsive educators, for reflection is uniquely never-ending while simultaneously having an ideal end goal of leading to action (Gay, 2010).

Culturally responsive pedagogy is critical in moving forward to provide equity for all students, but without explicit critical reflection, educators cannot authentically come to a comprehensive understanding of what they truly need (Gay, 2018). Noel (2008) encouraged self-reflection of multicultural attitudes as the first step to attainment of important goals regarding what students will gain, develop, and/or learn in a culturally responsive environment. This incorporates an awareness of their own cultural backgrounds; an understanding of different perspectives on life in the United States; an understanding of the cultures of specific groups; how to reduce stereotyping, prejudice, and racism within themselves and within society; the skills needed to take social action to eliminate social injustice; and a recognition and understanding of global issues. As such, a study that examines rural teachers' ability to critically assess their position regarding cultural bias is warranted.

Self-Efficacy

Possessing cultural competence and confidence increases the strength of a culturally responsive educator (Vass, 2017). Realistically, barriers exist that cause educators to have a low sense of self-confidence to engage in effective culturally responsive teaching and leading. As challenges in the field of education remain a persistently natural part of the landscape, the question of how to best prepare educators to combat potential obstacles and optimistically increase levels of self-efficacy should be treated with priority and urgency (Paris, 2012).

Bandura's (1977) work with self-efficacy provided a solid definition of this concept: "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). Bandura (1977) provided work used frequently by researchers as people's beliefs in their capabilities to exercise control over their own functionalities along with events that affect their lives. One's sense of self-efficacy can provide the foundation for motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. Researchers have further developed this definition (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) to create a specific designation of teacher self-efficacy as "teachers' beliefs in their ability to foster students' academic development" (Kleen et al., 2019, p. 24). The importance of teacher self-efficacy to culturally responsive teaching and leading stems from educators' own views on being able to effectively implement the type of new standards such as those adopted by Illinois.

In Linden and Stuart's (2019) work with educators delivering mental health content, they showed how the prevalence of mental health conditions has recently increased for students. The scholars asserted that research was therefore necessary to assess teachers' self-efficacy and concerns regarding effective considerations and delivering information about these topics in their classrooms (Nadelson et al., 2012). Presuming that educators feel equipped to use appropriate strategies regarding mental health topics, though, does not take into consideration the idea that simply witnessing the impact of mental health eliminates any barriers to approaching this with confidence, especially if there is a lack of training, ongoing professional development (designed with currency and relevancy in mind), and/or support. As described by Linden and Stuart (2019), adequate measures of preparation must occur. Measuring educators' confidence assists in determining their needs of how best to prepare given the prevalence of these individuals in

students' lives. When asking educators to implement new strategies, standards, procedures, etc., adequate preparation is key (King-Sears et al., 2018).

To assess the issue of preparedness to implement culturally responsive teaching standards, Siwatu (2011) studied self-efficacy-forming experiences. He developed an instrument to measure teacher self-efficacy, specifically regarding individuals' confidence in their proficiency in infusing culture and education: teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE). This was designed to gather data using a Likert scale regarding self-efficacy of populations meant to utilize culturally responsive teaching and leading (Siwatu, 2005). On the CRTSE, respondents rate their ability levels regarding specific tasks on the scale of zero (no chance) to 100 (completely certain).

Siwatu's instrument has since been used by multiple researchers either in its original format or by creating a variation. For example, Dickson et al. (2016) stated that "as educational disparities among culturally diverse students continue to be documented, finding viable solutions to a problem that is complex and multifaceted continues to be problematic" (p. 141), therefore choosing to use the CRTSE scale as a starting point for assessing teachers' self-perceptions. Thomas et al. (2020), too, wanted to explore teacher self-efficacy of teacher candidates after participating in a community-engaged teacher preparation course and utilized the CRTSE scale. To further illustrate, a basic database search on JSTOR and EBSCOhost produced a high volume of results of other scholars who have utilized this scale.

Need for Authentic Preparation

To determine the relative professional development needs in this area, leaders can administer needs assessments in individual districts using an instrument such as the CRTSE scale. Using this, respondents are asked to consider their own beliefs, strengths, and weaknesses,

thereby assessing culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy by incorporating critical reflection for educators. Chiu et al. (2017) explored the need for critical reflection of the ways in which cultural diversity is treated in the classroom. An examination of literature, however, reveals that this is predominantly studied regarding the development of culturally competent preservice teachers. This does not appear to extend to all educators, not even seasoned professionals serving as mentors to new educators, which Kleen et al. (2019) proposed as a vital target group since in-service teachers are especially important sources of wisdom and guidance for new teachers. Little has been published regarding this group.

Mentoring concepts are described by theorist Lev Vygotsky and his zone of proximal development (Dziczkowski, 2013; Shabani et al, 2010). Mentoring can benefit both the mentor and the mentee, especially with decreasing levels of stress, providing degrees of insight and awareness, and with increasing self-esteem. Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development focused on the potential for success with the assistance of others. This relates to mentorship and an increased degree of success (Dziczkowski, 2013). By providing support that builds off another's prior experience, a relationship exists that becomes shared leadership (Dziczkowski, 2013; Holloway, 2001).

Reducing stress and anxiety is not an element over which a mentor has full control, but providing opportunities to share ideas and offering encouragement can lead to an overall lessening of anxieties which certainly could be associated with culturally responsive teaching and leading. Competent mentors also have the potential to assist in improving the self-confidence of others through feedback and praise when it is warranted. Feedback itself aids in potentially higher self-confidence levels, especially in comparison to receiving no feedback at all (Dziczkowski, 2013).

Teacher Preparation Programs

Instead of providing direction for developing strong culturally responsive training and learning experiences in the p-12 field, scholarship indicates that these are primarily occurring in teacher education. Encompassing all educators provides a means toward developing and growing cultural competencies across the field. Regardless, in a time that Schonert-Reichl (2017) described as a critical interval for teacher preparation, discussions concerning pre-service teacher education programs and their components are heavily present in literature, with many scholars discussing the essential component of culturally responsive teaching (Frye et al., 2010). Kretchmar and Zeichner (2016) asserted that these programs must support a focus on students' lives and cultures and ways to exhibit that these are valued by educators.

This comprises an awareness of the importance of equitable opportunities both inside and outside the school environment, which also naturally includes a priority on social-emotional learning skills combined with practices and principles of cultural responsiveness (Hammond, 2015). This accounts for maintaining health, well-being, and emotional resilience, nurturing students' social-emotional learning needs through rigorous means, and cultivating the stamina to equitably integrate cultural responsiveness (Donahue-Keegan et al., 2019; Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Kretchmar and Zeichner (2016) stated that these types of rigorous standards in program reform have been enacted, and now more transformative changes connecting curriculum and first-hand experiences are taking place that incorporate community and family involvement.

One example of a teacher preparation program with a heightened emphasis on culturally responsive teaching that also promotes social emotional learning (SEL) is what is occurring in Massachusetts. Donahue-Keegan et al. (2019) provided an overview of this initiative that prioritizes and integrates social emotional learning and culturally responsive teaching

approaches. The Massachusetts Consortium for Social Emotional Learning in Teacher Education (MA SEL-TEd) was formed in response to Massachusetts's state guidelines for implementing SEL curricula in p-12 education (Massachusetts Consortium for Social-Emotional Learning in Teacher Education, 2016). This group advocated for the inclusion of SEL and culturally responsive practices/skills and produced the following recommendations: increased teacher education program faculty's reflective action to authentically evaluate their experiences teaching courses with an increased awareness of the standards; increased practitioner-student teacher partnerships focusing on the SEL/culturally responsive teaching connections; implementing determined revisions to social-emotional learning/culturally responsive content, strategies, and perspectives; and including a state-mandated indicator to the pre-service teachers' evaluations (Donahue-Keegan et al., 2019). Before state leaders in Illinois can determine their own recommendations for assisting educators in implementing culturally responsive teaching and leading, the preparation levels need to be evaluated as a starting point for making these types of decisions.

Professional Development

In much the same way as the absence of rural considerations, a persistent gap in the literature lacks attention paid to current educators who have not received the same types of higher education learning experiences on culturally responsive teaching. For educators who have not received formalized education in this area from higher education coursework (i.e., received a Bachelor's degree during years occurring prior to widespread implementation to culturally responsive pedagogy instruction), supplementing professional development is a viable option to supplement. This could assist in raising self-efficacy levels, especially culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2011).

Localized professional development may be necessary due to the backgrounds of a faculty since all members may not feel equipped either due to low self-efficacy or a lack of training experiences/coursework (Siwatu, 2011). This would allow for enhancing teacher preparation to create not only confident but competent educators. Sarker (2012) explained that educators who possess a higher sense of culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy typically are pre-service teachers or those who have recently graduated from a teacher preparation program.

Chiu et al. (2017) considered the notion that cultural dissonance will continue to grow if current educators do not persistently seek culturally responsive practices, and with a lack of exposure to diverse populations, this becomes even more important. Without an opportunity to develop critical consciousness and openly acknowledge and disclose personal biases, namely cultural preconceptions, this can impede instructors from authentically understanding culturally responsive pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 2008). This can involve ongoing professional development and post-training sessions along with creation of curriculum and course materials (Donahue-Keegan, et al., 2019). Realistically, though, not all practicing educators actively seek professional development opportunities. Chiu et al. (2017) anticipated a future direction of incoming educators having developed a foundation in culturally responsive teaching and leading thanks to preservice programs. Again, this addresses new teachers but not veteran ones.

The quality of professional development opportunities also could become a cause for concern. In her extensive work with culturally relevant teaching, Ladson-Billings (2021a) determined that many professional development opportunities regarding this content have reduced the development of culturally relevant teachers to unimpressive and underdeveloped experiences and claimed that many “workshops, institutes and certifications designed to “make” teachers culturally relevant ‘pedagogs’” (p. 352) are insufficient. Donahue-Keegan et al. (2019)

reported on the MA SEL-TEd's practice of hosting not one workshop but multiple conferences and series of workshops to approach the areas of social emotional learning and cultural responsiveness interconnectedly and not working in isolation.

In other scholarship, Ladson-Billings (2013) defended more valuable experiences such as on-going training or coaching instead of superficial, singular training workshops. These more in-depth, developed experiences assist teachers in ways of moving from a deficit to an asset model (Barrett-Zahn, 2021; Donahue-Keegan et al., 2019). This model refers to the concept of focusing on what an individual lacks as opposed to what that person can contribute (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2017; Howard, 2010; Paris, 2012).

Deficits and Culturally Responsive Teaching

The ways in which an educator treats a student's cultural background becomes problematic if approached using deficit-based thinking (Marrun, 2018). For example, Wilkins (2020) described the misnomer of teachers blaming cultural barriers for a student's lack of success. If an educator makes assumptions about a student's culture and attaches a labeled deficiency to this – especially based upon a cultural stereotype – this exemplifies a focus on what the teacher assumes the student cannot achieve as opposed to what he/she is capable of accomplishing (Noel, 2011). As described by Wilkins (2020), this type of thinking reduces creative vision. This, too, can minimize a student's self-worth in terms of contributions to a classroom environment as students can easily internalize this lack of confidence in their abilities (Marrun, 2018). Another instance of deficit-type thinking is believing that expectations need to be lowered for members of certain cultural groups. This does not show culture responsiveness and again exhibits basing perceptions on an assumed deficiency.

Cultural Capital and Funds of Knowledge

Instead of deficits, educators can focus on assets, especially those generated from cultural experiences (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). Cultural capital refers to the accumulation of knowledge and skills that individuals can use in settings other than in just their original context (Paris, 2012). In the classroom, cultural experiences that students have acquired in their home setting become part of combined cultural capital which is highly related to what is labeled in current literature as funds of knowledge (Kretchmar & Zeichner, 2016). Hutchison and McAlister-Shields (2019) explained that students' funds of knowledge should be channeled into positive, productive learning environments such as those described by Gay (2002). These constructs of culturally responsive teaching provided categories for effective culturally relevant learning environments. These included the following: developing a knowledge base about cultural diversity; designing culturally relevant curricula; nurturing and building learning communities; cross-cultural communications; and cultural congruity in classroom instruction (Gay, 2002).

Developing a Knowledge Base about Cultural Diversity

Teaching individuals from a culture other than one's own can come with challenges due to a lack of knowledge of cultural norms and values. Developing a base about cultural diversity assists educators with making instructional choices that incorporate an understanding of cultural traditions, communication and learning styles, and relational patterns (Gay, 2002). Authentic cultural responsiveness additionally goes beyond a general recognition of and respect for cultural differences. Trumbull and Pacheco (2005) maintained that students' cultural identities affect educational success, and when teachers allow for space in the learning environment where students can explore their own needs and expand upon their culture-based knowledge, this in turn assists in building an educator's own knowledge base.

Designing Culturally Relevant Curricula

Using the cultural diversity knowledge base, culturally responsive educators then take that information learned and use it to design, develop, and implement their lesson plans and curriculum. This especially involves taking consideration of learning styles and making choices based on the strengths and weaknesses of multicultural elements of a curriculum, necessarily adapting to maintain quality of instruction for all students (Gay, 2002). Images displayed in the classroom, too, are part of designing cultural relevance, and a conscious awareness of the ways that these complement and extend what is taught in the classroom, including conveying values and portraying diverse representations of ethnic groups (Gay, 2002).

Nurturing and Building Learning Communities

Echoing what Ladson-Billings (1994) stated is not simply “best practices” or “good teaching," Gay (2018) emphasized the importance of demonstrating cultural caring in the classroom. Using cultural scaffolding is one way to transcend basic "good teaching" to help students increase their academic performance by expanding upon their own cultural experiences. Culturally responsive educators strategically execute action oriented, moral problem-solving skills in the attempt to ensure success for all learners. Gay (2002) explained that members of multicultural learning communities need to gain the understanding of the moral and political consequences of knowledge and building a learning community in which the welfare of all individuals is important to aid in this endeavor.

Cross-Cultural Communications

Gay (2018) referred to cross-cultural communication as a pivotal element of culturally responsive teaching as this is the foundation of the way that community is established. With individuals from different cultural backgrounds, establishing an effective community can be

challenging due to ethnically diverse communication styles and linguistic elements. Culturally responsive educators prepare for ways to navigate students' communal communication styles in ways that do not diminish nor deny students' background knowledge/experiences and thus their academic performance.

Cultural Congruity in Classroom Instruction

The preparation for creating a welcoming and productive learning environment where ethnically diverse learners receive equitable academic experiences naturally comprises an important part of developing cultural congruity and culturally responsive teaching. The delivery of actual instruction comprises the various aspects of the preparatory measures so that teaching can be adapted based on the learners' needs. Responsive teaching must essentially become habitual as opposed to a forced practice. The varied values of students across diverse populations, cultural scaffolds, the usage of cultural information to expand knowledge, and the building of community all are part of these concepts that can aid in awareness of cultural capital and funds of knowledge (Shaw, 2015).

Embracing funds of knowledge as a component of cultural congruity can elevate a capacity to learn (Hutchison & McAlister-Shields, 2019). For example, when educators commit themselves to learning about students' lives outside the classroom, especially social and cultural aspects, this can aid in capitalizing on the funds of knowledge that the students and/or their families possess (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). Even becoming knowledgeable of the dynamics of family structures helps educators embrace students' cultural capital (Hutchison & McAlister-Shields, 2019).

Identifying, fostering, and embracing students' cultural capital is understandably an important part of cultural congruity and culturally responsive teaching and leading. Gist (2014)

stated that utilizing CRP is raw and challenging work with educators needing to act as change agents, which necessitates a commitment to acquiring more than a basic understanding of students' cultures and backgrounds. Students' interests, relationships to subject matter, and community involvement all are part of establishing cultural congruity (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b).

Understanding students' and their families' perceptions of school knowledge and their beliefs in the potential of schooling to improve their future lives constitute ways to build bridges between students' home lives and school lives (Frye et al., 2010; Marrun, 2018). For a solid foundation for this connecting space, Villegas and Lucas (2002a) provided the following as what teachers need to know: family makeup; immigration history; language use; mobility; educational history; child-rearing philosophy and practices; major/favorite activities; labor history; skills and knowledge used regularly; use of leisure time; hobbies; concerns; trust that schools will improve their adult lives; areas of potential conflict between students' cultural values and the cultural demands built into the various school subjects; economic makeup; racial/ethnic composition; patterns of segregation; formal/informal holders of power and influence; and available resources.

Reasonably, a certain level of educator buy-in always exists with educational theories (Steven & Markowitz, 2019). Beyond considerations about buy-in, a need still exists to provide ways to incorporate comprehension measures concerning culturally responsive teaching and leading for all members of educator populations. Thomas et al. (2020) stated that "the mechanics through which to operationalize a praxis that can realize such goals has been more elusive" (p. 123). Frye et al. (2010) stressed the importance of preservice teacher programs infusing opportunities for teacher candidates to explore their understanding of culturally responsive teaching and leading especially regarding cultural congruity in both theory and practice. Yet

while the researchers continued to explain the daunting task for preservice teachers, no mention was made about in-service teachers.

External Considerations

Thomas et al. (2020) stated that in-service teachers currently report a feeling of not being prepared to incorporate effective culturally responsive teaching, especially in the face of high diversity rates in today's schools. Existing scholarship does not appear to provide an indication of what is being done to combat this issue. Even though studies have been published regarding the definition of culturally responsive teaching, cultural capital/funds of knowledge, incorporation of culturally responsive pedagogies in educational programs, and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, an emerging research agenda could include progression toward educating current practicing teachers.

Pre-Service and In-Service Educators

Siwatu (2011) argued that "undeniably, coursework plays a major role in the development of preservice teachers' knowledge" (p. 367). When coursework was completed in the years prior to the current time of increased awareness in the importance of culturally responsive teaching and leading, this leaves a population of educators who have not had the same higher education experiences in this area. Hoover and Soltero-Gonzalez (2018) recommended that partnerships need to be established between universities and p-12 school districts to foster a sense of collaboration and community. However, this in isolation would likely not combat the issue. Groulx and Silva (2010) called for a "broad repertoire of culturally responsive applications" (p. 3), but the lack of research in culturally responsive teaching and leading preparation for seasoned/veteran teachers results in the inability to articulate ways to achieve a wide range of practices.

