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Special Education Preservice Teachers' Changes in Self-Efficacy to Serve Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students While Completing Their First Field Experience

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by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to John: I could not have completed it without his love, patience, and unconditional support. This accomplishment is as much his as it is mine. I also dedicate this to Dad, Mom, Meg, Danny, and Ginger.

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moments really counted. She is an accomplished scholar and I hope to continue to collaborate with her in the near future.

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Special Education Preservice Teachers' Changes in Self-Efficacy to Serve Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students While Completing Their First Field Experience

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In this non-experimental, mixed methods dissertation study, a cohort of special education preservice teachers (N = 24) from a university-based teacher preparation program in Central Texas completed a modified version of the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2007) before and after they had completed their first field experiences. The researcher who conducted this dissertation sought to find whether the respondents had experienced any changes in their self-efficacy beliefs to capably meet the learning needs of their students with and without disabilities, from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds. The researcher also collected qualitative data (e.g., lesson plans) and conducted individual interviews with a stratified random sample from the cohort (n = 5) to gather background information about the participants' prior engagements with members of CLD communities and to discover how they explained their changes in self-efficacy to capably serve CLD students with and without disabilities. Results indicated that the first field experience likely impacted the special education preservice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably serve students with and without disabilities from CLD backgrounds. The majority of the participants (n =

13) expressed individual cumulative increases in their self-efficacy scores at the end of their first internship, and also expressed the higher levels of confidence to serve diverse students *without* disabilities than to serve diverse students *with* disabilities. Members of the stratified random sample who reported a decrease in their individual cumulative self-efficacy scores (n = 2), tended to express a more thorough understanding of the complex responsibilities, demands, and expectations that are placed on teachers.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teacher preparation program educators have a responsibility to prepare their preservice teachers (PSTs) to meet the educational needs of all of their students. In the United States (U.S.), this responsibility is contextualized within a country where: an increasing number of students are coming from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) communities; a teaching force does not reflect the student diversity in schools (Banks, 2008; Utley, Obiakor, & Bakken, 2011; Sorrells, Baker, Cole, & O Raghallaigh, 2010); and teachers are persistently underprepared to serve CLD students (Boutte, 2012; Mueller, Singer, & Carranza, 2006; Sleeter, 2008).

This dissertation addressed the concern of PSTs being underprepared to serve CLD students: the *under-preparation concern*. It addressed the concern by studying the self-efficacy beliefs of a cohort of undergraduate, special education majors who were completing their first field experience. Specifically, the purpose of this study was twofold. The first purpose was to explore the effects of the first field experience on a cohort ($N = 24$) of preservice special education teachers' beliefs about their capability to teach CLD students with and without disabilities. At the time of the study, the cohort was completing a 14-week field experience in inclusive, general education (K-5) settings that served CLD students with and without disabilities in public elementary schools in the U.S. Their beliefs were examined through their ratings on the modified Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (CRTSE; Siwatu, 2007). The second purpose

was to explore how a stratified random sample (n = 5) from the cohort described their self-efficacy to teach CLD students with and without disabilities after they had completed their first field experience. A university-appointed supervisor conducted the study.

There were many assumptions and factors at play that made exploring this phenomenon both complex and compelling. The assumptions, factors, and context will be examined more fully over the remainder of Chapter 1.

BACKGROUND

Given the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity in the U.S. public schools, and the well-documented findings (i.e., Boutte, 2012; Mueller et al., 2006, Sleeter, 2008) that suggest that teachers are still under-prepared to meet the unique learning needs of CLD students with and without disabilities, the focus of Chapter 1 turns to the programs that are designed to prepare teachers. Teacher preparation program educators in the U.S. have recognized the need for teachers to feature curriculum and pedagogy that is responsive in a variety of ways to the growing diversity in different ways (e.g., multicultural education, culturally responsive teaching), using a framework that highlights the sociocultural influences on learning and schooling. Further, for well over a decade, professional organizations that monitor general and special education teacher preparation programs (e.g., Council for Exceptional Children [CEC], 2009; National Association for the Education of Young Children [NAEYC], 2009, 2012; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE], 2008) have included

competencies among their accreditation standards that pertain to serving CLD students with disabilities and their families.

Educators involved in developing teacher preparation programs (TPPs) typically also feature field experiences to accompany coursework and provide PSTs with opportunities to have authentic teaching practice. These field experiences allow the PSTs to apply theory and coursework into practice before they have their own classroom (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). Researchers (i.e., Brownell, Ross, Colón, & McCallum, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 2011) have found however that the combination of field experiences with coursework is not sufficient for meaningful PST learning to occur and to address the under-preparation concern. New teachers and PSTs often experience "practice shock" when they begin teaching which often results in an overemphasis on student behaviors and behavior management (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005; Achinstein & Barrett, 2004). So, even with coursework, the pre-service teaching experience can reinforce a deficit perspective of differences (Valencia, 2010) if culturally responsive approaches are not effectively integrated in a timely fashion. It is generally during this time of practice that the PSTs' tacit image of "good teaching" emerges (Koerner, Rust, & Baumgartner, 2002). Therefore, it is important for PSTs to receive support from experienced teachers and feedback from a representative of their TPP to help them develop skills and self-efficacy in their ability to deliver effective teaching practices (Brownell et al., 2005; Cornelius & Nagro, 2014). This includes, but is not limited to, evidence-based practices for CLD students with and without disabilities.

Classroom Teachers' Practice

To explore evidence-based teaching that is responsive for CLD students with and without disabilities, it is helpful to first examine multicultural education. Multicultural education is an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process to create educational equity for all students, including those from diverse[1] backgrounds (Smith, 2009). To create equal educational opportunities, many educators have researched and developed methods for classroom teachers to use including culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2002a, 2010; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and culturally responsive pedagogy (Fitchett, Starker, & Salyers, 2012; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Hill, 2009). Culturally responsive teaching (CRT) has also been discussed in the context of working with CLD students with, or at-risk of having, a disability (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008; Klingner, Boelé, Linan-Thompson, & Rodriguez, 2014; Obiakor, 2006; Shealey, McHatton, & Wilson, 2011). Ware (2006) found that when students' cultures are included in the teaching and learning, positive academic outcomes follow. Insights offered by diverse students' perspectives must be incorporated into the classroom, as a failure to address these perspectives might do harm to the schools and could jeopardize the effort to develop and maintain a civic democracy (Banks, 2008; Klug, Luckey, Whitfield, & Wilkins, 2006). Therefore, supporting diversity has clear ramifications for general and special education teachers and it should begin early, with PSTs, to address the under-preparation concern.