Culturally responsive teaching cannot be reduced to a lesson plan or a simple set of strategies. The pedagogy calls for acquiring a knowledge base about cultural diversity including ethnic and cultural diversity content in curriculum and demonstrating caring and building learning communities, communicating with ethnically diverse students' and responding to ethnic diversity in the delivery of instruction (Gay, 2002). Additional considerations involve teachers being socio-culturally conscious; having affirming views of students from diverse backgrounds; seeing themselves as responsible for and capable of bringing about change to make schools more equitable; understanding how learners construct knowledge and are capable of promoting knowledge construction; knowing about the lives of their students, and designing instruction that builds on what their students already know while stretching them beyond the familiar (Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). Hammond (2015) echoed that culturally responsive educators do not follow a standard set of prescribed guidelines; instead, they embrace a mindset. Preparing for a mindset dominated by an emotional consciousness rather than preparing to teach lessons that only incorporate elements of culture reveals culturally responsive thinking.

In 2021, the Illinois State Board of Education provided a website where Illinois Higher Education (IHE) resources such as alignment guides and general professional development resources such as facilitator self-awareness workbooks are housed. This collection of resources holds great potential, yet while strategies are important, more literature needs to exist on mindset and intent rather than lesson plans, what Hammond (2015) called an "interpretation aperture" and cultural frames of reference (p. 63). Preparation measures and implemented practices are clearly stressed, but how to navigate all spaces to develop and implement these is not present in current scholarship. Progress with incorporating multicultural education into curricula has been made, yet much is left to be transformed rather than solely infused (Banks, 1999; Gay, 2003).

This allows for reciprocal learning in the classroom between students and teachers, repositioning teachers as students of diverse elements (Vass, 2017).

Considering Urban and Rural Environments

Another consideration for culturally responsive teaching and leading is the absence of scholarly literature regarding geographic location. Though Howard (2003) explored practices for culturally relevant pedagogy – especially through critical reflection – he, like many other scholars (Au & Mason, 1981; Brown et al., 2017; Cruz et al., 2020) discussed the demographic divide by focusing on pre-service teachers and those in urban areas, not on veteran teachers nor those teaching in rural areas where there is less of a diverse, changing classroom makeup. He claimed that teachers in urban areas are challenged when teaching students from diverse populations, but this does not account for the experiences of rural educators which possibly could constitute an even greater challenge due to limited interactions with individuals from a range of diverse backgrounds. More scholarship such as Duarte and Reed's (2004) work on urban cultures have also focused on urban but not rural communities.

Malo-Juvera et al. (2018) additionally considered the need to consider culturally responsive teaching and what this pedagogy aims to achieve, but their discussion centered on general professional development and teacher candidates as opposed to specifically considering urban versus rural concerns. Additionally, they lacked any attention paid to in-service educators. If "improving the lives and learning of all...students through meaningful culturally responsive instruction" (Malo-Juvera et al., 2018, p. 155) is key, research studies such as this need to include considerations that encompass all teachers' demographics to provide ample opportunities for professional growth.

Another concern results from scholarship that portrays all urban and all rural areas as having the same stereotypical characteristics. Hoover and Soltero-Gonzalez (2018) especially asserted that conceptualizing all rural areas as similar would provide a disservice, and Shaw (2015) addressed the harm when utilizing these types of stereotypical characteristics for urban settings, too, especially to reinforce negative issues. In a study of educators teaching in areas where racial diversity was lower than the amount of this type of cultural diversity in urban areas, Davis and Beyerbach (2009) emphasized the needs of these teachers. In multiple anecdotes provided in their work, various teachers were described as fearful in anticipation of working with students in a more urban atmosphere, even though they admitted that their apprehensions stemmed from stereotypes as opposed to actual experiences.

Kretchmar and Zeichner (2016) described a unique semester-long program at Ball State University that provided an immersive experience for pre-service teachers. In this component, teacher candidates took courses at a community center located in an African American neighborhood with low socioeconomic status. There they not only were given the opportunity for experiential learning but were also paired with mentors throughout the community. Experiential knowledge is certainly powerful, but when diverse experiences are not accessible, this limits the acquirable amount of this type of knowledge. Jackson and Knight-Manuel (2019) asserted the need for disrupting inequities within schools, but an indication regarding how educators can implement change based on their experiences if there is little to no racial diversity geographically is unclear.

Learning about culturally responsive pedagogical elements but not having the chance to apply these first-hand can result in educators' limited development of culturally relevant pedagogy (Siwatu, 2011). Although culturally relevant teaching and leading are not restricted to

diverse students and educators, this could affect self-efficacy and sociopolitical consciousness (Jackson & Knight-Manuel, 2019). In the absence of immersive experiences, though, vicarious learning experiences can occur, providing instrumental alternative ways to increase self-efficacy and develop knowledge (Cruz et al., 2020; Siwatu, 2011).

In her study of predictors of culturally relevant attitudes and expectations of urban teachers, Doyle (2014) emphasized the necessity of examining demographic differences to attain data regarding teacher quality indicators and levels of teacher preparation to use culturally relevant pedagogy. This type of study with research questions that focused specifically on the geographical factors impacting/not impacting culturally relevant teaching is a rarity among the current body of literature. Though Donahue-Keegan (2019) described initial discussions for incorporating training in culturally responsive teaching for other populations besides those in preservice higher education programs, the focus in the literature remains heavily on this demographic. Siwatu (2011) claimed that neither population should be overlooked. Without a focus on a more comprehensive scope, culturally responsive pedagogy may continue to lag regarding a widescale implementation, one that is already overdue.

Implications for Illinois Educators

For educators, the implementation of any new standards has the potential to cause confusion, frustration, and miscommunication if scholarly work is not performed regarding the accessible ways to utilize these standards in all classrooms. In 2016, when the state of California implemented new performance expectations that required teachers to explicitly use social emotional learning and culturally responsive teaching in teaching training programs, there was confusion about how to proceed with enacting this directive (Stevenson & Markowitz, 2019). Leaders asked themselves how to integrate the two concepts, what types of resources were

needed to facilitate the mandate, how teacher education programs could establish a common language and vision, how faculty and department members could determine guiding philosophies, and how supervisors, cooperating teachers, and teacher candidates working together could be supported regarding the integration of SEL and culturally responsive teaching and leading. With Illinois in the current process of introducing its new set of standards with the implementation deadline of October 2025, there is much to consider, much like the issue in California.

Summary

The professional, personal, and moral expectations for educators with Illinois's Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading standards are high, but this is because the stakes are so high for students (Ladson-Billings, 2013; Marrun et al., 2021). All children deserve a safe, equitable learning environment, one where they do not have to sacrifice their identity to learn (Paris, 2012; Vass, 2017). Challenging considerations are needed for progress to be made possible, including stripping away inherent biases and deeply examining personal beliefs, all to enter (and/or strengthen) a commitment to honor, value, and utilize cultural values (Cruz et al., 2020). This also includes casting aside any pity-driven impetuses and focusing upon nurturing the needs of students (Vass, 2017). If educators are expected to humanize their practices in a culturally supportive manner (Smith, 2020), a shift must occur on a deeply reflective level. To reach this objective, a widening of the scope of focus in research needs to occur to include not only preservice teachers, especially in urban areas, but ones who are seasoned veterans and teaching in rural areas. The current body of literature does not explicitly address potential barriers for educators in these populations.

Changing cultures and societies continue to alter the face of education, and even though literature reveals that educators previously countered this issue by inserting culture into their educational practices, this is unethical (Hackett, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 1995a). Educators need authentic preparation to instead learn how to *merge* education with culture. This requires resiliency and takes not only time but also support to fully develop a knowledge base and skill set that moves beyond only learning styles of cultural sensitivity (Debnam et al., 2015; Tanase, 2020).

When the Illinois General Assembly was posed with the question of approving the proposed Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards, leaders were faced with the question whether the standards should be adopted as stated. After deliberating the standards' potential benefits to future students, The Illinois State Board of Education (2021) released the following directive:

> The standards will be implemented in educator preparation programs and will help aspiring educators build the skills they need to engage students who may come from a different backgrounds and cultures than them, ideally creating an environment most conducive to learning.

This is a reasonable, research-based position. Determining how effectively those conducive learning environments can come to fruition by widening the scope of assessing the preparedness of all educators. Including members of other populations besides just the ones currently in educator preparation programs, though, is key in the current educational climate. While literature indicates that considerations are widely given to aspiring teachers, namely regarding what skills they are learning and their levels of self-efficacy, the issue now stands regarding how current and pre-service educators will learn about and utilize the new set of

standards. Possibly just as important is the question of whether educators feel prepared to utilize these standards effectively, thereby considering their self-efficacy. While Charity Hudley and Mallinson (2017) argued that educators do not necessarily need to solve every question regarding culturally diverse factors, they do need ways to reach conclusions. A review of relevant literature shows that culturally responsive teaching and leading is an effective means for reaching those conclusions, including concrete practices that support all learners' success.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study was designed to identify the levels of culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy (CRTSE) that K-12 Illinois teachers perceive they possess. Using a three-part self-assessment tool, the research focused on whether that perceived competency (or lack thereof) corresponds to participants' geographic location and/or experience as a pre-service versus veteran teacher. In combining existing relevant literature regarding the benefits of implementing culturally responsive teaching methods and the impending October 2025 deadline to employ the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards (CRTLS), the researcher sought to ascertain levels of culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy for educators who will soon be required to align with and utilize culturally responsive pedagogy and CRTLS.

Research Design

Overview of Methodology

To explore the impacts of limits on educators regarding using culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE), a quantitative study with a descriptive, correlational design was utilized. To obtain data regarding self-efficacy levels regarding culturally responsive teaching, outcome expectancies, and classroom management expectancies, quantitative research methods were selected as the means for exploration. Quantitative research procedures were employed so that the researcher could address relationships between CRTSE and each of the following: educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy, cultural capital/funds of knowledge, age/years of teaching experience, and geographic location of teaching assignment. The research was completed using a three-part online questionnaire administered via Qualtrics software.

Purpose of Study

The current study allowed the researcher to determine the relationships between educators' backgrounds/experiences and their perceived levels of strength to successfully implement culturally responsive teaching and leading. By utilizing a set of pre-existing, valid, and reliable survey instruments development by Siwatu (2007) and Siwatu et al. (2015), the study allowed for obtainment of the culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy levels of educators in Illinois. Milner (2008) emphasized that a lack of preparation when working with culturally diverse populations in the classroom can exacerbate apprehension for teachers, thus negatively affecting multiple individuals in the classroom environment. This study, then, could potentially help identify levels of adequate and/or inadequate preparation, which can in turn lead to interventions and development of training and/or learning opportunities focused on maximizing teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy levels.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the relationship between educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy and their implementation of culturally responsive teaching and leading standards?

RQ2: What is the relationship between an educator's understanding of cultural assets/deficits and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy?

RQ3: What is the relationship between duration of teaching experience and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy?

RQ4: What is the relationship between school locale type and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy?

Participants

The new directives for the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading standards indicate that all preservice education programs in Illinois should implement culturally responsive pedagogy. For this study, then, the target group included K-12 Illinois educators, especially those who were not first year teachers in addition to those living in rural areas where little diversity exists. Since the new Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading standards will go into effect for all Illinois educators in the K-12 sector, the researcher chose to obtain a sample from educators from that range of grade levels.

Though JCAR's administrative code states that future teachers should engage in culturally responsive teaching, this set of policies does not explicitly include private school educators as being responsible for upholding the standards (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022). While the language itself is not entirely clear about teacher distinctions, what is clearly communicated is the direct instruction provided to all preservice educators at the higher education level. As this would include both public and private school preservice teachers, the researcher also chose to include educators at public and private schools as part of the target group. (Though not all private school educators in Illinois are required to complete a traditional teacher education program, many private school administrations do hold that preference.)

Participants for this study were selected by using purposive sampling. This type of sampling technique is a nonprobability sample type that allows for targeting the specific groups in the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2012). At present, no single, comprehensive list of all Illinois educators' email addresses exists, especially given the changes in teaching staffs that frequently occur within districts. Therefore, as Dillman et al. (2014) expressed, online surveying methodologies rationally rely on non-probability sampling.

The sample frame included addresses for K-12 educators with efforts made to include a proportionate number of educators from each grade to prevent an imbalance in the sample. Though the response rate from educators from each grade level was not guaranteed, motivated from an ethical standpoint, the researcher aimed to avoid an imbalance at the inception of the study.

In his Tailored Design Method (TDM), Dillman et al. (2014) explained that even with a large population, little difference in the completed sample size is needed to achieve a desired precision level, for the sample size is what matters, no matter the total population size (p. 81). In 2021, 132, 354 total teachers were reported as teaching in Illinois (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022). That number was inputted into a sample size calculator provided by Qualtrics to generate *n*. The researcher calculated $n = 175$ as the ideal size when using a 5% margin of error, 7% confidence interval, and a 95% confidence rate.

The researcher already had access to a multitude of known email addresses for K-12 educators working in various districts throughout the state of Illinois due to professional networking activities (i.e., Regional Office of Education Advisory Board: covering Southern Illinois/Illinois Reading Council: covering the entire state), and these were utilized to identify and invite potential respondents. Additional participants were recruited via email by utilizing addresses obtained from Illinois Regional Offices of Education, administrators in Illinois, and publicly available school websites.

Snowball sampling was also employed. This typically occurs after the research has begun and participants are asked to recommend others to also become respondents in the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2012). Following this protocol, potential participants were identified as meeting the criteria for inclusion in the study, and those participants were asked to recommend

other Illinois educators who would likely fit the criteria for participation. Teachers were asked to consider forwarding a link provided in the initial invitation email. The researcher was notified when various participants attempted to engage in the snowball sampling and were unable to access the provided link. To resolve this issue, the researcher reconfigured the settings of the shareable resource in Qualtrics. After these were altered, the researcher was not made aware of any further complications with the links that were potentially forwarded as part of the snowball sampling process.

Ethical Considerations

In the invitation email, clear communication stated that participation in the study was strictly voluntary and that any individual had the freedom to withdraw at any time without any sort of consequence. The researcher also clearly indicated to participants that their confidentiality and anonymity would be protected and that no intended nor recognized consequences had been identified within the research study. Furthermore, participants were informed that no costs were associated with participating in the study and that the Murray State University Institutional Review Board had approved the use of human subjects for the research project (see Appendix B).

Participants' privacy was maintained and confidentiality was guaranteed by the researcher. No participant was asked to provide his or her name, and in the instances that this occurred, all identifying name(s) were removed from these data. Information obtained was saved on the researcher's encrypted password protected computer. When the researcher entered data into the programs that were used to analyze and organize this information (Microsoft Excel version 16.65 and IBM SPSS version 28.0), this was all stored using encrypted password protected software programs. All passwords were only known by the researcher. Additionally, no

recruitment folder was utilized since all participants were contacted electronically, and no hard copies of paperwork that contained any names of any participants were generated.

Instrumentation

Participants were contacted electronically, primarily through their school email addresses. Each prospective participant was sent an email containing the purpose of the study, a consent form, a description of participants' rights and reasonable expectations for privacy/confidentiality, and instructions on how to complete and submit a three-part survey that was to be used as the research instrument. Recruited participants were prompted to contribute their responses within one month, and one follow-up email was sent to remind potential participants to complete the questionnaire with the intent of an increased response rate using varied messages across multiple contacts (Dillman et al., 2014). These were all generated within the Qualtrics software.

Using the TDM (Dillman et al., 2014), considerations were made for the following: utilizing a link within the recruitment invitation email since the format could not necessarily be controlled if embedded directly into an email message, utilizing Qualtrics since it is a known software that allows for optimization across mobile devices, creating interesting and informative introductory and ending screens with a wide appeal for respondents, using a consistent page layout across screens, avoiding a graphical progress indicator, and taking steps to ensure that emails were not flagged as spam. All these considerations were made possible via options within Qualtrics.

Invitations were sent via the email function in Qualtrics so that the researcher could populate recipients' first and last names in the body of the email to personalize communication, thus potentially increasing the likelihood to complete the survey (Dillman et al., 2014). Reminder

emails were also sent that utilized the function that populated potential participants' first and last names.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy

The first instrument included in the three-part survey was the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scale. A copy of this part of the instrument appears in Appendix F. Utilizing Bandura's (1977) belief in the need for a powerful sense of efficacy to competently execute tasks, Siwatu (2007) developed this instrument to gain understanding of teachers' efficacy to successfully implement culturally responsive pedagogy. Development was guided by theoretical and empirical research on self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs.

The scale contains 41 Likert-type questions that ask participants to rate their confidence levels in the tasks related to teaching responsibilities. The rating scale begins at a degree of 0 for no confidence at all and ranges to 100, indicating complete confidence. The researcher also divided the CRTSE into the following subscales:

- Assessment (scale items #7, #23, #33)
- Classroom environment (scale items #19, #26)
- Communication (scale items #24, #31)
- Instruction/strategies/curriculum (scale items #1, #6, #11, #14, #27-30, #35, #36, #38-40)
- Native language (scale items #18, #22)
- Obtaining student information (scale items #2-4, #8, #16, #21, #34, #37)
- School vs. home culture (scale items #5, #13, #15, #17, #41)
- Trust/rapport (scale items #9, #10, #12, #20, #25, #32)

The psychometric properties of the CRTSE are based on the results from 275 Midwestern educators. Factor loadings ranged from .39 to .79. Siwatu (2007) stated that the efficacy scale proved to be a reliable measure. Internal reliability was .96 using Cronbach's alpha.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy

The second instrument that was included in the three-part survey was the Culturally Responsive Teacher Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) scale. A copy of this part of the instrument appears in Appendix G. Also utilizing Bandura's (1977) research regarding outcome expectations, Siwatu (2007) developed this scale to focus on determining teachers' beliefs and predictions about the types of outcomes that implementing culturally responsive pedagogy will have on student outcomes. Development was guided by theoretical and empirical research on self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs.

This scale contains 26 Likert-type questions that ask participants to consider the probability that specified behaviors will result in identified outcomes. In doing so, respondents rated their degrees of certainty regarding a behavior leading to a specific outcome. Like the CRTSE scale, the CRTOE rating scale begins at a degree of 0 for no confidence at all and ranges to 100, indicating complete confidence. The researcher divided the CRTSE into the following subscales:

- Communication (scale items #6, #12)
- Relationships (scale items #1, #4, #15, #16)
- School vs. home environment/culture (scale items #5, #11, #13, #14, #21-23, #25)
- Teaching methods/instruction/assessment (scale items #2, #3, #7-9, #17-20)
- Visual aids/resources (scale items #10, #24, #26)

The psychometric properties of the CRTOE are based on the results from 275 Midwestern educators. Factor loadings ranged from .55 to .75. Siwatu (2007) stated that the efficacy scale also proved to be a reliable measure. Internal reliability was .95 using Cronbach's alpha.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy

The third and final instrument that was included in the three-part questionnaire was the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCME) scale. A copy of this instrument appears in Appendix H. Siwatu et al. (2015) developed this scale using the culturally responsive teaching management and social cognitive theories to gain information about teachers' self-efficacy regarding culturally responsive classroom management tasks. Siwatu et al. (2015) stressed the need to identify culturally responsive tasks that educators feel are most and conversely least valuable to implement in the classroom environment. Development and initial validation of the scale involved construct validity with self-efficacy measures. Siwatu et al. (2015) reported that exploratory factor analysis results suggested a one-factor structure consisting of 35 items and the scores on the measure were highly reliable.

The scale includes 35 Likert-type items that asked participants to rate their confidence levels on culturally responsive classroom management tasks. Just as with the CRTSE and CRTOE scales, the CRCME rating scale begins at a degree of 0 for no confidence at all and ranges to 100, indicating complete confidence. The researcher divided the CRCME into the following subscales:

- Assessment (scale item #1)
- Collaboration (scale items #9, #21, #22)
- Communication (scale items #6, #17, #26, #27, #30)

- Discipline/behavior (scale items #2, #5, #12, #13, #15, #19, #23, #24, #32-35)
- Instruction/strategies (scale items #11, #14, #16, #20, #29)
- Learning environment (scale items #3, #4, #7, #8, #10, #18, #31)
- Parent partnerships (scale items #25, #28)

The psychometric properties of the CRCME are based on the results from 380 pre-service and in-service educators. The one-factor solution explained approximately 52.88% of the variance, with factor loadings ranging from .59 to .82. The percentage of variance measured below the average of factor analysis studies (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Internal reliability for scores on the scale was .97 using Cronbach's alpha.

Pilot testing (Siwatu, 2004; Siwatu et al., 2015) and numerous later research studies have used each of the three scales with success (Hawke, 2022; Snider, 2015). The present three-part survey instrument using each of the scales was piloted using Cronbach's alpha to determine internal consistency reliability and meet a minimum criterion alpha value. Assessing the reliability of the survey instrument allows for a measure of internal consistent reliability (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Since Likert scale questions were used, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to measure how well the items that measure CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME correlate with each other.

Additionally, Pajares et al. (1999) determined that the type of self-efficacy scales that range from 0 to 100 are psychometrically stronger than a traditional five-point Likert scale due to the wider range allowing participants to provide more precise judgment with individual responses. Using Bandura's (1977) theory on self-efficacy, Pajares et al. (1999) concluded that Bandura's assertions about the use of a scale with multiple options was empirically grounded.

Data Analysis

Data analysis began with descriptive analysis of the participants. This included demographic information including participants' ages, gender, race, and general location. Additionally, participants were asked to provide information concerning their grade level(s) currently teaching. These were relevant because of the insight(s) provided regarding the following: the relationship between age and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, the relationship between educators who hold educational certifications past a Bachelor's degree and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, and the relationship between teachers of certain grade levels and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. For example, since the researcher sought to understand which factors influence culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, these types of demographic questions could then help determine if educators who earned a post-secondary degree beyond the Bachelor's level have higher levels of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy than those who do not.

One method of analysis also included finding the sum of participants' scores to determine what Siwatu (2007) labeled an overall strength score (Hawke, 2022). Additionally, the following analyses were then conducted to answer the research questions with CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME scores as the dependent variables:

RQ1: What is the relationship between educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy and their implementation of culturally responsive teaching and leading standards? Bivariate analyses were used to explore the relationship between views of culturally responsive pedagogy and CRTSE.

Hypothesis 1: Educators with positive views of culturally responsive pedagogy, especially higher strength scores on the CRTOE and CRCME scales, will have a higher

confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards.

Hypothesis 2: Educators who are unsure of their views on culturally responsive pedagogy (thus earning a low strength score on the CRTOE and CRCME scales) will have a low confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards.

RQ2: What is the relationship between an educator's understanding of cultural assets/deficits and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? Bivariate analyses were used to explore the relationship between knowledge of cultural assets/deficits and CRTSE, using variables on all three scales.

Hypothesis 1: Educators who understand the importance of recognizing cultural assets as opposed to viewing them as deficits will have a higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2: Educators who view cultural differences as deficits as opposed to assets will have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

RQ3: What is the relationship between the duration of teaching experience and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? ANOVAs were used to explore the relationship between years of teaching (using age as a surrogate) and CRTSE.

Hypothesis 1: Teachers who have taught for 10+ years (especially if they have not sought out professional development opportunities) will have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy since they most likely did not receive direct instruction on culturally responsive pedagogy in their teacher education programs at the higher education level.

Hypothesis 2: Teachers who have taught for 20+ years will have significantly lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

RQ4: What is the relationship between school locale type and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? ANOVAs were used to explore the relationship between geographic school location and CRTSE, especially using provided demographic information.

Hypothesis 1: Educators in rural districts will have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2: Educators in more urban districts will have a higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

After collecting demographic information and the scores from participants' ratings on each of the scales, the researcher investigated areas where educators possessed the highest and lowest levels of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancies, and culturally responsive classroom management expectancies.

Summary

The research utilized the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scale, Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) scale, and Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy (CRCME) scale in a three-part survey to provide educators an opportunity to assess their self-efficacy regarding the ability to implement culturally responsive teaching and leading standards. The results from the educators responding to the three-part survey using the CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCMSE scales were analyzed using frequencies, regression, and ANOVA tests to determine if the results had any significance.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter will present data collected from the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE), Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE), and Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy (CRCME) scales as they relate to educators' perceptions of culturally responsive teaching and leading. In doing so, the researcher will present findings regarding Illinois educators' preparation to implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. The results are provided in three sections: (a) demographic data, (b) reliability and validity scores of instruments based on the sample population, and (c) analysis of differences between CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME total scores and individual and organizational factors.

Demographics

Data collection began on September 9, 2022, and concluded on September 27, 2022. Four hundred thirty-nine participants were sent an invitation using their school email addresses via Qualtrics software. Out of these, 194 surveys were started, and 173 were completed. After sending an original email invitation (see Appendix C), a follow-up reminder email (see Appendix D) was then sent to the same potential participants.

The additional potential participants were recruited via two strategies: (a) emailing twelve K-12 school administrators throughout the state with a request to distribute the survey link to educators in their respective buildings, and (b) utilizing snowball sampling by asking participants to forward an invitation with the survey link to other teachers who fit the criteria as current K-12 educators in Illinois.

Two hundred thirty-five total individuals participated in the study. While the ideal sample size (n = 175) was reached on September 20, the researcher continued collecting responses for an additional week to potentially accumulate extra feedback should any of the original 175 not be fully complete. Sixty-one of the responses were eliminated from these data set due to incomplete participation, resulting in n = 179. Elimination was determined by the researcher by removing any survey on which a respondent had left a minimum of eight questions unanswered on any of the three individual sections, thus rendering it unusable given that at least one-third of an entire scale was incomplete.

Frequency distributions by the following factors are provided below to create an illustration of the sample population: gender and ethnicity, age, level of education and teaching location, and grade level currently teaching.

Gender and Ethnicity

In the current study, most respondents were Caucasian females (98.9% Caucasian, 77.1% female). In Illinois in 2020-2021 (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022c), 82% of the total 132, 354 K-12 teachers were Caucasian, and 76.9% of the same population were female.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution by Gender and Ethnicity

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	39	21.8
Female	138	77.1
Non-binary/3rd gender	1	.6
No response	1	.6
Total	179	100.0
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	177	98.9
Hispanic	1	.6
Native American	1	.6
Total	179	100.0

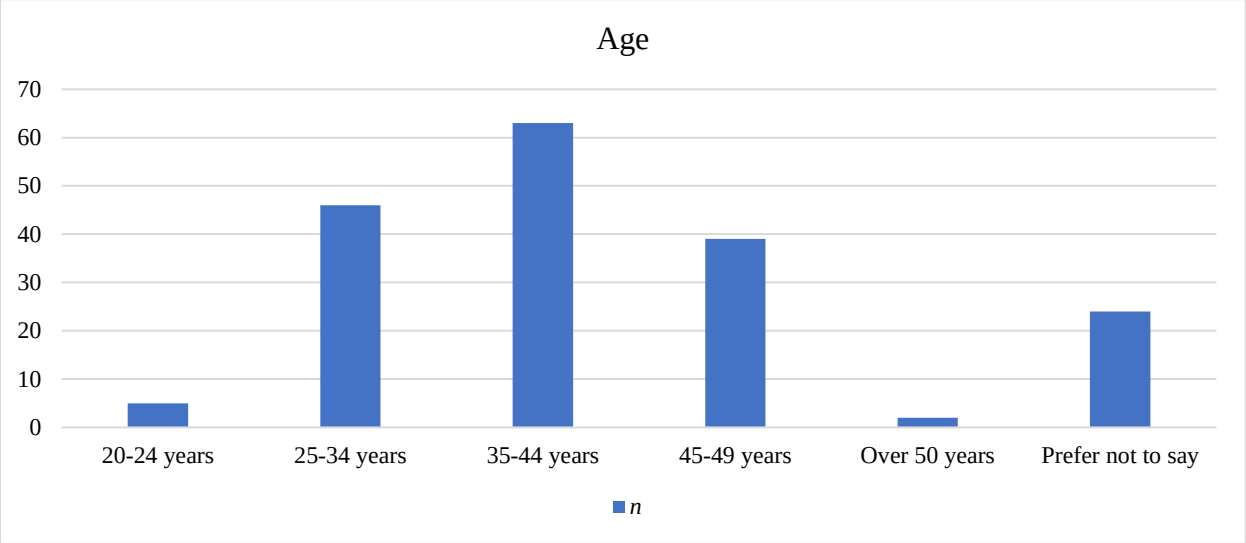
Age

Ages of respondents ranged from 20-24 years of age to over 50 years, and these demographics became especially important to the analysis of these data. While the researcher's original plan was to elicit data regarding overall total of years of teaching experience in participants' careers in the opening portion of the survey instrument, the researcher failed to include such a question in the demographic section that specifically requested information regarding these data. Since this would have been important in answering RQ1, a focus on age was used specifically to aid in trying to compensate for this error.

Mahali and Sevigny (2022) indicated that many researchers have explored how age impacts teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, reporting that the results of these have not yielded definitive nor conclusive results. However, Mahali and Sevigny (2022) also provided information from a study by Shaukat and Iqbal (2012, as cited in Mahali & Sevigny, 2022), showing that when comparing younger and older teachers, younger teachers scored higher on a teaching self-efficacy scale in the areas of classroom management and student engagement, though there was not statistical significance between their teaching self-efficacy regarding instruction. In the same study, Mahali and Sevigny (2022) also reported that multiple research studies indicated a positive correlation between age and teaching self-efficacy with efficacy ascending as age increases.

Figure 2

Frequency Distributions by Age



For one to become a certified K-12 educator in Illinois, this requires obtaining a teaching license and a minimum of a Bachelor's degree. Since 30.7% of participants indicated their highest degree earned at the Bachelor's level, part of the current study's sample includes this demographic. An individual, then, could hypothetically enter the teaching profession as young as age 20. Therefore, Table 2 indicates realistic years of experience if a traditional path is taken to enter this profession directly after college (if followed immediately after completing a secondary education).

Table 2

Projected Comparisons of Age to Years of Teaching Experience

Age	Years of experience
20-24	1-4
25-34	5-10
35-44	11-20
45-49	21-25
Over 50	Over 25

Note: The information presented is based on the categories included on the survey.

Another realistic possibility for educators is entering the profession later in life as opposed to via the direct path from secondary to post-secondary/earning a teaching license. For example, a participant in the study who indicated his/her age as 50 should not necessarily be assumed to have at least 25 years of teaching experience, for that individual's experience could be as little as one year. For this study, the researcher considered both situational occurrences in the analysis of these data. Additionally, the United States Department of Education (2022) reported that the mean age of K-12 teachers in the United States in 2018-2019 was 42.4 with 40.8 as the mean age for K-12 educators in Illinois.

Level of Education and Teaching Assignment

Of the total 132, 354 K-12 educators in Illinois in 2020-2021 (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022c), 59.5% had earned their Master's degree or higher, and 39.8% had earned their Bachelor's degree. In the current study, participants indicated similar data with 68.2% having earned a Master's degree or above and 30.7% having earned a Bachelor's degree as the highest level.

Respondents were also asked to provide information about the locations of their current teaching assignments. Most participants (87.2%) indicated teaching in a rural area while 6.1% of respondents specified an urban area. With the option of 'other' provided as a form field on the survey, participants could manually enter a response. 'Suburb'/'suburban' was a common response by those who provided a manual reply.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution by Level of Education and Teaching Location

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Highest level of education		
Master's degree or above	122	68.2
Bachelor's degree	55	30.7

High school	2	1.1
Total	179	100.0
Location of teaching		
Urban	11	6.1
Rural	154	87.2
Other[a]	11	6.1
Prefer not to say	1	6.6
Total	177	100.0

[a]responses include the following: located near St. Louis with amenities associated with an urban environment, suburbs/Chicago suburbs, youth center

For the question regarding grade level taught by survey participants, the researcher chose to allow for respondents to directly type in their answers, especially since educators possibly could teach multiple types of combinations of grades, even within a single school year. Data was categorized after participants manually entered their grade levels they were currently teaching at the time of responding. In reporting these data, the original grouping was going to consist of K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and 9-12. However, since not all educators are placed into these orderly categorizations, the researcher altered the classifications.

If an individual indicated that he/she taught any grade between kindergarten and second grade, those participants were placed into the K-2nd category. If any educators responded that he/she taught a grade in a kindergarten through fourth grade building, that was placed in a separate category. Individuals teaching any grades from third through fifth were placed in the 3rd-5th category, and those indicating teaching in a 4th-8th building and a 5th-8th building were placed in 4th-8th and 5th-8th categories respectively.

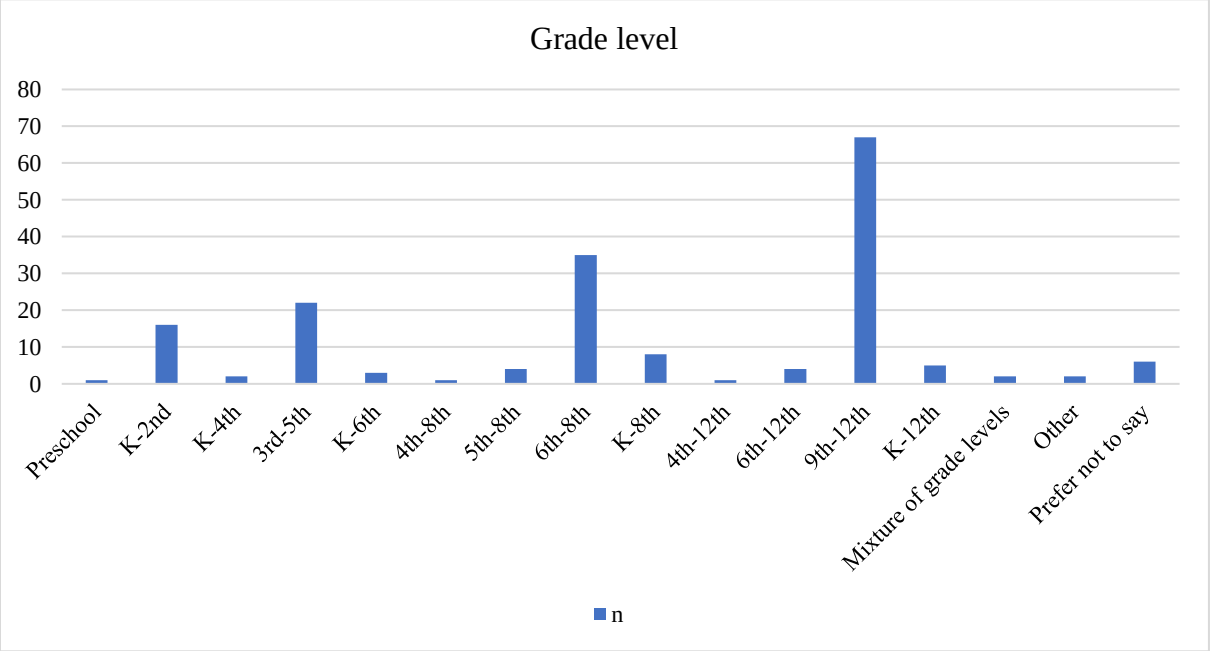
Teachers working in any of the sixth, seventh, or eighth grade levels were categorized in the 6th-8th group, and any teachers working with kindergarten through 8th grade specifically were placed in the K-8th category. Similarly, respondents indicating placement in a sixth through twelfth grade capacity were given the label of 6th-12th. The 6th-8th category accounted for the second highest volume of respondents participating in the current study.

If a participant indicated that he/she taught any grade between ninth and twelfth, then those responses were grouped into the 9th-12th category. Many of these responses included more than one grade taught within those four grade levels. This category accounted for the highest volume of respondents participating in the current study.

Those who indicated teaching a mixture of grade levels outside of K-2, 3-5, 6-8, 9-12 and any of the other previously mentioned pairings were placed in a category under the name of 'mixture of grade levels.' The final two categorizations were given to those who indicated that they preferred not to provide their grade level and those who typed 'other' into the response field.