[1] For the purposes of this study, diversity included: race/ethnicity, culture, language, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and disability.

Shifting attention to exceptional learners. The educator's inability to recognize cultural influences on teaching and learning has implications for the special education service system. Students' special education status, especially for CLD students, has been associated with undesirable outcomes compared to their peers without disabilities, including: a persisting achievement gap, high dropout rates, differential administration of discipline, and poor post-school outcomes (Artiles, Harry, Reschly, & Chinn, 2002; Artiles, Trent, & Palmer, 2004; Harry & Klingner, 2006). Several researchers have reported that too many CLD learners have been disproportionately represented in the high-incidence disability categories (learning disability [LD], intellectual disability [ID], and emotional/behavioral disorder [EBD]; Artiles, Kozleski, Trent, Osher, & Ortiz, 2010; Ford, 2012), oftentimes resulting in social stigma from receiving a disability label (Shifrer, 2013), which also impacts families (Harry, 2008; Harry & Klingner, 2006; Kalyanpur & Harry, 2012). Therefore, general and special education classroom teachers should be aware of cultural influences on teaching and learning in order to maintain a just and responsible educational practice. Indeed, the application of CRT in special education settings has been examined and shared (e.g., Obiakor, 2006) to support teachers and teacher educators who prepared them. This, in turn, can support PSTs in their practice to teach, as well as their self-efficacy in their ability to teach.

Teacher Preparation Programs

Teacher educators in general and special education, therefore, need to prepare their PSTs to recognize cultural influences on teaching and learning, and support them in

executing these practices confidently. Two decades ago, Banks (1995) and Dilworth (1992) likened this need to answering the demographic imperative, emphasizing that action must be taken to change inequities within the U.S. educational system. Evidence to support the demographic imperative originated from three trends: (a) an increasingly diverse student population, (b) a teaching force that does not reflect the increasing diversity, and (c) inequities among educational outcomes, resources, and opportunities experienced by different cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic features. Banks found that educators must promote a cultural democracy that enfranchises the learners through their experiences, backgrounds, and ethnic values. Currently, professional organizations (e.g., CEC, 2009; NCATE, 2008) and state accreditation standards (e.g., Texas Education Agency, 2014) include guidelines related to the study of sociocultural diversity in TPPs. Yet, still, student educational inequities along cultural and linguistic lines persist, and the under-preparation concern stays.

As mentioned earlier, part of the under-preparation concern has been found to be related to the gap of cultural perspectives and experiences between the predominantly White, middle class, English-speaking, and female teaching force and their students from non-dominant sociocultural and linguistic communities (Boutte, 2012; Renzulli, Parrott, & Beattie, 2011; Trent, Kea, & Oh, 2008; Utley et al., 2011). All too often, consequences of this mismatch have been included unintentional, deficit views regarding cultural and linguistic differences (Valencia, 2010), producing detrimental effects on student learning outcomes (Gay, 2002b; Hill, 2009; Neal, McCray, Webb-Johnson, & Bridgest, 2003; Seidl & Pugach, 2009) and inhibiting teacher effectiveness (Neal,

McCray, & Webb-Johnson, 2001). These outcomes have been reported to occur when teachers view knowledge as "neutral and universal" (Hollins, 2011, p. 127) or when teachers do not fully understand the cultural context of classroom behavior (Artiles et al., 2002).

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2009) *Schools and Staffing Survey*, during the 2007-08 school year, 83.1% of public elementary school teachers identified as White, remaining the overwhelming majority. Projections from the NCES for public elementary and secondary school enrollment indicated an increase in the number of students who are Hispanic, Asian or Pacific Islander, and Native American or Alaska Native, and a decrease for both African American and Caucasian student populations (Hussar & Bailey, 2011). While at the same time, U.S. Census Bureau's 2014 National Projections reports an expected 29.8% increase of foreign-born youth under the age of 18 from 2014 to 2060 (Colby & Ortman, 2014).

On a hopeful note, multicultural education and other diversity training within TPPs can provide PSTs with models, mindsets, and methods to enhance their students' learning. It has been hypothesized and tested that teacher candidates can strengthen their self-efficacy to meet the needs of their learners through teacher educators' and supervisors' support and guidance (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005; Fitchett et al., 2012; Gay & Kirkland, 2003). So, it becomes ever the more important that the PSTs get that practice and support before they have their own classrooms.

Field experiences. Dating back to the work of Dewey (1938), researchers have recognized the need for PSTs to get field experiences before they become certified

teachers. Dewey noted that the field experiences provide the PSTs with the opportunity to engage in the practical aspects of teaching, much like medical residencies, and apply the curricula they are learning as part of their training. It is not surprising that the field experiences are often cited as the most valuable part of the candidate's experience (Friedus, 2002; Hollins, 2008; Klug et al., 2006; Koerner et al., 2002; Sleeter, 2008), in particular when the field experiences are aligned with coursework and occur over an extended period of time (Leko, Brownell, Sindelar, & Murphy, 2012; Wiggins, Follo, & Eberly, 2007). Indeed, in this way, they have been described as a *necessary* part of the PSTs' education (Fitchett et al., 2012) and leaving a lasting impression long after certification (Ladson-Billings, 2000). Related to this dissertation, the field experience can also provide the PSTs with opportunities for intercultural immersion (Bennett, 2013; Wiggins et al., 2007). Also of relevance, the combination of coursework and field experience has been found to help the PST develop feelings of competence (Correa, McHatton, McCray, & Baughan, 2014) and self-efficacy (Rushton, 2003).