Figure 3

Frequency Distributions by Grade Level Currently Teaching at the Time of the Survey



Validity and Reliability

Cronbach's alpha

Scales

An internal reliability analysis was conducted in the present survey on the CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME scales using the obtained sample population. For all items across the scales, $\alpha = .975$. George and Mallery (2003) reported that Cronbach's alpha above .9 indicates excellent reliable consistency. The researcher also compared this analysis with validity and reliability statistics that were used with the original instruments such as a study by Chu (2013), who indicated a minimum criterion of .70 alpha value. Chu's survey was piloted using Cronbach's alpha to determine internal consistency reliability with alpha coefficients of .95 on the CRTSE and .92 on the CRTOE. In a study by Siwatu et al. (2015), the researchers used Cronbach's alpha as well with alpha coefficients of .98 on the CRCME.

Subscales

In the original CRTSE study (Siwatu, 2007), no subscales were identified. However, as previously indicated, the researcher of the current study identified possible subscales before conducting the full survey. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were analyzed on each of the scales and subscales. Table 4 provides a summary of the reliability analyses. George and Mallery (2003) indicated that a Cronbach's alpha score above .8 is considered good, so the results show that all three scales with the exception of the instruction subscale on the CRTOE are valid and reliable instruments.

Table 4

Reliability Analysis on CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME Subscales

Scale	Subscale (# of items)	*M*	*SD*	α	*n*
CRTSE	Instruction/strategies/curriculum (13)	825.35	142.106	.862	178

	Obtaining student information (9)	645.54	110.943	.862	178
	School vs. home culture (5)	348.17	87.451	.845	178
	Assessment (1)	206.42	59.915	.866	178
	Trust/rapport (7)	523.78	56.037	.871	178
	Classroom environment (2)	148.17	31.302	.877	178
	Native language (2)	90.29	60.119	.880	178
	Communication (2)	136.67	37.731	.876	178
CRTOE	Relationships (4)	352.51	43.499	.832	173
	Instruction (9)	791.34	91.947	**.785**	173
	School vs. home culture (8)	663.21	111.561	.822	173
	Communication (2)	164.95	32.481	.871	173
	Visual aids/resources (3)	261.82	41.691	.843	173
CRCME	Assessment (1)	80.00	20.055	.876	175
	Discipline/behavior (12)	966.13	160.846	.855	175
	Learning environment (7)	562.33	110.283	.819	175
	Communication (5)	353.82	94.138	.826	175
	Instruction (5)	416.66	62.904	.834	175
	Collaboration (3)	268.53	33.692	.867	175
	Parent partnerships (2)	126.02	49.723	.847	175

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Respondents' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy was highest for the ability to do the following: develop a relationship with one's students (*M* = 91.78, *SD* = 10.50) and build a sense of trust in one's students (*M* =91.48, *SD* = 8.64). Item specific means were lowest among the sample regarding the ability to do the following: greet English Language Learners (ELLs) with a phrase in their native language (*M* =48.75, *SD* = 29.65) and praise ELLs for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language (*M* = 49.32, *SD* = 29.72).

Participants had a mean score of 3080.53 (*SD* = 2790.99). High scores on the CRTSE scale indicate a high sense of efficacy for engaging in specific instructional and non-instructional tasks associated with culturally responsive teaching. The scores for participants in this study ranged from 1491 to 4100.

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Respondents' culturally responsive teaching outcome expectancy was highest regarding the following beliefs: a positive teacher-students relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in one's students (M = 95.17, SD = 6.50) and connecting students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning (M =92.15, SD = 9.68). Item specific means were lowest among the sample regarding the following beliefs: changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class (M = 76.55, SD = 22.22) and the frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution (M = 76.86, SD = 20.07).

Participants had a mean score of 2234.38 (SD = 287.794). High scores on the CRTOE scale indicate a high sense of efficacy for engaging in specific instructional and non-instructional tasks associated with culturally responsive teaching. The scores for participants in this study ranged from 1072 to 2600.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy Scale

Respondents' culturally responsive classroom management expectancy was highest for the ability to do the following: clearly communicate classroom policies (M = 93.72, SD = 9.21) and establish routines for carrying out specific classroom tasks (M = 93.21, SD = 8.42). Item specific means were lowest among the sample regarding the ability to do the following: communicate with students' parents whose primary language is not English (M = 57.47, SD = 27.60) and establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents (M = 56.77, SD = 28.53).

Participants had a mean score of 2790.99 (*SD* = 456.360). High scores on the CRTSE scale indicate a high sense of efficacy for engaging in specific instructional and non-instructional tasks associated with culturally responsive teaching. The scores for participants in this study ranged from 1285 to 3500.

Strength Scores

As previously mentioned, strength scores on the CRTSE scale ranged from 1491 to 4100. If a respondent answered 100 for complete confidence on each of the questions on the CRTSE survey, that value would equal 4100. When analyzing the mean scores from the sample (*n* = 174), five scores were removed from this analysis due to failure to respond to each of the questions. The mean scores for individual questions ranged from 47.58 to 91.60.

Values for overall strength scores were determined by dividing the overall possible strength score (100) into thirds to create designations of low, medium, and high levels of confidence. Scores between 0-33 were deemed low, scores between 34-67 were deemed medium, and scores between 68-100 were deemed high.

For the CRTSE scale, scores from all factors excluding 12 total were deemed high with all others falling in the medium category. Table 5 shows the factors deemed as medium.

Table 5

CRTSE Strength Score Means Deemed as Medium

Question	*M*
Greet English language learners with a phrase in their native language	47.58
Praise English language learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language	47.96
Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics	49.32
Communicate with parents of English language learners regarding their children's achievement	53.55
Teach students about their cultures' contributions to science	57.84
Model classroom tasks to enhance English language learners' understanding	61.23
Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased toward culturally diverse students	62.08

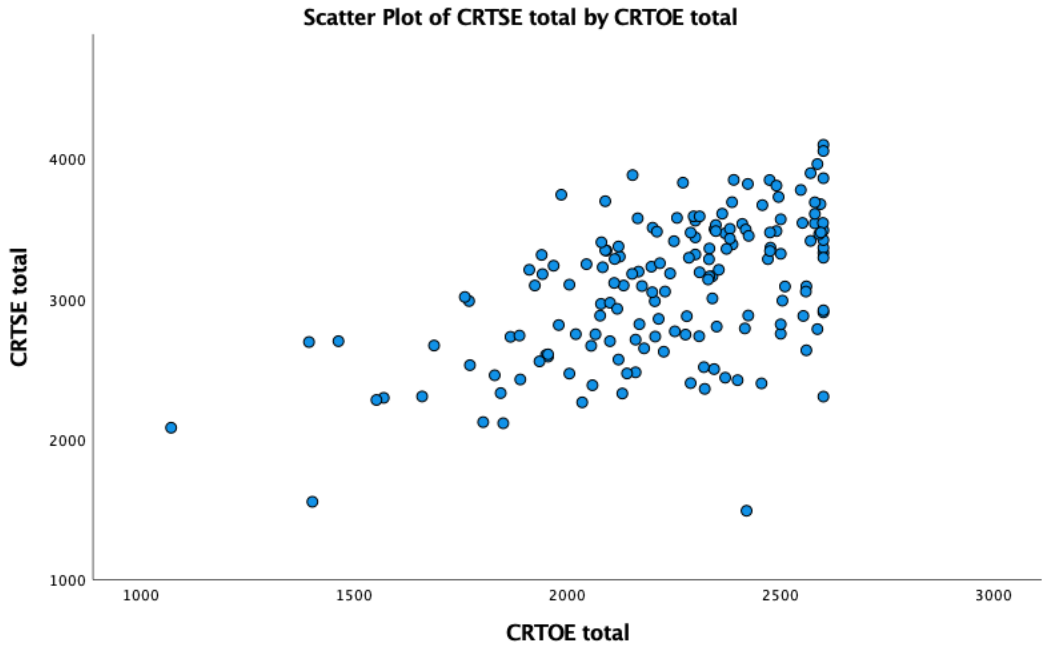
Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased toward linguistically diverse students	62.14
Use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds	63.32
Design a classroom environment using displays that reflect a variety of cultures	62.83
Teach students about their cultures' contributions to society	64.59
Revise instructional materials to include a better representation of cultural groups	66.99

As mentioned earlier, strength scores on the CRTOE scale ranged from 1072 to 2600. If a respondent answered 100 for complete confidence on each of the questions on the CRTOE survey, that value would equal 2600. When analyzing the mean scores from the sample (n = 174), five scores were removed from this analysis due to failure to respond to each of the questions. The mean scores for individual questions ranged from 75.49 to 94.74.

Figure 4

Scatter Plot of CRTSE Total by CRTOE Total

For the CRTOE scale, scores from all factors were deemed high.



As indicated in a prior section, strength scores on the CRCME scale ranged from1285 to 3500. If a respondent answered 100 for complete confidence on each of the questions on the

CRCME survey, that value would equal 3500. When analyzing the mean scores from the sample (n = 174), values five scores were removed from this analysis due to failure to respond to each of the questions. The mean scores for individual questions ranged from 56.12 to 93.18.

For the CRCME scale, scores from all factors excluding six total were deemed high with all others falling in the medium category. Table 6 shows the factors deemed as medium.

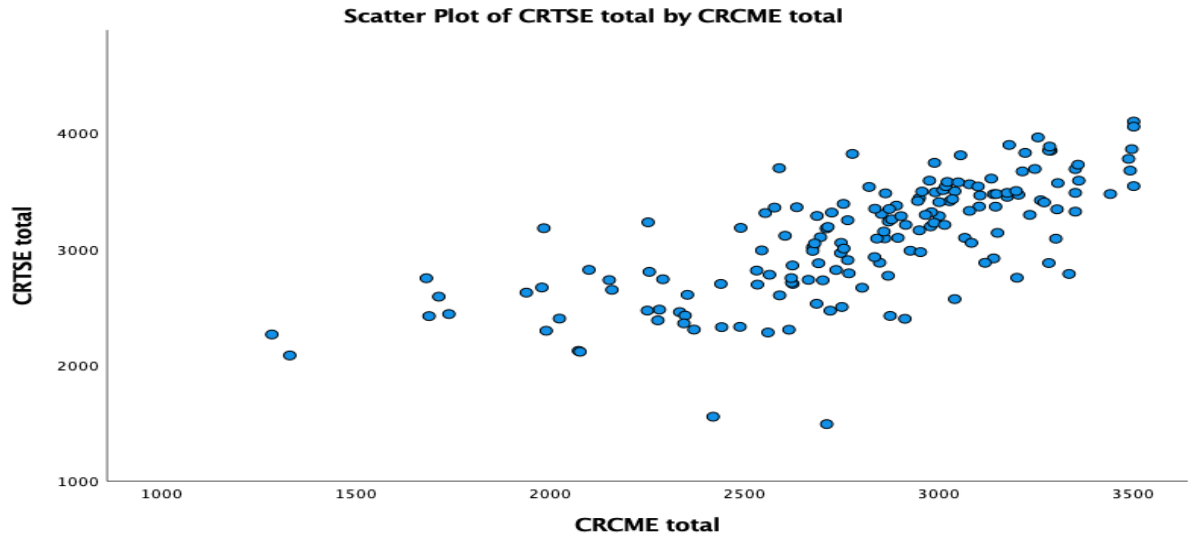
Table 6

CRCME Strength Score Means Deemed as Medium

Question	*M*
Communicate with students' parents whose primary language is not English	56.12
Establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents	56.27
Use culturally appropriate methods to relate to parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds	60.02
Modify aspects of the classroom so that it matches aspects of students' home culture	65.56
Implement an intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a student's culturally-based behavior is not consistent with social norms	66.43
Develop a partnership with parents from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds	67.78

Figure 5

Scatter Plot of CRTSE Total by CRCME Total



Research Questions

This study consisted of four research questions. Linear regression was utilized to analyze data for the first two research questions, an independent samples t-test was used for question one, and ANOVAs were computed with the data for the last two research questions. Data was inspected for assumptions of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and the factors that can affect and/or influence this belief for educators.

Research Question 1

The purpose of the first research question was to determine the relationship between educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy and their implementation of Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. Two hypotheses were created for RQ1: (a) educators with positive views of culturally responsive pedagogy will have a higher confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois CRTLS, and (b) educators who are unsure of their views of culturally responsive pedagogy will have a low confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois CRTLS.

Linear regression was decided upon as a suitable procedure for analyzing the relationships and associations among variables. The researcher first utilized linear regression analysis with CRTSE total score as the dependent variable and CRTOE total score as the independent variable. The total score indicates the overall strength score measure, or the respondents' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. The linear regression explained 28% of the variance in the CRTSE total score, $F(1, 164) = 64.17$, $p < .01$ (see Table 7). The b weight for the CRTOE does not include a zero, indicating that the estimate is statistically significant (see Table 8), suggesting that the results for each of the independent variable are precise enough to be

retained in the model. Closer inspection of these data suggests that with every unit increase in the CRTSE, there will be a .926 unit increase in the CRTOE.

Table 7

Model Summary of CRTOE on CRTSE

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*	R Square
Regression	11345341.8	1	11345341.8	64.173	<.001	.281
Residual	28994179.6	164	176793.8			
Total	40339521.4	165				

Table 8

Coefficients for CRTOE Total Score

Model			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	95% Confidence Interval for B	
	p	t	B	Std. Error	Beta	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	.000	3.899	1014.7	260.9		499.552	1529.947
CRTOE Total Score	.000	8.011	.926	.116	.530	.698	1.154

Linear regression analysis was also used with CRTSE total score as the dependent variable and CRCME as the independent variable. This model explained 50% of the variance in the CRTSE total score, $F(1, 162) = 161.81$, $p < .01$ (see Table 9). The b weight for the CRCME also does not include a zero, indicating that the estimate is statistically significant (see Table 10), suggesting that the results for each of the independent variable are precise enough to be retained in the model. Closer inspection of these data suggests that with every unit increase in the CRTSE, there will be a .802 unit increase in the CRCME.

Table 9

Model Summary of CRCME on CRTSE

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*	R Square
Regression	19799899.3	1	19799899.3	161.81	<.001	.500
Residual	19823427.6	162	122366.8			
Total	39623326.9	163				

Table 10

Coefficients for CRCME Total Score

Model			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	95% Confidence Interval for B	
	p	t	B	Std. Error	Beta	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	<.001	4.723	844.34	178.8		491.34	1197.34
CRTOE Total Score	<.001	12.72	.802	.063	.707	.678	.927

Individual Factors

It was also of interest to assess differences in demographic variables (i.e., age and gender) as they related to subscales and total scores of the CRTSE. In terms of age, due to the largest sample sizes existing in the groups of 25 to 34 (n = 46), 35 to 44 (n = 60), and 45 to 49 (n = 39), independent samples t-test were used to assess mean differences in these groups in respect to the subscales and total score of the CRSTE (see Table 11). The only grouping that demonstrated a statistically significant difference was found between the group that reported ages between 35 and 44 and the group that reported ages between 45 and 49 on the school vs. home subscale, $t(100) = -1.914$, $p < .05$. This same group was approaching a statistically significant difference on the native language subscale, $t(100) = -1.450$, $p = .075$.

Table 11

Independent Samples t-test for Age and CRTSE Subscales and Total Score

CRTSE	Age	*M*	*t*	df	*p*
Instruction/strategies /curriculum	25-34 years 35-44 years	826.93 825.97	.037	106	.485
	35-44 years 45-49 years	825.97 837.72	-.379	99	.353
	25-34 years 45-49 years	826.93 837.72	-.347	83	.365
Obtaining student information	25-34 years 35-44 years	645.20 638.21	.327	107	.485
	35-44 years 45-49 years	638.21 655.64	-.794	100	.215
	25-34 years 45-49 years	645.20 655.64	-.447	83	.328
School vs. home culture	25-34 years 35-44 years	343.48 330.78	.757	107	.225
	35-44 years 45-49 years	330.78 366.41	-1.914	100	.029*
	25-34 years 45-49 years	343.48 366.41	-1.280	83	.102
Assessment	25-34 years 35-44 years	207.96 199.35	.761	107	.224
	35-44 years 45-49 years	199.35 211.00	-.923	100	.179
	25-34 years 45-49 years	207.96 211.00	-.227	83	.410
Trust/rapport	25-34 years 35-44 years	521.52 519.59	.164	107	.435
	35-44 years 45-49 years	519.59 532.77	-1.202	100	.116
	25-34 years 45-49 years	521.52 532.77	-.889	83	.186
Classroom environment	25-34 years 35-44 years	147.89 146.10	.305	107	.435
	35-44 years 45-49 years	146.10 154.41	-1.246	100	.108
	25-34 years 45-49 years	147.89 154.41	-.951	83	.172
Native language	25-34 years 35-44 years	92.00 81.60	.927	107	.178
	35-44 years 45-49 years	81.60 99.64	-1.450	100	.075**
	25-34 years	92.00	-.588	83	.279

	45-49 years	99.64			
Communication	25-34 years	132.33	-.218	107	.414
	35-44 years	133.95			
	35-44 years	133.95	-.867	100	.194
	45-49 years	141.10			
	25-34 years	132.33	-1.085	83	.141
	45-49 years	141.10			
Total Score	25-34 years	3094.11	.675	103	.250
	35-44 years	3031.40			
	35-44 years	3031.40	-.973	97	.167
	45-49 years	3136.33			
	25-34 years	3094.11	-.384	82	.351
	45-49 years	3136.33			

*$p < .05$
**$p < .10$

With regards to gender, males accounted for 39 participants while females accounted for 137 participants. An independent samples t-test was used to assess mean differences in these groups in respect to the subscales and total score on the CRSTE (see Table 12). Initial examination of these data indicated that the test for homogeneity of variance was not significant, as such equal variances can be assumed. The only subscale that did not demonstrate a statistically significant difference based on gender was the native language subscale, $t(175) = .058$, $p = .477$. On average, females scored higher on all subscales and total score when compared to the average male scores.

Table 12

Independent Samples t-test for Teaching Location and CRTSE Subscales and Total Score

CRTSE	Gender	*M*	*t*	df	*p*
Instruction/strategies /curriculum	Male	789.64	-1.818	174	.035*
	Female	836.34			
Obtaining student information	Male	577.10	-4.371	175	<.001*
	Female	662.27			
School vs. home culture	Male	316.59	-2.447	175	.008*
	Female	355.63			
Assessment	Male	186.64	-2.292	175	.012*
	Female	211.46			
Trust/rapport	Male	502.92	-2.403	175	.009*

	Female	527.86			
Classroom environment	Male	140.31	-1.718	175	.044*
	Female	150.11			
Native language	Male	89.44	-.058	175	.477
	Female	90.07			
Communication	Male	126.95	-1.658	175	.050*
	Female	138.45			
Total Score	Male	2875.89	-2.886	169	.002*
	Female	3137.23			

*$p < .05$

Research Question 2

The purpose of the second research question was to explore the relationship between an educator's understanding of cultural assets/deficits and CRTSE and the CRCME. As previously reported in chapters one and two, asset thinking is defined by focusing upon strengths of each student and viewing diversity as positive assets, especially regarding thought, culture, and individual traits. The characteristics that students bring into the classroom are seen as valuable attributes rather than detrimental deterrents (Davis & Beyerbach, 2009; Gay, 2013). In this same regard, students' cultural capital – the accumulation of culturally-based knowledge and skills that individuals can use in settings other than in just their original context, especially as transferred from outside the classroom to the learning environment (Paris, 2012) – is considered on the part of educators.

The researcher conjectured two hypotheses for research question two: (a) educators who understand the importance of recognizing cultural assets as opposed to viewing them as deficits will have a higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, and (b) educators who view cultural differences as deficits as opposed to assets will have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and a lesser preparedness level to implement the Illinois CRTLS.

The researcher identified items from the scales that assessed cultural assets/deficits and used this score as the independent variable to assess effects on CRTSE total score and CRCME

total score via linear regressions. For the CRTSE, this model explained 27% of the variance in the CRTSE total score, $F(1, 161) = 60.15$, $p < .01$ (see Table 13). The b weight of this model does not include a zero, indicating that the estimate is statistically significant (see Table 14). Closer inspection of these data suggests that with every unit increase in the CRTSE, there will be a 1.447 unit increase in the grouped items.

Table 13

Model Summary of Assets/Deficits on CRTSE

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*	R Square
Regression	10853099.8	1	10853099.8	60.146	<.001	.272
Residual	29051939.4	161	180446.8			
Total	39905039.2	162				

Table 14

Coefficients for Assets/Deficits on CRTSE

Model			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	95% Confidence Interval for B	
	p	t	B	Std. Error	Beta	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	<.001	4.287	844.34	258.1		596.636	1615.976
CRTOE Total Score	<.001	7.755	.802	.187	.522	1.078	1.815

For the CRCME, this model explained 37% of the variance in the CRTSE total score, $F(1, 159) = 60.15$, $p < .01$ (see Table 15). The b weight of this also model does not include a zero, indicating that the estimate is statistically significant (see Table 16). Closer inspection of these data suggests that with every unit increase in the CRCME, there will be a 1.487 unit increase in the grouped items.

Table 15

Model Summary of Assets/Deficits on CRCME

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*	R Square
Regression	11942049.6	1	11942049.6	93.328	<.001	.370
Residual	20345320.7	159	127957.992			
Total	32287370.2	160				

Table 16

Coefficients for Assets/Deficits on CRCME

Model			Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	95% Confidence Interval for B	
	p	t	B	Std. Error	Beta	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	<.001	3.610	767.11	212.5		347.487	1186.722
CRTOE Total Score	<.001	9.661	1.487	.154	.608	1.183	1.791

The means and standard deviations for the subscales on the CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME are shown in tables 17, 18, and 19.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Subscales on the CRTSE

Subscale	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Curriculum	825.35	142.106	178
Student information	644.07	112.384	179
School vs. home culture	346.87	88.945	179
Assessment	205.87	60.197	179
Trust/rapport	522.69	57.763	179
Classroom environment	147.81	315.92	179
Native language	89.93	60.142	179
Communication	136.13	38.313	179

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for Subscales on the CRTOE

Subscale	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Relationships	351.47	43.797	179
Instruction	788.84	94.836	179

School vs. home culture	660.80	114.307	177
Communication	165.11	32.309	179
Visual aids	261.33	41.800	177

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations for Subscales on the CRCME

Subscale	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Assessment	80.09	20.063	179
Discipline/behavior	966.10	160.588	178
Learning environment	561.99	109.315	179
Communication	353.50	94.571	177
Instruction	416.33	63.662	177
Collaboration	268.27	34.045	179
Parent partnerships	125.41	49.845	179

The ranges for responses on the subscales of the CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME are shown in tables 20, 21, and 22.

Table 20

Range of Responses for Subscales on the CRTSE

Subscale	Range
Curriculum	412-1100
Student information	151-800
School vs. home culture	63-500
Assessment	24-300
Trust/rapport	281-600
Classroom environment	60-200
Native language	0-200
Communication	0-200

Table 21

Range of Responses for Subscales on the CRTOE

Subscale	Range
Relationships	130-400
Instruction	328-900
School vs. home culture	312-800

Communication	50-200
Visual aids	38-300

Table 22

Range of Responses for Subscales on the CRCME

Subscale	Range
Assessment	0-100
Discipline/behavior	436-1200
Learning environment	85-700
Communication	90-500
Instruction	159-500
Collaboration	121-300
Parent partnerships	0-200

Research Question 3

The purpose of research question three was to determine the relationship between the duration of teaching experience and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. As indicated toward the beginning of this chapter, age was heavily relied upon as opposed to duration of teaching experience due to the researcher's error in excluding a demographic question specifically eliciting total years of teaching overall in one's career.

Two hypotheses were created: (a) teachers who have taught for 10+ years (especially if they have not sought out professional development opportunities) will have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy since they most likely did not receive direct instruction in CRP in their teacher education programs at the higher education level, and (b) teachers who have taught for 20+ years will have an exceptionally lower CRTSE level.

Age was used as a substitution for years taught in drawing conclusions for RQ3. A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effect of age on CRTSE. The ANOVA revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in CRTSE between age groups, $F(5, 167) = .297$, $p = .914$ (see Table 23).

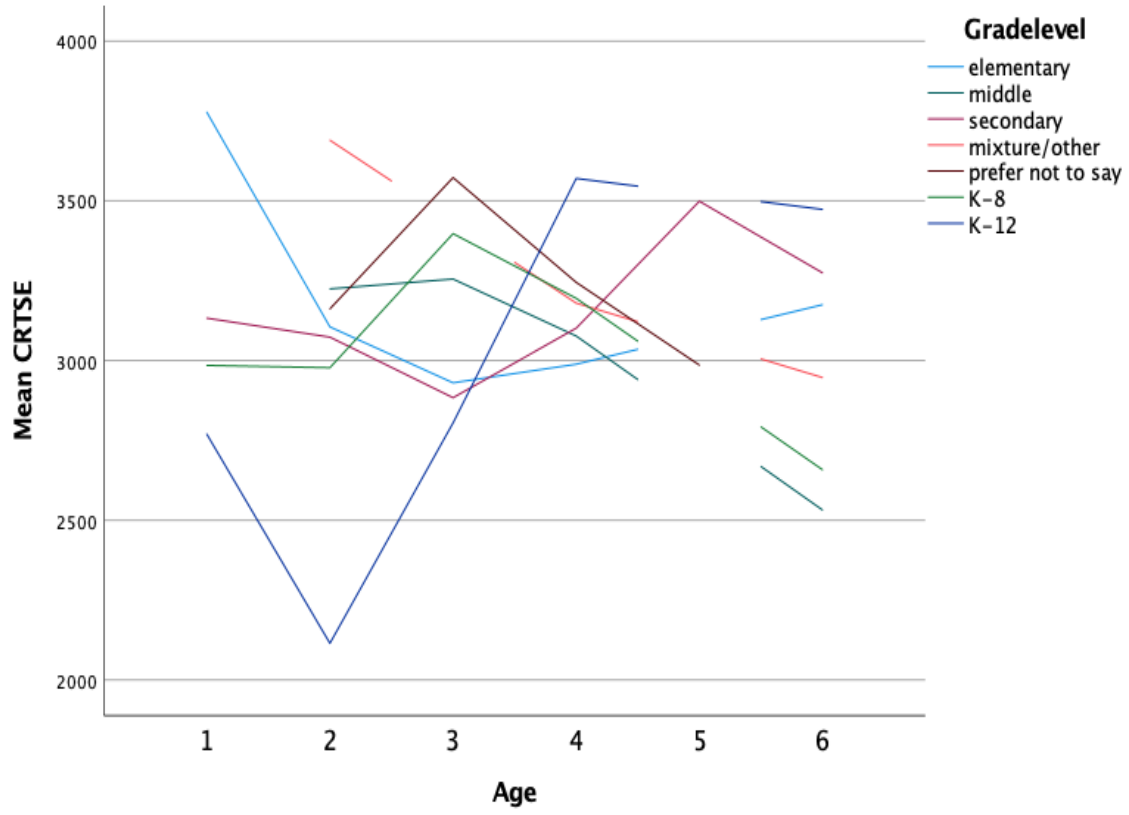
Table 23

One Way ANOVA for CRTSE and Age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	*p*
Between groups	372747.367	5	74549.473	.297	.914
Within groups	4195659.8	167	251249.60		
Total	42331407.1	172			

Figure 6

Line Graph for CRTSE and Age



Research Question 4

The purpose of the final research question was to examine the relationship between school locale type and CRTSE. The two hypotheses developed for this question are as follows: (1) educators in rural districts will have a lower CRTSE, and (b) educators in more urban districts will have a higher CRTSE. (Determination of urban districts was self-determined by

respondents and indicated as a categorical variable.) The ANOVA revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in CRTSE between teaching location groups, $F(2, 169) = 1.069$, $p = .346$ (see Table 24); nor between teaching location specified groups, $F(3, 169) = 1.301$, $p = .276$ (see Table 25).

Table 24

One Way ANOVA for CRTSE and Teaching Location

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	*p*
Between groups	524886.658	2	262443.329	1.069	.346
Within groups	41484841.4	169	245472.434		
Total	42009728.0	171			

Figure 7

Line Graph for CRTSE and Teaching Location

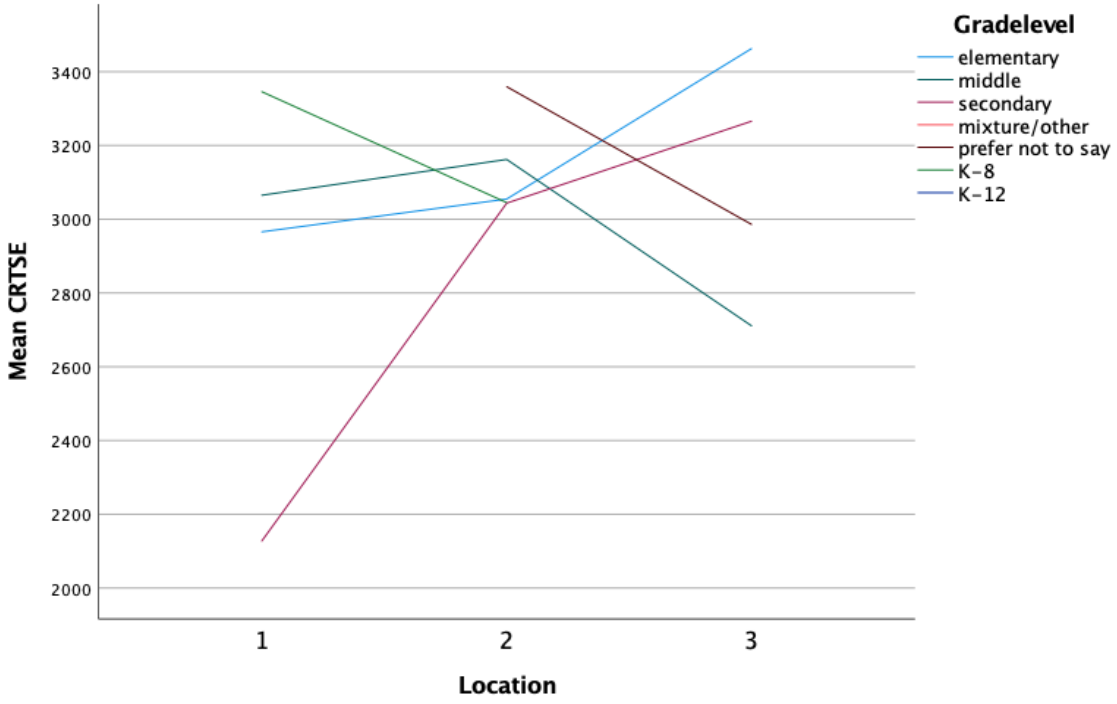


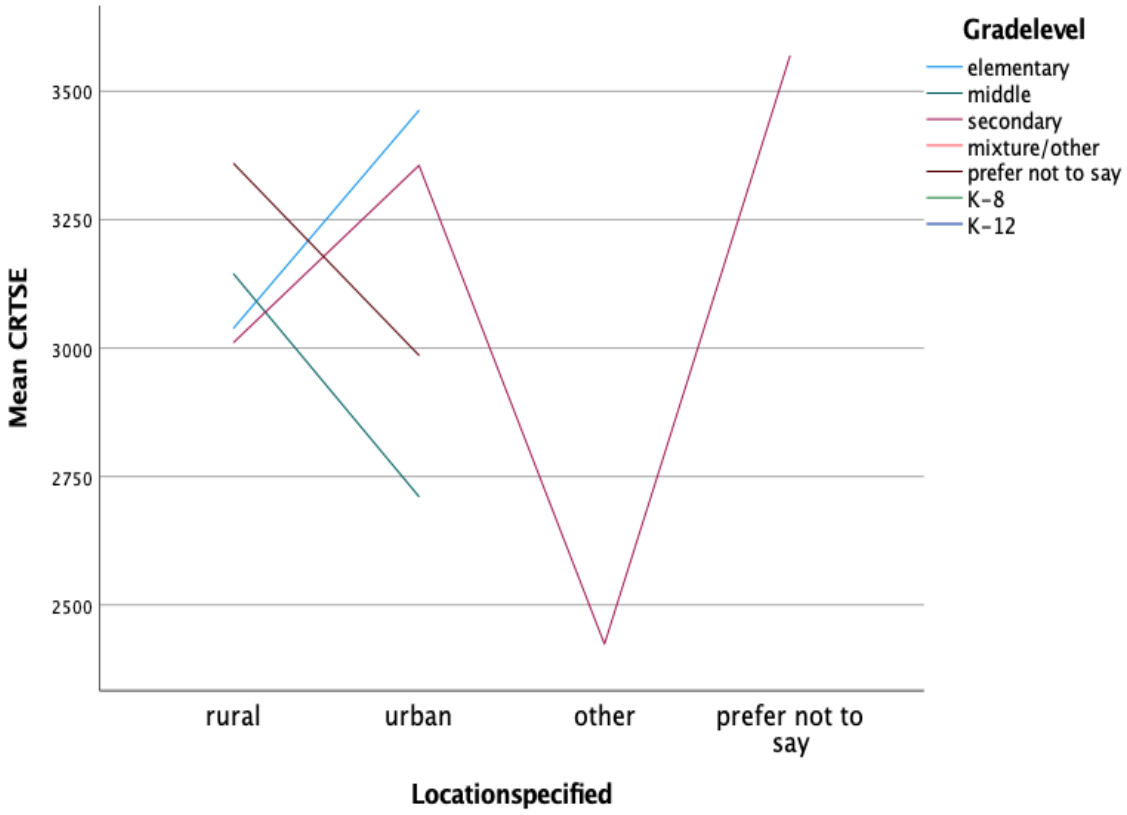
Table 25

One Way ANOVA for CRTSE and Teaching Location Specified

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	*p*
Between groups	955740.855	3	318580.285	1.301	.276
Within groups	41375666.3	169	244826.428		
Total	42331407.1	172			

Figure 8

Line Graph for CRTSE and Teaching Location Specified



Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the demographic data, reliability and validity scores of instruments based on the sample population, and analyses of differences between CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME total scores and individual and organizational factors. Linear regressions, independent samples t-tests, ANOVAs, and descriptive analyses were presented.

The following chapter will provide a discussion of the results, limitations to the study, and implications for future research.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study provide a look at Illinois educators' teaching self-efficacy, teaching outcome expectancy, and classroom management expectancy beliefs as they relate to cultural responsiveness. In this chapter, the researcher will discuss the results and explain the implications of the study through an integration of the current literature and research provided in chapter two. The sections contained within this chapter are as follows: overview of the study, description of its limitations, summation and interpretation of the analysis, and directions for future research.

Overview

The overarching goal of this study was to discern the levels of preparedness of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy for Illinois teachers, especially when examining the relationships between educators' levels of CRTSE and their views of a variety of aspects of culturally responsive pedagogy. In the initial stages of the project, the researcher chose to focus on Illinois teachers' preparation levels to implement culturally responsive pedagogy in conjunction with the state's Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards (CRTLS). The CRTLS include a focus on teachers' self-awareness and relationship to others; systems of oppression; students as individuals; students as co-creators; leveraging student advocacy; family and community collaboration; content selections in all curricula; and student representation in the learning environment (see Appendix A). To provide equal access to all students, thus allowing them to take rightful advantage of their education (Sander et al., 2011), these standards have been formally adopted by the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE). Since the language in ISBE's mandate for educators is not overly specific and only explicit language regarding

incorporating direct instruction at the higher education level for pre-service teachers in Illinois institutions is present, this potentially leaves current Illinois educators to contemplate their preparedness to implement these standards.

In a review of literature, the researcher discovered a lack of attention paid to in-service teachers and those teaching in rural areas. The population for this study included both of those demographics. A combination of the literature review and the study's results indicated the importance of assessing CRTSE for the sample population to help provide a widened scope of this type of self-efficacy as the October 2025 date for implementing Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards nears.

The researcher chose to survey a sample of the population of K-12 educators in Illinois since the research focused on the CRTLS. Using a sample size calculator to determine an ideal sample size, the researcher found that $n = 175$ with a 95% confidence level and a 7% margin of error. This margin of error was deemed an acceptable percentage at the 95% confidence level.