Traditionally, the PST is paired with a cooperating teacher (CT) and a university supervisor. Each plays a complementary role to support the growth and development of the PST, similar to an apprenticeship model. The apprenticeship model has received criticism as being flawed (Britzman, 2003) or even "medieval" (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990, p. 514). Nonetheless, this approach continues to be the most common way to prepare future teachers. The roles of the CTs and the university supervisor, and their influences on the PST, will be explored next.

Cooperating teachers. Cooperating teachers (CTs) provide the host classroom and students for the PST. Prior researchers have described the formation of the PST, the CT, and university supervisor as a "cooperative learning triad" (Steadman & Brown, 2011, p. 52). It has been suggested that the CTs exert a tremendous influence (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004; Britzman, 2003; Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Hamman, Fives, & Olivarez, 2007) and power (McNay, 2004) over the PSTs' practice and sense of efficacy. The character of the PST-CT partnership has been found to have a significant impact on the motivation of the teacher candidates (Britzman, 2003; Hamman et al., 2006), as well as on their levels of satisfaction with their student teaching experience (Kremer-Hayton & Wubbels, 1993). The focus of Chapter 1 of this dissertation will now shift to the university supervisor and, ultimately, the PST.

University supervisors. Steadman and Brown (2011) define the university supervisor as the professional who "oversees the preservice teachers' work and represents the university during teacher candidates' internship in the K-12 schools" (p. 51). Given how fundamental the field experience has become to teacher preparation, there is surprisingly scant literature on the practices and responsibilities of the university supervisor. In recent teacher education handbooks, university supervision occupies only four pages in *Studying Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005), and closer analysis of these pages reveals supervision only in professional development school settings and not within colleges of education. Furthermore, in the third edition of the *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008) discussion about supervision is absent.

Nonetheless, other scholars suggest that teacher educators, including the supervisors, ought to take a "culturally responsible approach" (p. 139) to help PSTs become more critically engaged with the cultural and social contexts in which they practice (Zozakiewicz, 2010). Also, at least one professional organization (NAEYC, 2009) described supervised, reflective field experiences as "critical". The exact nature of supervision varies, but one method that the supervisor can employ to encourage reflection is to hold a post-conference following the observation of a lesson or a teaching event (Costa & Garmston, 2002). During this time the supervisor can share feedback.

Feedback. Written feedback and discussion provided by the teacher educator/supervisor for the PST is important to capture the teaching of a lesson. Performance feedback has been found to increase targeted special education PST behaviors (Auld, Belfiore, & Scheeler, 2010; Capizzi, Wehby, & Sandmel, 2010) and improve fidelity to the implementation of instruction (Auld et al., 2010; Capizzi et al., 2010; Scheeler, McAfee, Ruhl, & Lee, 2006). At the same time, the context of the practice and feedback can also facilitate difficult conversations about diversity (Adams, Bondy, & Kuhel, 2005; Fitchett et al., 2012; Gay & Kirkland, 2003).

Another way to provide the feedback and support is for the teacher educator/supervisor to model and teach how to reflect, critically. Indeed, cultural responsiveness begins with self-awareness in order to reveal knowledge about one's own values, perspectives, and beliefs (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005; Adams et al., 2005; Harford & MacRuairc, 2008; Sleeter & Owuor, 2011). Self-awareness can highlight the invisible norms and assumptions that shape classroom operations (Morton & Bennett,

2010), beginning with teachers at the preservice stage. It is in the practice of critical reflection that critical consciousness may emerge (Gay & Kirkland, 2003), which, in turn, is a basis upon which to build an understanding of diverse cultural perspectives needed to meet the diverse needs of students. In sum, teacher educators should provide ongoing opportunities to engage PSTs in critical self-reflection about their new experiences through discussion, and beyond. At this juncture, it is now important to turn to teacher and PST self-efficacy to explore how mentoring, modeling, and learning can lead to changes in one's confidence to adequately apply teaching practices to meet students' learning needs.

Teacher and Preservice Teacher Self-Efficacy

Clearly, it is teacher educators' ultimate goal to prepare their teacher candidates to be effective teachers. Prior research has found that effective teachers often originate as effective PSTs (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). In this dissertation, a variable that closely related to *effectiveness* was *self-efficacy* and, more specifically, PSTs' self-efficacy to successfully execute various teaching responsibilities to reach diverse students with and without disabilities. To begin, Bandura (1977a) identified self-efficacy as a determiner of "coping behaviors that will be initiated, […] effort that will be expended, and how long it will be sustained in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" (p. 191). Bandura applied his theories of self-efficacy to better understand human psychology.

Numerous studies have followed Bandura (1977a) to examine teacher self-efficacy looking at a teacher's perception of his or her ability to successfully accomplish their professional responsibilities as well as how this efficacy relates to future effort and persistence. Research on teacher self-efficacy, or *teacher-efficacy*, began with the work of Gibson and Dembo (1984). More studies followed (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), and focused on PSTs participants (e.g., Kea, Trent, & Davis, 2002; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Ross, 1998; Siwatu, 2005, 2007, 2011a, 2011b; Siwatu & Starker, 2010; Sorrells, Schaller, & Yang, 2004), in-service teachers' self-efficacy to serve students with disabilities (e.g., Brownell & Pajares, 1999; Soodak & Podell, 1998) and CLD students with disabilities (e.g., Chu, 2013; Paneque & Barbetta, 2006). This dissertation continued along this line of research by exploring special education PSTs' self-efficacy to practice CRT for students with and without disabilities.

PURPOSE FOR THE STUDY

Given TPP educators' responsibility to prepare PSTs to teach within diverse general and special education classrooms, a study was warranted of PSTs' self-efficacy to teach diverse students. The cultural gap between teachers and students still continues (Boutte, 2012; Trent et al., 2008; Utley et al., 2011). Researchers have made headway in exploring PSTs' self-efficacies to teach CLD students (Siwatu, 2007, 2011a, 2011b), however not enough is known about: (a) special education PSTs and their self-efficacy to meet this requirement of teaching and (b) components of TPPs that can and do impact

PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., coursework, CTs, supervisors, etc.). This dissertation research sought to address these gaps.