Taking multiple suggestions from Dillman and colleague's (2014) Tailored Design Method, the researcher constructed an invitation for possible participants, and after two weeks of data collection, the ideal sample size was reached. However, caution was used before proceeding with the foresight that not every survey would necessarily be fully completed. Upon examination of a random selection from the sample, the researcher discovered that multiple surveys did need to be eliminated due to an incomplete nature. The average number of questions on each of the scales is 34, and therefore if more than approximately eight questions on a single scale were not answered, the researcher chose to remove that survey from the sample. After five extra days of data collection, 179 participants had provided usable surveys for analysis.

Assessing this sample of Illinois educators' preparedness to implement the Illinois CRTLS can potentially aid in determining areas of need for professional development for teachers, especially in the areas indicated by participants' low CRTSE. These types of professional development experiences can then serve to reduce achievement gaps indicated in the literature as those negatively affecting underserved populations of diverse students. Professional development in turn leads to better professional practices (Evans, 2017) which, in this case, is related to culturally responsive teaching and leading as directed in the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards.

Theories Used in the Study

Multiple theories were utilized in the study. The theoretical framework for this quantitative study originated in Bandura's (1977) work with social cognitive theory on self-efficacy and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The culturally responsive teaching theory (Gay, 2003) along with the theory of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2007) were also part of the theoretical and conceptual framework for the study. These theories were used to describe teachers' levels of preparedness to implement culturally responsive teaching.

By using the theoretical framework of the self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977) and the sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), the researcher was able to ground the plan for executing the study. Since the focus centered on teachers' beliefs in their abilities to implement culturally responsive teaching and leading, Bandura's (1977) work with social cognitive theory was instrumental in devising the study at its inception. Bandura (1977) posited that individuals with high self-efficacy believe in themselves and exhibit high performance while the opposite is true of those with low self-efficacy, stating that individuals who lack confidence in themselves end up with lower performance rates. This became a logical theory to utilize for the current type of

study, especially since Bandura (1977) also stated that individuals with strong levels of self-efficacy consequently set higher goals for themselves and display a stronger sense of commitment to those goals (Bandura, 1977).

Vygotsky's (1978) construct of the zone of proximal development in his sociocultural theory was utilized as a second part of the theoretical framework in the study. Since Vygotsky (1978) explained that cultural conditions directly contribute to an individual's development, this provided context for teachers to use scaffolding to maximize learning and mastery. With P-20 educators and leaders' existence as agents within the zone of proximal development, embracing students' cultural capital and funds of knowledge becomes an important part of maximizing learning among all students. As such, Vygotsky's (1978) research on the effects of society and culture on learning, especially concerning diverse populations of students, became an integral part of the theoretical framework of the study.

Additionally, the teaching self-efficacy theory (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), culturally responsive teaching theory (Gay, 2002), and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy theory (Siwatu, 2007) were utilized so that culturally responsive self-efficacy beliefs for Illinois teachers were able to be examined. These theories supported the rationale for devising a research project that explored these beliefs with the goal of informing P-20 leaders of educators' potential needs to implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards by October 2025. Each theory aided in the goal of affecting social change regarding teachers' culturally responsive self-efficacy and competencies.

Using the work of Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), the researcher explored the importance of teacher self-efficacy to influence decisions made in the educational environment due to a teacher's belief in what he/she can accomplish. Furthermore, the researcher investigated

Siwatu's (2007) work that utilized teacher self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) to define culturally responsive teacher self-efficacy as a separate concept focusing specifically on educators' beliefs in themselves to effectively provide culturally responsive and appropriate instruction to students from all cultures, especially in a manner that capitalizes on funds of knowledge and cultural capital.

Furthermore, the theory of culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2003) also provided a basis of the study's framework. Gay (2003) stated that educators who provide an environment where students are culturally respected demonstrate this practice, and culturally responsive teaching theory calls for the prioritization of differentiated teaching methods to fit the cultural needs of all students (Gay, 2003). Combining this theory with Siwatu's theory of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (CRTSE) allowed for the researcher to investigate the beliefs of the sample population regarding building cultural competence and academic student achievement (Ladson-Billings, 1995b).

Limitations of the Study

The research for this quantitative study was completed using data obtained by administering a three-part survey, the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2007), the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scale (Siwatu, 2007), and the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy scale (Siwatu et al., 2015). Combined, this multi-faceted instrument drew upon the theories mentioned above.

One potential limitation of the study was participants' authenticity and openness in their responses to the survey. Participants voluntarily completed surveys individually and were not compensated in any way. The surveys contain statements that represented attitudes or beliefs towards specific groups of individuals and the participants' own perceptions of their educational

abilities along with their perception of the importance of specified instructional practices. The participants' responses concerning their culturally responsive teaching beliefs and expectancy of the value of culturally responsive practices may have limitations. Personal self-reporting measures can be disingenuous since various participants may harbor biases (Gall et al., 2007).

Given that participants varied by a range of factors, this may have influenced their interpretation of the survey items. Furthermore, depending on the timeframe when data collection occurred, this could have affected participants' responses. A range of stressors may also have varied by participant.

Another limitation of this study involves issues related to sample size. The projected sample size (n = 175) depended upon voluntary participation in the study. The overall sample size ultimately reached (n = 179) could be reduced in some analyses based on individual variables, and statistical analyses were contingent upon the sample size. A small sample size would impact statistical authority and possibly lead to Type I error, which could then result in misleading results.

One further limitation was the omission of the intended demographic question regarding cumulative years spent teaching. Had these data been collected, more precise conclusions could have been drawn regarding how the number of years taught impact teachers' beliefs as opposed to estimating this based solely upon a reliance on age ranges. The researcher could have assessed how these totals potentially could have (or have not) impacted teachers' culturally teaching self-efficacy beliefs.

Summation and Interpretation of the Analysis

Overall, the findings from multiple areas of the demographic data elicited from participants aligned with the most recent data regarding the Illinois teaching population. The

Illinois State Board of Education (2022c) presented findings that 82% of K-12 educators in the 2020-2021 school year were Caucasian. Of the same population, 76.9% were female. In the current study, 98.9% of the respondents were Caucasian, and 77.1% were female, thus allowing for a relevant representation of Illinois's K-12 teaching population. The National Center for Education Statistics (2022) reported their most recent data from 2017-2018 that the average age of educators in Illinois was 40.9. While the mean age is not determinable based on the way these data was collected on ages of participants, the largest population who responded indicated to be in the 35-44 years of age range. All categorized ages were represented, with the second greatest percentage of participants represented by the 25-34 category, followed by the 45-49 year category, then the category in which respondents preferred not to state their age, followed by the 20-24 year category and the over 50 year category as having the least amount of respondents.

The level of education of respondents also provides an adequate representation of the state's K-12 teaching population since 59.5% of K-12 educators in 2020-2021 had earned their Master's degree or higher and 39.8% had earned their Bachelor's degree as the highest post-secondary level degree earned (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022c). In the current study, 68.2% reported earning a Master's degree or above, and 30.7% responded that they had earned a Bachelor's degree at the highest level of post-secondary degree level work.

The Illinois State Board of Education does publish data regarding urban versus rural locale designations, but the most recent data set (Illinois State Board, 2022) is not comprehensive. Though the researcher did not locate data regarding Illinois's teaching population in rural versus urban areas, given the total number of square miles in the state that are rural and the number of schools located throughout all of those areas, it logically follows that Illinois's teaching population includes an abundance of rural educators. As such, 87.2% of

participants in the current study may adequately represent Illinois's teaching population. Only 6.1% indicated to teach in an urban area. Another 6.1% responded with 'other' and then proceeded to indicate suburban as a greater specification.

The responses for the grade levels taught at the time of the survey ranged from preschool to twelfth grade. One respondent also indicated an assignment as an administrator in a K-12 school as opposed to an educator. Even though preschool educators and administrators were not part of the original intended sample, due to snowball sampling methods used, this reported data is not surprising and was used in the analysis.

Strength Scores

To summatively analyze these data from the three scales, scores from each participant on individual questions were entered into a spreadsheet and then color coded regarding low/medium/high strength scores as indicated in chapter four (0-33 = low/34-67 = medium/68-100 = high). An examination of the spreadsheet provided a representation of all three levels across the tiers. However, most scores were coded as high, especially on the CRTOE on which all mean scores, too, fell within the high category. On the CRTSE, only twelve of the 41 mean scores were categorized as medium, and none of the means fell within the low range. On the CRCME, only six of the 35 mean scores were placed in the medium category, and like the other two scales, none of the mean scores were given the designation of low.

Further examination of the coded scores showed that few categories were primarily coded as red or yellow; instead, an abundance of red or yellow fell among individual's responses. For example, if a respondent indicated a low score on multiple questions, that was isolated to that individual and not necessarily representative of the entire population on single questions. The lowest scores on the instrument related to native languages and communication, including

communicating and developing partnerships with parents from linguistically diverse backgrounds.

Subscales

When analyzing the subscales on the CRTSE scale, the means of the curriculum, student information, school vs. home culture, assessment, trust/rapport, and classroom environment were all scores close to the maximum score possible on those subscales. The only subscale means not close to the maximum scores possible were the native language and communication subscales. When analyzing the subscales on the CRTOE scale, the means of all subscales were close to the maximum possible scores. When analyzing the subscales on the CRCME scale, the means of the assessment, discipline/behavior, learning environment, communication, instruction, and collaboration were all scores close to the maximum score possible on those subscales. Only the communication and parent partnerships subscales' means were not close to the maximum score possible.

These findings represent high levels of teachers' overall culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, culturally responsive outcome expectancy, and culturally responsive classroom management expectancy beliefs as a whole, a representation that leads the researcher to believe that Illinois teachers are either already implementing culturally responsive teaching pedagogy and/or mainly feel prepared to implement the new Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. The native language (CRTSE), communication (CRTSE), communication (CRCME), and parent partnerships (CRCME) subscales will be explored within the discussion of the individual research questions that follows.

Research Questions

Below the researcher will explore possible explanations for the findings for each of the four research questions in the study.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked the following: What is the relationship between educators' views of culturally responsive pedagogy and their implementation of culturally responsive teaching and leading standards? By conducting linear regression analysis to explore the relationship between views of culturally responsive pedagogy and CRTSE, especially variables on the CRTOE scale, the researcher concluded that views of culturally responsive pedagogy as were evidenced as factors on the CRTOE and CRCME scales did impact implementation of culturally responsive pedagogy as was determined by the high levels of strength scores on the CRTSE.

Hypothesis one stated that educators with positive views of culturally responsive pedagogy would have a higher confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois CRTLS, and hypothesis two stated that educators who are unsure of their views on culturally responsive pedagogy would have a low confidence rating regarding implementation of the Illinois CRTLS. Since both the model summaries for the CRTOE's and CRCME's impact on the CRTSE were statistically significant, the researcher accepted both hypotheses.

The researcher also analyzed age and gender as demographic variables that could potentially impact overall CRTSE. When utilizing an independent samples t-test with the largest groups existing in the sample (25-34, 35-44, 45-49) and the CRTSE subscales, the school culture versus home culture subscale was statistically significant, and the native language subscale was approaching significance. This outcome is consistent with the research of Durgunoğlu and

Hughes (2010) who reported low self-efficacy levels for both pre-service teachers and mentors regarding teaching English Language Learners. These findings were consistent with the study's findings regarding students and parents/guardians. The specific difference between the 35-44 and 45-49 year age groups does pose a question regarding why there is such a difference between the categories indicating predictors of CRTSE. Though the older age group potentially has more experience in the classroom which could account for the difference, the findings also could be related to Fisher and Rose's (2011) work with teacher self-efficacy where the researchers found low levels of self-efficacy among the 36-50 year demographic in comparison to the other designations of 20-35 and 50+ years of age. Klassen and Chiu (2010) also found that teachers' self-efficacy increased from the early parts to the middle portions of their careers but then fell after their mid-career level. This could account for the mean differences in the two categories.

Another possible explanation for these levels could encompass a consideration that as educators near the 35-44 age range (especially if entering the profession in his/her early twenties by following a traditional path to the career field), they would have already experienced the earliest part of their careers in which they were likely to have experienced a high level of optimism having been recently equipped with teaching strategies and student teaching experiences in a teacher education program. These educators may experience a certain level of openness to try new strategies and therefore less likely to be influenced by their own values. However, in an educators' mid-thirties, this "newness" has the potential to lead to teacher burnout (Malasch, 1999), which in turn may lead to defaulting to one's own values. This could possibly change a teacher's approaches to certain elements of his/her teaching philosophy, especially in overriding the mindset of overcoming these with students' best interests at the forefront.

All of this could in turn lead to lower levels of teaching self-efficacy as is represented in the 35-44 age range. This is the age range when life events may have a great impact on an educator's life outside of school such as raising children and tending to other familial responsibilities (Farber, 1999). However, as these data display, this drop in strength levels tends to increase again as the age range increases. This could be a result of leaving the mid-thirties mindset behind and preparing for the next phase of one's teaching career by regenerating the mindset – and maybe even reigniting the passion – previously embraced in the early years as an educator.

Regarding gender, as previously mentioned, Illinois's teaching population is mostly made up of females. For the current study, most respondents were female as well, so it does not appear to be surprising that females scored higher on all subscales when compared to the average male scores. Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported that females were more self-efficacious than males in teaching other than in classroom management. Rubie-Davies et al. (2012) found that gender may predict teacher efficacy and concluded that female teachers may hold higher expectations than their male colleagues, a conclusion also reached by Ross (1998). This appears to be consistent with the findings of the current study.

When an independent samples t-test was used to assess mean differences in respect to the subscales and total score on the CRTSE, all subscales except for the native language subscale were found to demonstrate a statistically significant difference based on gender. In general, when considering this finding, it occurred to the researcher that given these demographic data for teachers in Illinois and those responding in the current study's sample regarding gender, the higher levels of females than males entering the profession could possibly be explained by females having higher self-efficacies than males, thus leading to the educational career choice.

Admittedly, this may not be the only factor affecting this decision, but it could be one possible explanation for the abundance of females in the field.

Regarding the native language subscale not showing a statistically significant difference based on gender, the researcher would not have initially expected this finding, especially given that responses to the native language questions tended to have lower strength scores overall across the scales and seeing that the native language subscale was approaching statistical significance regarding age. To explore this further, though, it can be noted that there was only one point of difference between the male and female demographics on this scale. This could possibly be explained by Shim's (2013) research regarding the parents of ELLs in which she argued that parents of ELLs report difficulty interacting with teachers in general regarding their children. This does not single out one gender over another. Shim (2013) explained how this group of students encompasses an increasingly large population of U.S. students yet continues to be one that is underserved by male and female teachers due to a lack of communication and involvement with parents especially. Daniel and Pray's (2017) research also found a generalization of teachers to be intimidated by teaching students whose dominant language is not English. This type of intimidation can be daunting for all educators given the communication barrier that arises with English language learners. A basic search in Murray State University's library database results in numerous publications regarding strategies for teaching ELLs, indicating to the researcher that this is an area of interest that possibly affects teachers in general and is not necessarily specific to males or females.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 asked the following: What is the relationship between an educator's

understanding of cultural assets/deficits and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? By conducting linear regression to explore the relationship between knowledge of cultural assets/deficits and CRTSE, especially variables on the CRTOE and CRCMSE scales, the researcher concluded that an understanding of cultural assets and deficits is a predictor for overall CRTSE. The literature on culturally responsive pedagogy and asset versus deficit models reveals the importance of treating students from an asset-based mindset to maintain high standards and avoid treating students using cultural stereotypes (Marrun, 2018).

Hypothesis one stated that educators who understand the importance of recognizing cultural differences as assets as opposed to viewing them as deficits would have a higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, and hypothesis two stated that educators who view cultural differences as deficits as opposed to assets would have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and a lesser preparedness level to implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. The researcher was able to accept both hypotheses since the linear regression using the factors identified as embodying knowledge of cultural assets and deficits all indicated that the estimates were statistically significant.

As was reported in chapter four, with increases of strength scores on the CRTOE and CRCME scales, there was a unit increase on the grouped items. This finding is constructive and optimistic, for as indicated by Villegas and Lucas (2002b), when educators focus on assets of their students, these individuals develop a greater sense of self-worth. Using students' cultural capital and funds of knowledge can aid in this overall endeavor (Kretchmar & Zeichner, 2016).

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 addressed the following: What is the relationship between the

duration of teaching experience and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? By conducting a one-way ANOVA to explore the relationship between age (as a substitute for years of teaching) and CRTSE, the researcher concluded that there was no statistical difference in CRTSE between age groups. More years of experience, then, does not necessarily equip educators with higher self-efficacy. This outcome is parallel with the research of Warner Shaie et al. (1978) who indicated that age should be examined regarding life span in the context of sociocultural changes. This could indicate further research opportunities to explore life span and CRTSE. Since Levene's test for equality of variances showed no significance, variability can be trusted in these findings.

Hypothesis one stated that teachers who have taught for 10+ years (especially if they have not sought out professional development opportunities) would have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy since they most likely did not receive direct instruction on culturally responsive pedagogy in their teacher education programs at the higher education level, and hypothesis two stated that teachers who have taught for 20+ years would have an exceptionally lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Both hypotheses were rejected.

The researcher had formed these hypotheses based upon the assumption that those who have reached their 10+ and 20+ year levels in the profession were unlikely to have gained knowledge regarding culturally responsive pedagogy directly from the collegiate level, especially since so many studies regarding CRP have appeared near the 2010-present timeframe. While the findings of Gay (2002), Ladson-Billings (1994), and Villegas and Lucas (2002b) are abundant in literature, correlational research using CRP is more frequent in the current timeframe (Paris, 2012; Siwatu, 2015), resulting in the realistic possibility that those who received their teaching degrees more than 10 years ago did not receive direct instruction in CRP.