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, the purpose for this study was twofold. The first was to explore the effects of the first field experience on a cohort (N = 24) of preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD students with and without disabilities. This was studied through the PSTs' self-ratings on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). The second purpose was to explore how a stratified random sample (n = 5) from the cohort described their self-efficacy to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they had completed their first field experience. The study was conducted using a non-experimental, mixed methods approach. A university-appointed supervisor was the researcher.

Research Questions

This study was designed to answer two questions using a non-experimental, mixed methods approach. The research questions were:

1. Do preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach CLD learners with and without disabilities change after they have completed their first field experience, as measured by the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007)?
2. How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without

disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?

The first question was examined using quantitative methods to analyze the results collected through administrations of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). The second question was examined using qualitative methods of inquiry and data sources to be discussed in Chapter 3.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Field experience: Field experiences were herein defined as "field observations, fieldwork, practica, and student teaching or other clinical experiences such as home visiting" (NAEYC, 2009). The exact nature of the field experience featured in this study will be described in Chapter 3.

Preservice teachers (PSTs): In the literature, preservice teachers are also referred to as teacher candidates, interns, future teachers, student teachers, and prospective teachers, each of which address their status prior to earning certification. For clarity, the researcher used the term *preservice teacher* to refer to the candidate's status before certification.

Self-efficacy: This study used Bandura's (1995) self-efficacy theories, understood as "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations" (p. 2). Bandura (1977a, 1991) also found that individuals draw from four interrelated sources of information to assess their self-

efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states.

Teacher Preparation Programs (TPPs): A previous literature review (Ostendorf, 2013) indicated that the most recent empirical research on supervision of PSTs teaching diverse students with and without disabilities was limited to programs that took place in university-based, traditional undergraduate programs. For that reason, TPPs in this study referred to university-based undergraduate certification programs and excluded: (a) alternative certification programs and (b) professional development schools.

SUMMARY

It has been argued that PSTs' teacher self-efficacy beliefs are predictive of their future teaching behaviors (Pajares, 1996; Siwatu, 2007, 2011a). This study followed this conjecture by exploring PSTs enrolled in a special education TPP and were interning in inclusive, general education (K-5) classroom field experience settings serving diverse CLD students with and without disabilities. The researcher sought to understand special education teacher candidates' self-efficacy, as well as any changes that occurred during one's field experience regarding the strength of one's belief in one's capacity to serve CLD students with and without disabilities. Through an analysis of their scores on a self-efficacy scale, as well as qualitative methods, the researcher sought to answer his two research questions.

To analyze these important inquiries, in the second chapter this dissertation will continue with a review of the relevant literature featured. Next, the third chapter will

outline the research design and methodology that will be used to examine the research questions. The fourth chapter will be used to analyze the data collected from the research study. The fifth and final chapter of this study will discuss the findings, conclusions, and implications.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

As teacher preparation program (TPP) educators' have a responsibility to prepare preservice teachers (PSTs) to teach across diversity in general and special education classrooms, PSTs' self-efficacy to teach diverse students warranted a study. This is important, as perceptions of self-efficacy may predict future teaching behaviors long after the candidates become certified (Pajares, 1996). The well-documented cultural gap between teachers and their students continues (Boutte, 2012; Trent et al., 2008, Utley et al., 2011). Researchers have investigated PSTs' self-efficacy to teach culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students (Siwatu, 2007, 2011a, 2011b), and in-service special education teachers' self-efficacy to serve CLD students (Chu, 2013). However, little is known about special education PSTs' self-efficacy to serve students from CLD backgrounds.

The purpose for the study was to explore how preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities changed during their first field experience, as measured by a modified version of Siwatu's (2007) Culturally Responsive Teaching Self Efficacy (CRTSE) scale. A second purpose of the study was to describe explanations that the teacher candidates attributed to their changes in self-efficacy to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities.

The goal of this literature review is to situate this study within a broader context of related research. In order to accomplish this, this chapter is organized into seven

sections. The first section explores national and state-level professional teaching standards that guide general and special education TPPs. In the second section of the chapter, the focus turns to culturally responsive teaching (CRT) and its implications for TPPs. The third section addresses preparing culturally responsive teachers through: (a) coursework and (b) field experience/practicum. The fourth section shifts the focus to preparing culturally responsive special educators. In the fifth section, PST supervision is explored, with an emphasis on Cognitive Coaching (CC) for supervision (Costa & Garmston, 2002), representing the model that influences the dissertation researcher's method to conduct supervision. In the sixth section of the chapter, research on self-efficacy beliefs is addressed, including: (a) sources of information, (b) assessment of self-efficacy beliefs, and (c) resulting outcomes. In the final section of the chapter, the researcher summarizes the literature review and makes predictions.

BACKGROUND

Teacher preparation program developers turn to professional organizations and the State Board of Educator Certification (SBEC) for standards upon which to build their programs and to monitor their programs' outcomes. Among special education TPPs, the pertinent professional organizations include: Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC), National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), and National Council for Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE). Each U.S. state provides different professional standards for teaching. The study took place in Central Texas where the Texas Education

Agency (TEA) serves as the SBEC for the State of Texas and issues the requirements for teacher certification. These standards and competencies identified by members of these professional organizations and TEA were reviewed in order to identify the standards pertaining to multiculturalism and diversity awareness for special education teacher candidates.

National Professional Standards

The four national professional organizations explored were the CEC, InTASC, NAEYC, and NCATE. Each of the professional organizations provides standards related to diversity. First, representatives from the CEC issue 29 multicultural competencies under their Initial Common Core Knowledge and Skills (CEC, 2009), including components related to sociocultural influences on teaching and learning (e.g., "the impact of the dominant culture on shaping schools and the individuals who study and work in them" p. 214) (see APPENDIX A).

The Council of Chief State Officers formed InTASC. The leaders of the consortium provide educators in TPPs with teaching standards, indicating what teachers should be able to do in order to ensure every P-12 student reaches the goal of college readiness or entrance into the workforce. Pertaining to teachers' responsibilities to their students from CLD communities, the members of the consortium write: "Teachers need to recognize that all learners bring to their learning varying experiences, abilities, talents, and prior learning, as well as language, culture, and family and community values that are assets that can be used to promote their learning" (InTASC, 2011, p. 3). The leaders

from InTASC organized their standards for teacher preparation by themes, which include: (a) cultural competence and (b) English language learners (ELLs). Each of the themes is then grouped by: (a) knowledge, (b) disposition, and (c) performance (see APPENDIX B).

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) represents another professional organization that responds to the call to adequately prepare teachers, as they include performance indicators within their accreditation requirements. The leaders of this professional organization provide both *initial* and *advanced* standards, whereby *initial* standards are used in programs for first-time early childhood licensure candidates, including PSTs (NAEYC, 2012). The *Building Family and Community Relationships* standard includes these three key elements: (a) knowing about and understanding diverse family and community characteristics, (b) supporting and engaging families and communities through respectful, reciprocal relationships, and (c) involving families and communities in young children's development and learning (p. 30). The authors of NAEYC's standards call for well-prepared PSTs who understand how to engage families in all aspects of the teaching and planning. Finally, NAEYC leadership also provides teacher educators with a rubric upon which to measure the three key elements of the *Building Family and Community Relationships* standard (see APPENDIX C).

Last, NCATE (2008) representatives have provided a conceptual framework for TPP educators. Within this framework are six standards: one standard (*Standard 4: Diversity*) is related to diversity and includes specific skillsets that are necessary for PSTs

to obtain prior to certification. Indeed, NCATE's *Standard 4: Diversity* is separated into four sections: (a) design, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum and experiences, (b) experiences working with diverse faculty, (c) experiences working with diverse candidates, and (d) experience working with diverse students in P-12 schools. The members of the agency go further by elucidating expected indicators for success; for each component, NCATE designers provide descriptors of unacceptable, acceptable, and target criteria (see APPENDIX D).

In summary, all four professional organizations (CEC, InTASC, NAEYC, and NCATE) have responded to the growing diversity of the P-12 public school student population and provide TPP educators with criteria to develop, or monitor, successful outcomes for PST preparation. Next, the focus of this review turned from the national level, to the state level.

State Professional Standards

At the state level, the representatives from Texas Education Agency (TEA) issue standards and requirements for what each TPP must ensure of its teacher candidates by completion of the program. Only qualified teacher candidates from approved TPP in Texas may be eligible for certification. The leaders of public institutions of higher learning must provide documentation to TEA in order to operate in the state prior to offering their program, and their programs are also subject to review (reaccreditation) at least once every five years (TEA, 2014). Most pertinent to this study, staff at TEA require that TPP educators within the State of Texas address the following subject matter:

(a) special populations, (b), family conferences/communication skills, (c) differentiated instruction, and (d) certification test preparation.

As part of achieving highly qualified status in Texas, a special education PST must take three certification examinations. They are: (a) Pedagogy and Professional Responsibilities (PPR) EC-12, (b) Special Education EC-12, and (c) the content area they wish to teach. For the purpose of this review, the research of this dissertation read through the PPR and the special education tests to seek competencies that were related to cultural or linguistic diversity. In the PPR, Domain I, Competency 002, indicates: "The teacher understands student diversity and knows how to plan learning experiences and designs assessments that are responsive to differences among students and that promote all students' learning" (TEA, 2011, p. 16) and states professional expectations that illustrate what a beginning teacher should do and know.

Within Texas, the Special Education EC-12 certification exam features 12 different competencies that are expected of the teacher candidates (TEA, 2010). The researcher conducted a content analysis of each competency in order to find inclusion of any of the following words or phrases: *culture, cultural, linguistic, environment, environmental, culturally and/or linguistically diverse*, and/or *socioeconomic status*. He found that all but two competencies met the criteria (10/12 competencies). Interestingly, the two competencies that did not meet the criteria indicators were the following: (a) promotes students' performance in English language arts and reading and (b) promotes students' performance in mathematics. In sum, the State of Texas and professional

organizations that accredit TPPs require special education PSTs to be cognizant of sociocultural influences on teaching and learning. Indeed, it is integral to the profession.

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING

At the very least, TPPs have two imperatives. They are: turn PSTs into well-qualified teachers and adhere to TPP accreditation agencies' standards at the state level. In order to meet these goals, the researcher conducted a literature review on CRT to see what was available for TPP educators who want to build, develop, and/or maintain programs that adequately equip their PSTs to be successful, highly self-efficacious teachers.

To get conceptual coherence about CRT, it is necessary to identify certain assumptions that undergird it. First, culturally responsive educators possess a constructivist orientation of learning; the student (and the teacher) is actively ascribing meaning to new information based on his or her interactions with and within his or her environment (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Vygotsky, 1978). The constructivist model of teaching and learning is in contrast to the transmission model, which suggests that the human mind is a blank slate and that knowledge is formed solely by one's sensory experiences (e.g., Locke, 1690/1995). Constructivists believe that it is nearly impossible to separate knowledge from the act of knowing. Further, the student (and teacher) is actively interpreting these new experiences into his or her memory as malleable mental

structures[2] (Piaget, 1977). Specific to this study, the student enter the classroom with pre-existing knowledge, beginning with their personal, cultural experiences that originate at home with – most typically – the student's mother (Vygotsky, 1978). It is from these origins, that an understanding of multicultural education emerges.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, multicultural education began as an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process to create educational equity for all learners (Smith, 2009). Smith agreed with Dewey (1916) on the necessity of connecting culture to an understanding of teaching and learning, and views this understanding as fundamental to a socially just, civic democracy. Indeed, the effort to develop and maintain a civic democracy through multicultural education has been featured in the literature (e.g., Banks, 2008). Multicultural education has also been extolled as having an "equalizing effect," not only among cultural backgrounds, but also between general and special education (Obiakor, 2006, p. 9). Researchers have proposed different methods as the means to create equal educational opportunities across diversity, marking the maturation of multicultural education, including: *CRT* (Gay, 2002a, 2010; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Villegas & Lucas, 2002); *culturally responsive pedagogy* (Hill, 2009); *culturally relevant teaching* (Ladson-Billings, 1994); and *culturally congruent instruction* (Au & Kawakami, 1994).