Upon further contemplation, however, the researcher used these data to conjecture that the findings regarding this research question are related to a commitment to the profession. To further illustrate, the determination was made that educators who are new to the profession may not have already formed a commitment to education, especially if those individuals naturally did not already possess a passion for teaching. Once an educator has reached 10+ years of teaching and certainly at 20+ teaching, it can reasonably be assumed that he/she has formed a commitment to students and the profession. Graham et al.'s (2020) research also supports this determination, especially in claiming that early in an educator's career, he/she may waver on self-efficacy, but by the middle of his/her teaching career, a certain level of strength or even renewed strength is formed.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 addressed the following: What is the relationship between school locale type and culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy? By conducting a one-way ANOVA to explore the relationship between geographic school location and CRTSE, especially using provided demographic information, the researcher concluded that there was no statistical difference in CRTSE between urban and rural settings. Again, since Levene's test for equality of variances showed no significance, variability can be trusted in these findings.

Hypothesis one stated that educators in rural districts would have a lower culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, and hypothesis two stated that educators in more urban districts would have a higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Both hypotheses were rejected. The researcher was not anticipating this lack of statistical significance, for the original hypotheses were determined based upon the assumption that educators working in an urban area

would have more exposure to diverse populations and therefore through experiential learning experiences would have higher culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs.

The projection was also made that through a lack of authentic experiences with diverse student populations and/or vicarious learning experiences instead of experiential ones, this would weaken overall strength scores of the sample population of educators. In a study by Cruz et al. (2020), the researchers found that teachers in urban settings reported higher mean CRTSE scores than rural areas. However, the researchers did report that geographical setting did not, in fact, contribute to a large portion of the variance in their final model. Therefore, accounting for this as part of the grounding for hypotheses one and two was not necessarily a sound foundation.

Furthermore, it reasonably follows that whether an educator is employed in an urban or rural setting (or even a suburban one as indicated by some participants in the sample), this realistically would not need to affect the overall level of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. Though experiential versus vicarious learning experiences (Cruz et al., 2020; Kolb, 1984; Siwatu, 2011) are valid factors to consider, this does not have to affect teachers' overall beliefs in their abilities to successfully create and maintain an inclusive classroom where all students' cultural characteristics and acknowledged and respected (Siwatu, 2007; Siwatu, 2015).

Recommendations for Future Research

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy in Higher Education

With Illinois's Joint Committee on Administrative Rules' decision to mandate the inclusion of instruction on culturally responsive pedagogy in teacher education programs at higher education institutions, an investigation into the types of curricula offered at those post-secondary schools in Illinois could provide an insightful glimpse into what pre-service teachers are learning at this level.

With the overarching goal of teachers meeting the diverse needs of all students, further studies can help identify areas of need for preparation for Illinois educators. One initial future research consideration could focus on the specifics regarding inclusion of direct instruction in teacher education programs in Illinois's higher education institutions as mandated in the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards and the impacts on preservice teachers' CRTSE to investigate and ultimately evaluate the effectiveness of said programs. For example, are all preservice teacher programs including curricula regarding culturally responsive teaching as mandated by the new standards? Further, what is included in these curricula? Are the curricula in the programs grounded in empirical studies as they were developed? Additionally, how will they evolve to best prepare Illinois educators in the future?

The researcher concluded that one area of interest to be included in preservice teacher programs in higher education is a component for preparing teacher candidates to effectively interact and communicate with non-English speaking students. In so many rural districts, even though student populations may not currently represent ethnic diversity, this realistically has the potential to change. Additionally, while some preservice educators may already have an idea where they plan to teach following graduation from the teaching program and therefore not anticipate interactions with diverse populations, this is not the case for all preservice teachers. If any teaching candidates are not being prepared to effectively communicate with all populations, that would be a disservice, even if the candidates believe that they will not be interacting with non-English speaking students and parents. Furthermore, if an educator plans to teach in a district with a low population of non-English speakers, that does not necessarily mean that he/she will teach in that location for an entire teaching career.

As indicated above, any population has the potential to change. As a result, it is important to prepare educators for the possibility of teaching students who may not speak English as their first language. Of course, a preservice teacher may choose to not place a priority on this aspect, but this should only occur at the discretion of the candidates, not the programs themselves by overlooking inclusion of a specific preparation piece regarding non-English speakers.

Investigating Number of Years Taught/Professional Development Sought

An area of particular interest to the researcher is any potential correlation between CRTSE and the number of years in the teaching profession. With this being part of the original intention of the study, this remains an uninvestigated area relating to potential correlations. Research studies such as Jiang (2017) and Rubie-Davies et al. (2012) report findings regarding age, but a study focusing directly on number of years taught could illuminate relationships between certain ranges of years taught and areas of need to increase aspects of culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy, much like the findings of Cruz et al. (2020) that years of experience was statistically significant in predicting CRTSE.

Findings that allow educational leaders to see if there are any correlations between culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and how it remains static, increases, or decreases based on the cumulative years of teaching experience can also serve in assisting decisions made regarding professional development opportunities throughout an educator's career. This does not have to only encompass professional development at later points throughout teachers' career, though, for anticipating certain areas of need at specific points in a career span can be built into teacher preparation programs and potentially even preparation at the administrative level as well. Since administrators in Illinois cannot become principals nor superintendents without first having gained experience as educators in a classroom environment, building certain strategies for

interventions into administrative programs could open the doors for finding ways to approach areas of concern based on certain projected years throughout educators' careers.

This all naturally leads to future considerations of educators' levels of frequency for seeking out relevant professional development and the potential correlations regarding CRTSE levels that this could reveal. To maintain valid licensure as an educator in Illinois, the amount of continuing development hours that an educator must complete within a five-year cycle is based upon the various levels of post-secondary education completed. This includes factors such as degree completion and additional certifications such as National Board Certification (Illinois State Board of Education, 2022b). Due to these requirements, all certified teachers must complete a determined number of professional development hours. However, there is not a requirement based upon what type of professional development is completed. Therefore, while all teachers who are maintaining their credentials are completing continuing education experiences, this does not mean that these are necessarily relevant to the teachers' content areas nor concepts such as new state mandates for the classroom such as the CRTLS addressed within this study.

Based upon the results of the study, not every aspect of culturally responsive teaching and leading is currently of high need for professional development as was revealed by the overall strength scores and means of participants' responses on the items in the survey. A component of professional development that appears worthy of placing as a high priority, however, is a component previously mentioned as an area of interest in teacher preparation programs: effectively interacting with non-English speakers, both regarding students and parents/guardians who are also important stakeholders in a child's education.

Though overall strength scores and means represented high levels overall in the results of the study, it cannot be overlooked that there were scores that were medium and even low regarding culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome/classroom management expectancy beliefs, especially regarding what data might be considered part of the outliers in the responses. Future research that elicits data regarding the amount(s) and type(s) of professional development sought might aid in determining needs for culturally responsive teaching and leading, especially given a low level or even lack of professional development sought in this area, one that truly affects all educators as the Illinois CRTLS go into effect in October of 2025.

Qualitative and Mixed-Methods Studies

The field of education could also benefit from mixed-method studies that utilize not only quantitative but also qualitative methods, for this could provide a more comprehensive picture for explaining these observed data and results. For example, a qualitative study could extend this research, especially considering the relationship between potential barriers to implementing culturally responsive teaching and school locale type. For example, a phenomenological study of teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy beliefs could be conducted by asking educators to specifically describe their beliefs regarding factors that affect CRTSE. This could reveal themes after focusing one-on-one with educators, especially in an interview or focus group format. Interview questions could be developed that ask participants to elaborate on the manners in which they execute certain tasks such as communicating with students and/or parents. Requesting feedback with open-ended style questions could also draw upon participants' beliefs about cultural assets versus deficits, professional development involvement, professional learning communities, designing culturally relevant curricula, funds of knowledge, cultural capital, and cultural congruity. Utilizing an interview and/or focus group format in a qualitative

study could also elicit responses from participants regarding their own definition(s) of culturally responsive teaching/pedagogy.

Another reason for recommending qualitative and mixed-methods strategies for future research in this subject area would be providing a certain type of window of opportunity for investigating factors beyond basic demographic data. Factors and experiences such as openness, self-awareness, commitment to social justice (Mahali & Sevigny, 2022), and experiential and vicarious learning experiences may exist as greater predictors for determining influences on teachers' attitudes toward culturally responsive teaching and leading than those such as age and gender examined in the current study. The standards' inclusion of content regarding self-awareness and relationships to others; systems of oppression; students as individuals; students as co-creators; leveraging student advocacy; family and community collaboration; content selections in all curricula; and student representation in the learning environment (Illinois State Board of Education, 2021) account for critical and thoughtful attention on the part of educators, and therefore the factors listed above logically would be areas of potential influence to explore with the same intention of aiming for data that could aid in creating meaningful, effective professional development opportunities for Illinois educators preparing to implement the new standards.

Subscales

When the researcher created subscales on the CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME scales, this was completed to aid in explaining findings on the research questions. Returning to these groupings and exploring factor loadings could be yet another a viable direction for future research regarding the current study, especially regarding fortification of the study for future replication.

P-20 implications

Teaching self-efficacy is directly affected by leadership (Ninkovic & Floric, 2018). As such, in an effort to connect students' cultures, language, and life experiences with their educational experiences within the educational environment (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995b; Nieto, 2015; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a), or what Paris (2012) referred to as the metaphorical third space, P-20 leaders working to support collaboration between learning and career training must assume a direct leadership role in helping educators increase their culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy.

The decision on the part of the ISBE to direct educators and leaders at the higher education level to incorporate instruction regarding culturally responsive pedagogy is a reasonable one. However, the connection between higher education and all students affected will not necessarily produce desired consequential effects immediately. To effectively implement any standards, all members of an affected population expected to embrace and utilize these must be reflective and intentional in their practices regarding those standards. As a result, replicating the current study in school districts across Illinois could help determine localized needs for educators preparing to implement the new standards.

This study also demonstrates positive outcomes in being able to reject the hypotheses that age and geographic setting predict CRTSE. Though there is the age range of 35-44 years that presents the occasion to question a fleeting dip in self-efficacy levels, as a whole, these dependent variables did not result in having statistical significance. For legislators such as members of the Joint Committee on Administrative Rules in the Illinois General Assembly that were instrumental in the determinations provided to the Illinois State Board of Education, this study implies that moving forward with implementing the Illinois Culturally Responsive

Teaching and Leading Standards has a positive outlook in terms of feasibility based on the beliefs of the sample population of current Illinois educators.

A key principle of P-20 education is the growth of all learners from infancy through adulthood across a continuum of unified development (Futrell, 2010). If an individual is considered to exist outside the dominant culture of an educational environment, there is a genuine possibility that he/she could have certain values and/or patterns of behavior suppressed (Henkel, 2004) and therefore experience a break in that seamless development across the continuum. Through effective P-20 leadership, culturally responsive pedagogy can allow for the empowerment of students (Ladson-Billings, 1994) with educators operating from an asset versus a deficit model when enacting culturally sustaining teaching. This allows for embracing all individuals' cultural capital and funds of knowledge. As is represented by these data regarding research question two, when educators understand cultural assets versus deficits and focus upon the strengths of each individual in a classroom, they view diversity as encompassing positive resources as opposed to a reason to ascribing blame to cultural factors for the types of difficulties that some students may face, thus leading to positive outcomes, then, too, for students (Davis & Beyerbach, 2009). This also provides optimistic outputs regarding embracing cultural differences as cultural capital (Paris, 2012).

While there are so many positive attributes present in the study's findings regarding culturally responsive beliefs of Illinois educators, a negative finding in these data from a P-20 standpoint relates to the communication element, especially relating to English language learners. A breakdown in communication at any level in an individual's lifetime can negatively affect him/her, thus leading to unfair stress and conflict. This can be especially harmful in early childhood and lead to future trust issues (Cuevas, 2012; Tomblin et al., 1991). For P-20

educators and leaders, this is an area of interest seeing how stress, conflict, and especially trust issues can affect individuals not only as students but also in their professional lives and careers. This even has the potential to affect future family structures that students may cultivate. All of these areas are of interest to the P-20 concept.

Leaders can inspire educators and other P-20 stakeholders to engage in ongoing self-efficacy building experiences that can assist in sustaining culturally responsive practices. In utilizing findings from the current research and other similar studies, P-20 leaders should not only focus on interventions for increasing CRTSE, CRTOE, and CRCME but also on the findings of medium to high efficacy levels to continuously empower these types of beliefs. In turn, this can all promote culturally responsive environments that allow students to simultaneously exist within the culture of their home and school (Paris, 2012) and thrive within the confines of the school building and beyond, especially regarding college and career readiness.

Conclusion

The strength scores on the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy (CRTOE) and Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Expectancy (CRCME) scales positively correlated with overall Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scores, indicating that as educators understand and embrace aspects of culturally responsive pedagogy, their CRTSE increases. Age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, grade level teaching, and teaching location all were analyzed to account for possible correlations and potential influence of these on CRTSE. Contrary to the researcher's hypotheses, respondents' age, gender, ethnicity, level of education, grade level teaching, and teaching location only accounted for slight variance in their overall CRTSE levels. Regardless, the findings from the study support the concept that

identifying preparedness levels to implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards can reveal areas of deficiency in culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy. While pre-service educators at Illinois higher education institutions are receiving instruction in culturally responsive pedagogy, this does not account for current in-service teachers. Furthermore, while more opportunities for experiential learning with diverse populations exist in urban areas, many teachers in Illinois are practicing in rural areas where vicarious learning experiences may be the only alternative for preparing for effective culturally responsive teaching for all populations of students. All populations of educators could benefit from support and professional learning to improve the quality of teaching for all (Graham et al., 2020). Efficacy-building experiences are vital to the outcomes of culturally responsive teaching to connect all students' cultures, language, and life experiences with their educational experiences in school (Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995b; Nieto, 2015; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). This can help empower students and allow the educational environment to exist as a safe, productive space where elements of home nor school must be forfeited or diminished.

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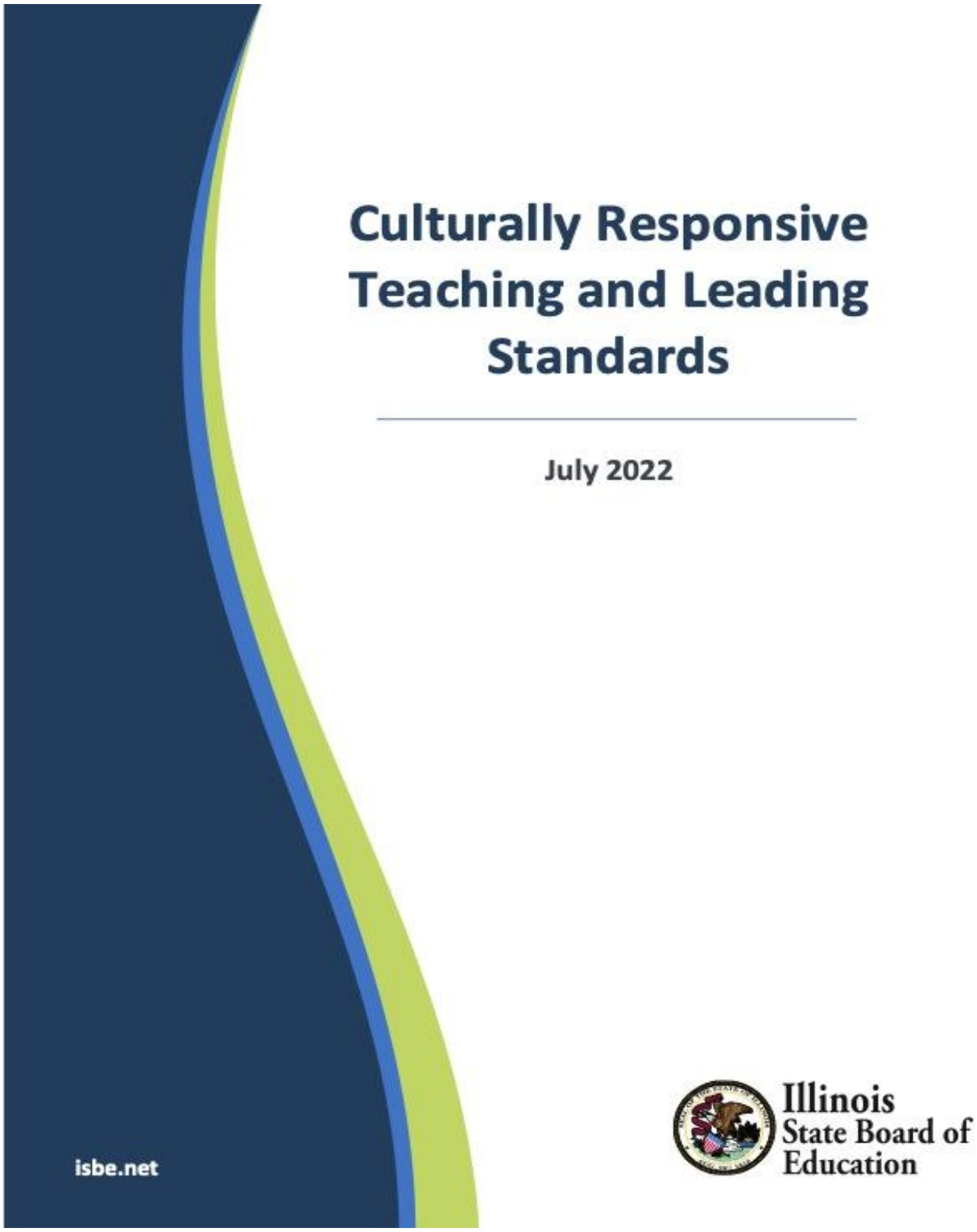
Appendix A

Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards



SECTION 24.50 | The Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards

A **Self-Awareness and Relationships to Others** – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders are reflective and gain a deeper understanding of themselves and how they impact others, leading to more cohesive and productive student development as it relates to academic and social-emotional development for all students. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Understand and value the notion that multiple lived experiences exist, that there is often not one "correct" way of doing or understanding something, and that what is seen as "correct" is most often based on our lived experiences.

2. Approach their work and students with an asset-based mindset, affirming the validity of the students' backgrounds and identities.

3. Know about their students and their lives outside of school, using this knowledge to build instruction that leverages prior knowledge and skills.