In closing, the insights that accompany student diversity must be infused into all aspects of teaching and learning. Failure to do so could harm the schools and jeopardize

[2] The literature also refers to mental structures as *mental models* (Craik, 1943) or *schemata* (Piaget, 1923/1926).

ongoing efforts to support democracy. Therefore, supporting diversity has ramifications for general and special education teachers and the programs that train them to teach. With this in mind, the next section of the chapter examines the literature and research on culturally responsive teacher preparation.

PREPARING CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHERS

Preparing culturally responsive teachers requires time, planning, and collaborating. The components that are needed to accomplish this goal for preparation are as complex as they are important, calling for the coordination of: (a) faculty and staff teaching the coursework, (b) cooperating teachers (CTs) to provide support and mentorship, and (c) university supervisors to also provide support, as well as represent the preparation program on the host campuses. Prior research has indicated that there are a variety of approaches to meet the professional teacher preparation standards, and prepare the candidates to meet the diverse needs and backgrounds of their students (Ostendorf, 2013; Robertson, García, McFarland, & Rieth, 2012). The literature on the coursework and the field experience/practicum that supports the preparation will be explored next.

Coursework

To begin a review of the coursework, it is helpful to review Bank's (2001) goals for multicultural education because of his extensive scholarly work on the topic. Banks said there are three purposes to multicultural education: the first is to create opportunities

to explore, support, and extend concepts related to diversity. The second is to sustain and improve human relations, and the third and final purpose, is a manner by which all can continue to work through conflicts and misunderstandings. Next, scholars such as Villegas and Lucas (2002) took these principles of multiculturalism and adapted them into a teaching context and offered intersecting characteristics of culturally responsive teachers' classrooms. These characteristics, combined with the state requirements for TPPs can provide a conceptual framework to meet the diversity components of the TPP curricula. There is much divergence amongst TPPs as to how they meet these requirements, mirroring the vast heterogeneity of the programs. Yet, the under-preparation concern and the future educational outcomes of students demand that we look further. In this vein, the next subsections will highlight two different, interrelated coursework features: methods and tools.

Methods. Much of the literature on multicultural or diversity-related coursework reveals many different methods to accomplish the goal of preparing culturally responsive teachers. Common themes include developing the teacher candidate's awareness of the sociocultural influences on teaching and learning, and particular methods, and mindsets necessary to promote cross-cultural awareness, communication, and collaboration. An integrated approach is preferred over a stand-alone course, whereby multicultural content is infused throughout all of the coursework (Cochran-Smith, Davis, & Fries, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 2011; Scott & Ford, 2011). Students who take their courses within a cohort are often reported to be successful, as the cohort structure provides opportunities to develop supportive relationships with other students in the program (Tyler, Yzquierdo,

Lopez-Reyna, & Flippin, 2004). Other scholars have compared the cohort structure to a *learning community* (e.g., Kent & Simpson, 2009) and their classrooms as "intercultural spaces" (García, 2012, p. 156) where the teacher educators are modeling the very practices they seek to instill in their PSTs when they work with their own students.

Returning to the coursework requirements, educators from university-based TPPs reported that their courses include: multicultural themes (Adams et al., 2005; Zozakiewicz, 2010); critical analysis of beliefs and values to build cultural self-awareness (Bates, Ramirez, & Drits, 2009; McHatton, Smith, Bradshaw, Vallice, & Rosa, 2011; Robertson et al., 2012); collaborating with diverse families (Lyons, 2009; Robertson et al., 2012); education and professional issues in urban contexts (Townsend, 2002); student teaching fieldwork requirements, specifically with students from CLD backgrounds (Correa, Hudson, & Hayes, 2004; Kea et al., 2002; Pappamihiel, 2004; Rushton, 2003); and/or seminars led by teacher educators who have had experiences working with CLD students themselves (Zeichner et al., 1998). In nearly all instances, it is important to note that the PSTs were taking these courses concurrently with their field experience(s).

Tools. The researcher used the term *tool* in this review to describe assignments, activities, projects, or measurements that teacher educators offer in their coursework or supervision to support their PSTs' understanding and appreciation of the student diversity in their field experiences. Using Villegas and Lucas's (2002) conceptualizations of CRT to understand the purpose of these tools, the purpose was to provide the PSTs with opportunities to critically analyze their experiences and apply concepts they are learning in the coursework.

It is not surprising, given the heterogeneity of programs and courses available, that the tools featured and/or recommended in the literature were also numerous. They included: (a) concept maps (Correa et al., 2004), (b) writing or journaling (Kea et al., 2002; Robertson et al., 2012; Sleeter & Owuor, 2011; Townsend, 2002; Zozakiewicz, 2010), (c) Critical Incidents (CI) instructional tool (Tripp, 1993 as cited by Griffin, 2003), (d) urban education seminars (Townsend, 2002), (e) simulations (Robertson et al., 2012), (f) post-experience essays (Sleeter, Owuor, 2011), (g) case study assignments (Lyon, 2009), (h) portfolios (LeCompte & McCray, 2002), (i) analysis of video-based scenarios (Robertson et al., 2012), (j) individualized action plans (Sleeter & Owuor, 2011), and (k) presentations at professional conferences (Townsend, 2002). This list, while extensive, is not exhaustive.

Field Experience and Practicum

Teacher preparation program educators expect their PSTs to complete field experience(s) and coursework to develop the professional skills, knowledge, and dispositions to meet the needs of all of their students. As stated earlier, the field experiences provide unique opportunities to contextualize the teacher candidates' learning. But, researchers have found that the teaching practices in the field experiences should be evidence-based (Maheady, Smith, & Jabot, 2014) and "extensive, well-planned, and well-supervised" (Brownell et al., 2005, p. 247). Furthermore, the need for special education PSTs to get practical experiences working with students from diverse backgrounds has also been well documented (Correa et al., 2004; Seidl & Pugach, 2009;

Trent & Dixon, 2004; Trent et al., 2008), while also recognized by professional organizations and accreditation agencies. Yet, the field experiences requirements themselves vary widely.

To expand on how the field experience and practicum requirements vary, the researcher shifted his focus to the variables associated with the field experience. The variables included different: (a) settings (e.g., urban, suburban, or rural); (b) durations; (c) instructional delivery expectations; and (d) levels of supervision. Clearly, the duration will impact the intensity and depth of the practice. Villegas and Lucas (2002) recommended that the field experience(s) begin as early as possible to provide PSTs with more exposure to serving students from CLD communities and also to counsel out any candidates who would likely not be successful in these settings. Other internship descriptors included PSTs: (a) tutoring students weekly (Adams et al., 2005; Lyon, 2009), (b) teaching 1-2 full school days a week (Bates et al., 2009; Griffin, 2003; Pappamihiel, 2004), and (c) student teaching 5 days a week (Robertson et al., 2012).

Similarly, the instructional model required by the TPP for the PSTs to complete in their field experiences varied in breadth and depth. In the review of the literature, studies used different nomenclatures for their instructional model. They included: (a) tutoring, (b) student teaching, (c) interning, (d) mentoring, and (e) volunteering. The studies that featured a student teaching instructional delivery model tended to require a longer duration of time in the field experience practice (e.g., Bates et al., 2009; Kea et al., 2002; Pappamihiel, 2004; Robertson et al., 2012; Rushton, 2003; Zozakiewicz, 2010), whereas

volunteering, tutoring, and mentoring were implemented over shorter periods of time (e.g., Adams et al., 2005; Lyon, 2009).

PREPARING CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE SPECIAL EDUCATORS

The preparation of culturally responsive special educators clearly shares characteristics of preparation programs for culturally responsive teachers. However, in addition to the meeting the diverse needs, characteristics, and backgrounds of students in general education settings, special educators must also be prepared to develop expertise about the educational needs related to exceptionalities. These future teachers must become skilled in differentiation, modification, and individualizations of the curricula, and be able to identify and address special education needs regardless of whether the students are situated in an inclusive classroom, a resource classroom, or a self-contained classroom. The instructional needs of students with disabilities often require more intensive and explicit instruction than the instruction provided by general education teachers (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Compton, 2012; Lignugaris/Kraft & Harris, 2014). Further, TPP educators must prepare their teacher candidates to recognize, identify, and address the influence of cultural and/or linguistic variables on their students' learning, including the second language acquisition process for English language learners (Klingner et al., 2014). In sum, special education TPPs share many characteristics with general education TPPs, but, additionally, they need to prepare their future teachers with a specialty for serving exceptional students.

In the review of the literature on preparing culturally responsive special educators, it is helpful to revisit the research on multicultural education (such as CRT), but this time, locating studies that contextualize it to P-12 special education settings. It is disconcerting, though not surprising, that there remains a limited amount of empirical research on the implementation of CRT in special education settings (Shealey et al., 2011; Trent et al., 2008). Shealey et al. came to this conclusion after conducting a review of the literature empirical research on the effectiveness of CRT in special education for preservice and in-service teachers. To conduct the review, Shealey et al. selected manuscripts that: (a) addressed CRT with students with disabilities in self-contained or inclusive settings in grades K-12, (b) featured either qualitative or quantitative methodologies, and (c) were conducted between the years 1999-2009. They located only 8 articles, clearly revealing an understudied phenomenon.

Shealey et al. (2011) organized the findings from their literature review by the following major themes: (a) cultural knowledge, (b) teaching strategies, and (c) attitudes/perceptions. In their discussion, they joined the voices of other scholars (e.g., Gay, 2002a, 2010; Gay & Kirkland, 2003) that cite critical consciousness as a core tenet to CRT. Shealey et al. also suggested that teacher educators should: (a) provide opportunities for introspection to examine individual values and beliefs and their implications for serving CLD communities and (b) create safe spaces to engage in difficult discussions with the PSTs pertaining to cultural values, assumptions, and differences.

Given the lack of specificity in the literature on preparing PSTs to practice CRT approaches in special education settings, it becomes necessary to revisit the recommendations for coursework and field experiences to prepare PSTs to be culturally responsive in a broader sense. Villegas and Lucas (2002) and Zeichner et al. (1998) offer helpful guidelines. Their guidelines related to this study were for teacher educators to carefully: (a) plan the field experience in advance, (b) plan guided by a shared theoretical framework and clear pedagogical purposes, and (c) ensure that PSTs are well-prepared for the practice before they begin. When it comes to selecting host schools and CTs, program personnel should seek settings that:

> "[…] Serve diverse student populations and, to the extent possible, the teachers [the CTs] are already working successfully with culturally and linguistically diverse students or are actively engaged in bringing about changes to increase their success in teaching diverse student populations" (Villegas & Lucas, 2002, p. 136).

With guidelines for preparing culturally responsive general and special educators established it becomes necessary to review the literature on the mechanics of how the preparation begins. This is important to do, bearing in mind the under-preparation concern addressed in Chapter 1 and the ultimate goal of priming self-efficacious teachers who are meeting the needs of the diverse learners in their classrooms. This particular dissertation will feature special education PSTs who are supported by a CT and a university supervisor. Therefore, the focus on the pertinent literature shifts to PST supervision.

PRESERVICE TEACHER SUPERVISION

The university supervisors of PSTs are the professionals who oversee the teacher candidates' fieldwork, along with the CT. Unlike the CT, however, the university supervisor represents the university during the internship, student teaching, or practicum. Most typically, the supervisor observes the teacher candidates teach a lesson and then follows up by providing them with written and/or verbal feedback delivered over a post-conference (Cuenca, 2012). There are also other models for supervision that encourage the use of a pre-conference to set professional goals (e.g., Costa & Garmston, 2002). Regardless of the model employed, the intent remains on the teacher candidate's professional development and self-efficacy to deliver evidence-based instruction.