4. Include representative, familiar content in the curriculum to legitimize students' backgrounds, while also exposing them to new ideas and worldviews different from their own.

5. Engage in self-reflection about their own actions and interactions and what ideas and biases motivated those actions.

6. Explore their own intersecting identities, how they were developed, and how they impact daily experience of the world.

7. Recognize how their identity (race/ethnicity, national origin, language, sex and gender, gender identity, sexual orientation, physical/developmental/ emotional ability, socioeconomic class, religion, etc.) affects their perspectives and beliefs about pedagogy and students.

8. Educate themselves about students' communities, cultures, and histories.

9. Critically think about the institutions in which they find themselves working to reform these institutions whenever and wherever necessary.

10. Assess how their biases and perceptions affect their teaching practice and how they access tools to mitigate their own behavior (racism, sexism, homophobia, unearned privilege, Eurocentrism, etc.).

B. Systems of Oppression – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders understand that there are systems in our society especially, but not limited to, our school system, that create and reinforce inequities, thereby creating oppressive conditions. Educators work actively against these systems in their everyday roles in educational institutions. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Understand the difference between prejudice, discrimination, racism, and how to operate at the interpersonal, intergroup, and institutional levels.
2. Collaborate with colleagues to determine how students from different backgrounds experience the classroom, school, and district.
3. Know and understand how the system of inequity has impacted them as an educator.
4. Understand how current curriculum and approaches to teaching impact students who are not a part of the dominant culture.
5. Be aware of the effects of power and privilege and the need for social advocacy and social action to better empower diverse students and communities.
6. Understand how a system of inequity creates rules regarding student punishment that negatively impact students of color.
7. Understand how a system of inequity reinforces certain suppositions as the norm.

C. Students as Individuals – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders view and value their students as individuals within the context of their families and communities. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Learn from and about their students' culture, language, and learning styles to make instruction more meaningful and relevant to their students' lives.
2. Engage with students' families and community members outside of the classroom to develop a more holistic understanding of the students' lived experiences.

3. Develop positive, strength-based partnerships with students and their families by learning about them, soliciting their opinions, and valuing their expectations, especially with those marginalized by schools in the past.

4. Provide parents with information about what their child is expected to learn, know, and do at his or her grade level and ways to reinforce concepts at home.

5. Share the classroom systems and policies (expectations, agreements, recognition and incentive practices, etc.) used in the classroom with students' families and align them to the values and cultural norms of those families.

6. Provide multiple opportunities for parents to communicate in their language and method of preference, to the greatest extent possible.

7. Set holistic goals for students that accommodate multiple ways of demonstrating strengths and success, (e.g., alternate academic achievement metrics, growth indicators, leadership, character development, social- emotional learning competencies, and school values).

D. Students as Co-Creators – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders who fundamentally believe all students are capable center learning around students' experiences and position them as co-creators, with emphasis on prioritizing historically marginalized students. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Encourage and affirm the personal experiences (family, community, culture, etc.) students share in the classroom.

2. Make authentic connections between academic learning and students' prior knowledge, native language, culture, and values.

3. Consistently solicit students' input on the curriculum (e.g., interests, people, or concepts).

4. Co-create, with students, the collective expectations and agreements regarding the physical space and social-emotional culture of the classroom and school.

5. Create and embed student leadership opportunities into the student experience (e.g., peer-led discussion, student-led workshops, and student- run schoolwide initiatives).

6. Persistently solicit student feedback, value that feedback (resist defensiveness), and adjust based on that feedback.

E. **Leveraging Student Advocacy** – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders will support and create opportunities for student advocacy and representation in the content and classroom. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Emphasize and connect with students about their identities, advocacies, and self-interest.

2. Offer guidance to students on how to develop a self-advocacy plan to inform decisions and choices.

3. Include students in the creation of an inclusive learning community with more opportunities for student expression.

4. Help students identity actions that can be taken to apply learning to develop opportunities and relationships for alliances.

5. Create a risk-taking space that promotes student advocacy.

6. Research and offer student advocacy content with real world implications.

7. Communicate high expectations to which all students can be held and urge students to lead as student advocates appropriate to the students' age and development.

8. Give students space to solve their own problems, negotiate their advocacy needs, and present their perspectives.

F. **Family and Community Collaboration** – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders will partner with families and communities to build rapport, form collaborative and mutual relationships, and engage in effective cross-cultural communication. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Regularly interact with students, families, and communities in both English and home language through methods of their preference.

2. Actively seek multiple perspectives and contribution from families and the community and invite them to actively share their opinions, feedback, and concerns that impact the school community.

3. Forge ongoing participation with families and community members to meet the diverse needs and interests of students.

4. Continuously learn and build cultural knowledge that families and the community bring to the school community to nurture and foster relationships and inform student learning experiences.

5. Use best practices that are culturally responsive to value students and their families' cultural traditions when recognizing, motivating, encouraging, and supporting student success and growth.

6. Develop relationships with families and the community outside of the classroom setting.

7. Foster students' cultural understanding and connection to the surrounding community.

8. Invite family and community members to teach about topics that are culturally specific and aligned to the classroom curriculum or content area.

9. Welcome communication from parents and reply in a timely manner.

10. Communicate and provide appropriate techniques and materials to support and enrich student learning at home.

11. Collaborate effectively over time with the local community and community agencies, when and where appropriate, to promote a positive environment for student learning.

G. Content Selections in all Curricula – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders intentionally embrace student identities and prioritize representation in the curriculum. In turn, students are not only given a chance to identify with the curriculum, they become exposed to other cultures within their schools and both their local and global communities. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Curate the curriculum.

2. Identify and articulate the purposeful ways in which marginalized communities are represented in curriculum, including print, digital media, and other classroom resources.

3. Employ authentic and modern technology usage inspiring digital literacy through an equity lens.

4. Ensure assessments reflect the enriched curriculum that has embedded student identities.

5. Embrace and encourage a balance of viewpoints and perspectives that leverage asset thinking toward traditionally marginalized populations.

6. Assess one's story through multiple vantage points to gain a whole narrative that includes all sides of parties involved.

7. Implement and integrate the wide spectrum and fluidity of identities in the curriculum.

8. Ensure text selections reflect students' classroom, community, and family culture.

9. Ensure teacher and students co-create content that encourages critical thinking about culture and includes counternarratives to dominant culture.

10. Use a resource tool to assess the curriculum and assessments for biases.

11. Promote robust discussion with the intent of raising consciousness that reflects modern society and the ways in which cultures and communities intersect.

12. Consider a broader modality of student assessments, such as performance portfolios, essays, multiple choice, State exams, oral examination, community assessments, work experiences, social justice work, action research projects, and recognition beyond academia.

H. **Student Representation in the Learning Environment** – Culturally responsive teachers and leaders ensure the diversity of their student population is equally represented within the learning environment. In turn, all members of the student population feel seen, heard, and affirmed. Exceptionally well-versed culturally responsive teachers and leaders provide exposure to underrepresented or misrepresented minority groups, even when they are not present within the population of their school and community at large. The culturally responsive teacher and leader will:

1. Uphold systems of support that create, promote, and sustain a welcoming and inclusive community.

2. Ensure linguistic diversity is represented throughout the building and seek ways to reflect representation of world languages.

3. Verify that course materials are representative of all students, including materials for centers, stations, labs, classroom libraries, etc.

4. Ensure classroom and building decorations are inclusive of all students throughout the building or within the community or city at large.

(Source: Added at 45 Ill. Reg. 3320, effective March 2, 2021)

Appendix B

Institutional Review Board Approval

MURRAY STATE UNIVERSITY

Institutional Review Board

328 Wells Hall
Murray, KY 42071-3318
270-809-2916 • msu.irb@murraystate.edu

TO: Samir Patel, College of Education and Human Services

FROM: Jonathan Baskin, IRB Coordinator JB

DATE: 9/8/2022

RE: Human Subjects Protocol I.D. – IRB # 23-009

The IRB has completed its review of your student's Level 1 protocol entitled *Addressing Educators' Preparedness to Implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards*. After review and consideration, the IRB has determined that the research, as described in the protocol form, will be conducted in compliance with Murray State University guidelines for the protection of human participants.

The forms and materials that have been approved for use in this research study are attached to the email containing this letter. These are the forms and materials that must be presented to the subjects. Use of any process or forms other than those approved by the IRB will be considered misconduct in research as stated in the MSU IRB Procedures and Guidelines section 20.3.

Your stated data collection period is from 9/8/2022 to 11/14/2022.

If data collection extends beyond this period, please submit an Amendment to an Approved Protocol form detailing the new data collection period and the reason for the change.

This Level 1 approval is valid until 9/7/2023.

If data collection and analysis extends beyond this date, the research project must be reviewed as a continuation project by the IRB prior to the end of the approval period, 9/7/2023. You must reapply for IRB approval by submitting a Project Update and Closure form (available at murraystate.edu/irb). You must allow ample time for IRB processing and decision prior to your expiration date, or your research must stop until such time that IRB approval is received. If the research project is completed by the end of the approval period, then a Project Update and Closure form must be submitted for IRB review so that your protocol may be closed. It is your responsibility to submit the appropriate paperwork in a timely manner.

The protocol is approved. You may begin data collection now.

Appendix C

Participant Letter

(Email Subject Line: Research invitation to participate in doctoral student's dissertation study: Addressing Educators' Preparedness to Implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards)

Greetings, fellow Illinois educator:

My name is Michelle Mohr, and I am currently conducting a research study as part of my dissertation work at Murray State University entitled Addressing Educators' Preparedness to Implement the Illinois Culturally Responsive Teaching and Leading Standards. My goal with the study is to assess your perceived self-efficacies regarding multiple aspects of culturally responsive teaching and leading. My work is being supervised by Dr. Samir Patel in the College of Education and Human Services.

I am requesting that you take part in my study by completing a survey which is being delivered via Qualtrics. This will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The survey contains questions about demographics, beliefs in your ability to accomplish specific teaching tasks, and your degree of certainty regarding connections between behaviors and outcomes. If you choose to participate in the study, the link is available below.

Since criteria for participation includes teaching in Illinois between grades K-12, you have been identified as an ideal participant. Should you be willing to forward this on to any other potential participant who fits this criterion, please feel free to forward this email to that individual.

You can access the survey using this link:
https://murraystate.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3Pke6ex4enu9ase

Participation in my study is completely voluntary. All participants will remain anonymous, and data collected will be stored in a confidential manner. If you choose to withdraw from the study, you are free to do so at any time without consequence. No known risks and/or discomforts are associated with this study. There are also no costs to participants.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me by email at mhastings1@murraystate.edu or Dr. Patel at spatel@murraystate.edu.

Thank you for your consideration!

Sincerely,

Michelle D. Mohr
Doctoral Candidate, Murray State University

Appendix D

Follow-up Participant Letter

Email subject line: Reminder to participate in doctoral student's dissertation study (MMohr)

Dear Recipient First Name Recipient Last Name,

I just wanted to reach out with a friendly reminder to take my survey to help me with my doctoral research if you have not already done so. Please disregard this if you have already completed it. Thank you so much for your time!

Follow this link to the Survey:
Survey link

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:
https://murraystate.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3Pke6ex4enu9ase

Sincerely,
Michelle Mohr

Doctoral Candidate, Murray State University
Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
${l://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}

Appendix E

Permission to Use Instrument(s)

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

Appendix F

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Rate how confident you are in your ability to successfully accomplish each of the tasks listed below. Each task is related to teaching. Please rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident). Remember that you may use any number between 0 and 100.

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

I am able to:

_____ 1. adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students.

_____ 2. obtain information about my students' academic strengths.

_____ 3. determine whether my students like to work alone or in a group.

_____ 4. determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students.

_____ 5. identify ways that the school culture (e.g., values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture.

_____ 6. implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture.

_____ 7. assess student learning using various types of assessments.

_____ 8. obtain information about my students' home life.

_____ 9. build a sense of trust in my students.

_____ 10. establish positive home-school relations.

_____ 11. use a variety of teaching methods.

_____ 12. develop a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse backgrounds.

_____ 13. use my students' cultural background to help make learning meaningful.

_____ 14. use my students' prior knowledge to help them make sense of new information.

_____ 15. identify ways how students communicate at home may differ from the school norms.

_____ 16. obtain information about my students' cultural background.

_____ 17. teach students about their cultures' contributions to science.

_____ 18. greet English Language Learners with a phrase in their native language.

_____ 19. design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures.

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 G

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale

Read each statement below and rate your degree of certainty that the behavior will lead to the specified outcome. You may indicate your certainty by rating each statement on a scale of 0 (entirely uncertain) to 100 (completely certain). The scale below is for reference only: you do not need to use only the given values. You may assign ANY number between 0 and 100 as your degree of certainty.

0	10 20	30 40	50	60 70	80 90	100
Entirely Uncertain	**Very Uncertain**	**Somewhat Uncertain**	**Not Too Certain**	**Somewhat Certain**	**Very Certain**	**Completely Certain**

_____ 1. A positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in my students.

_____ 2. Incorporating a variety of teaching methods will help my students to be successful.

_____ 3. Students will be successful when instruction is adapted to meet their needs.

_____ 4. Developing a community of learners when my class consists of students from diverse cultural backgrounds will promote positive interactions between students.

_____ 5. Acknowledging the ways that the school culture is different from my students' home culture will minimize the likelihood of discipline problems.

_____ 6. Understanding the communication preferences (e.g., the value of eye-contact; protocol for participating in a conversation) of my students will decrease the likelihood of student-teacher communication problems.

_____ 7. Connecting my students' prior knowledge with new incoming information will lead to deeper learning.

_____ 8. Matching instruction to the students' learning preferences will enhance their learning.

_____ 9. Revising instructional material to include a better representation of the students' cultural group will foster positive self-images.

_____ 10. Providing English Language Learners with visual aids will enhance their understanding of assignments.

_____ 11. Students will develop an appreciation for their culture when they are taught about the contributions their culture has made over time.

_____ 12. Conveying the message that parents are an important part of the classroom will increase parent participation.

_____ 13. The likelihood of student-teacher misunderstandings decreases when my students' cultural background is understood.

0	10 20	30 40	50	60 70	80 90	100
Entirely Uncertain	**Very Uncertain**	**Somewhat Uncertain**	**Not Too Certain**	**Somewhat Certain**	**Very Certain**	**Completely Certain**

_____ 14. Changing the structure of the classroom so that it is compatible with my students' home culture will increase their motivation to come to class.

_____ 15. Establishing positive home-school relations will increase parental involvement.

_____ 16. Student attendance will increase when a personal relationship between the teacher and students has been developed.

_____ 17. Assessing student learning using a variety of assessment procedures will provide a better picture of what they have learned.

_____ 18. Using my students' interests when designing instruction will increase their motivation to learn.

_____ 19. Simplifying the language used during the presentation will enhance English Language Learners comprehension of the lesson.

_____ 20. The frequency that students' abilities are misdiagnosed will decrease when their standardized test scores are interpreted with caution.

_____ 21. Encouraging students to use their native language will help them to maintain their cultural identity.

_____ 22. Students' self-esteem can be enhanced when their cultural background is valued by the teacher.

_____ 23. Helping students from diverse cultural backgrounds succeed in school will increase their confidence in their academic ability.

_____ 24. Students' academic achievement will increase when they are provided with unbiased access to the necessary learning resources.

_____ 25. Using culturally familiar examples will make learning new concepts easier.

_____ 26. When students see themselves in the pictures (e.g., posters of notable African Americans, etc) that are displayed in the classroom they develop a positive self-identity.

Appendix H

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scale

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scale

Directions: Rate how confident you are in your ability to successfully accomplish each of the tasks listed below. Each task is related to classroom management. Please rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident). Remember that you may use any number between 0 and 100.

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

I am able to:

_____ 1. Assess students' behaviors with the knowledge that acceptable school behaviors may not match those that are acceptable within a student's home culture

_____ 2. Use culturally responsive discipline practices to alter the behavior of a student who is being defiant

_____ 3. Create a learning environment that conveys respect for the cultures of all students in my classroom

_____ 4. Use my knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds to create a culturally compatible learning environment

_____ 5. Establish high behavioral expectations that encourages students to produce high quality work

_____ 6. Clearly communicate classroom policies

_____ 7. Structure the learning environment so that all students feel like a valued member of the learning community

_____ 8. Use what I know about my students cultural background to develop an effective learning environment

_____ 9. Encourage students to work together on classroom tasks, when appropriate

_____ 10. Design the classroom in a way that communicates respect for diversity

_____ 11. Use strategies that will hold students accountable for producing high quality work

_____ 12. Address inappropriate behavior without relying on traditional methods of discipline such as office referrals

_____ 13. Critically analyze students' classroom behavior from a cross-cultural perspective

_____ 14. Modify lesson plans so that students remain actively engaged throughout the entire class period or lesson

_____ 15. Redirect students' behavior without the use of coercive means (i.e. consequences or verbal reprimand)

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

I am able to:

_____ 16. Restructure the curriculum so that every child can succeed, regardless of their academic history

_____ 17. Communicate with students using expressions that are familiar to them

_____ 18. Personalize the classroom so that it is reflective of the cultural background of my students

_____ 19. Establish routines for carrying out specific classroom tasks

_____ 20. Design activities that require students to work together towards a common academic goal

_____ 21. Modify the curriculum to allow students to work in groups

_____ 22. Teach students how to work together

_____ 23. Critically assess whether a particular behavior constitutes misbehavior

_____ 24. Teach children self-management strategies that will assist them in regulating their classroom behavior

_____ 25. Develop a partnership with parents from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds

_____ 26. Communicate with students' parents whose primary language is not English

_____ 27. Establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents

_____ 28. Use culturally appropriate methods to relate to parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds

_____ 29. Model classroom routines for English Language Learners

_____ 30. Explain classroom rules so that they are easily understood by English Language Learners

_____ 31. Modify aspects of the classroom so that it matches aspects of students' home culture

_____ 32. Implement an intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a students' culturally-based behavior is not consistent with school norms

_____ 33. Develop an effective classroom management plan based on my understanding of students' family background

_____ 34. Manage situations in which students are defiant

_____ 35. Prevent disruptions by recognizing potential causes for misbehavior