The topic of university supervision has been found to be complex for a variety of reasons. First, universities and colleges of education seldom acknowledge the work of the supervisors (Cuenca, 2012) and their work is often under-valued. Scholars have explained this by pointing out these commonly held assumptions: (a) the inverse relationship in higher education between status and proximity to the field (Cuenca, 2012; Lagemann, 2000), (b) practice having an uneasy relationship with higher education (Steadman & Brown, 2011; Grossman et al., 2009), and (c) preparation programs being highly profitable, but not prestigious for the colleges and universities as a whole (Darling-Hammond, 2010). As a result, it is not surprising to find a dearth of literature on university supervision. It was mentioned in Chapter 1 that in highly regarded handbooks on teacher education such as *Studying Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith &

Zeichner, 2005); *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith et al., 2008), and *Handbook of Research on Special Education Teacher Preparation* (Sindelar, McCray, Brownell, & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2014), discussion about supervision was either absent or limited to a few pages.

For the purpose of this dissertation, the researcher assumed that the supervisor can impact the teacher candidates' practices, concurring with past research (Bates & Burbank, 2008; Bates et al., 2009; Bates, Drits, & Ramirez, 2011; Hassaram, 2013) and that, like teaching, supervising is a professional practice with skills that are developed over time (Schwille, 2008). Although limited, the existing literature reveals roles the supervisor can apply that relate to this study on PST self-efficacy. The proponents of the roles suggest that the supervisor can be a/an: (a) advocate (Koerner et al., 2002), (b) supporter/model of critical, reflective teaching (Clifford, Macy, Albi, Bricker, & Rahn, 2005; Hassaram, 2013; Jacobs, 2006; Zozakiewicz, 2010), and (c) catalyst to synthesize concepts learned during coursework into practice (Cuenca, 2012; Hassaram, 2013). At the very minimum, the university supervisor fulfills the preparation program's requirements identified by the state accreditation standards (e.g., Texas Education Agency, 2014).

It is with those understandings gathered from the literature, that the researcher conducted his study. To summarize, the researcher concurred that the supervisor can: (a) impact the teaching practices of the PST, (b) be an advocate, supporter/modeled of critical, reflective teaching, and (c) be a catalyst for the PST to apply concepts from the university coursework into the field experience setting. He hypothesizes that the

supervisor may also support the PST in recognizing his or her ability to deliver effective instruction for diverse learners, and, thereby strengthen his or her self-efficacy beliefs to do it.

Cognitive Coaching (CC; Costa & Garmston, 2002) as an example of a model to conduct supervision was mentioned earlier in Chapters 1 and 2. Arthur L. Costa and Robert J. Garmston, who are credited with founding the CC approach to supervision, cited *mediated learning* (Feuerstein, 1990; Feuerstein, Feuerstein, Falik, & Rand, 2006; Feuerstein, Klein, & Tannenbaum, 1999) as a key epistemological assumption to the CC approach, and positioned the supervisor to be as a coach and an agent, to support the professional development of the novice (Costa & Garmston, 2002). The principles of CC and mediated learning theories also influenced the researcher/supervisor of this study. Therefore, the focus of the literature review shall shift from PST supervision, broadly, to the CC model and mediated learning more specifically. The next subsection of the chapter will identify and explain both more fully.

Cognitive Coaching Model

To understand the CC model, it is first important to look at its theoretical and epistemological assumptions. The CC model holds constructivist views of teaching and learning. Costa and Garmston (2002) had also cited Feuerstein's (1990) *mediated learning* theories as an appropriate way to interpret the practice of supervising – or, using the language of the CC model – coaching. The constructivist views pertaining to teaching and learning have been discussed earlier Chapter 1, and are also aligned with the

researcher's conceptual framework for this dissertation. Indeed, supporters of the CC approach conceptualize supervision as being a form *coaching*, whereby coaches use their techniques to "convey a valued colleague from where he or she is to where he or she wants to be" (Costa & Garmston, 2002, p. 21).

Returning to Feuerstein's (1990) *mediated learning* theories, because of its centrality to CC, Feuerstein is credited with having introduced mediating learning as a way to understanding teaching and learning, and mediated learning quickly became popular in educational psychology. Mediated learning refers to the way in which stimuli in a given environment are understood and transformed by a mediating agent in the life of the learner (Feuerstein, 1990; Feuerstein et al., 1999; Feuerstein et al., 2006). The mediating agent for the learner can be any trusted individual in the learner's life including a parent, sibling, or teacher. In accord with Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theories on teaching and learning, the mediating agent is guided by his or her culture and intent, in order to help select the variety of stimuli for the learner, that correspond with the goal of improving the learner's functioning (Feuerstein et al., 2006). The agent plays a major role in selecting the stimuli, which he or she determine are the most pertinent for his or her student to learn and to fine-tune the student's behavior that, with time and practice, become cognitive strategies to accomplishing a desired task and outcome. Indeed, Costa and Garmston (2002) incorporated mediated learning theories into CC and, in the example of this dissertation: the learners are the PSTs and the supervisors/coaches are among their many mediating agents.

The CC approach to supervision was first conceived in the mid-1980s as a strategy to support school administrators who sought to apply humanistic principles of teacher evaluation. It utilizes the clinical supervision model (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969) to conduct the supervisor's professional responsibilities, repositioning the work from evaluator to a coach, supporting self-direction, and, ultimately, self-evaluation. The clinical supervision model also called for a role change in which the supervisor and PST become colleagues, built on mutual respect of each other's contributions. Costa and Garmston (2002) outline the basic structure to supervision, requiring a/an: (a) pre-conference, (b) observation of the teaching event, and (c) post-conference. However, cognitive coaches are also in tune to "in-the-moment opportunities," built around the observation of the lesson (p. 7). The coaches are encouraged to suspend the impulse to give feedback and, instead, ask open-ended questions to elicit self-assessment from the mentee. When evaluation needs to be conducted, and they indicate it does, the goals become "trust, learning, and autonomy" (p. xvii). Always front and center to the model is the focus on the PST's cognitive development.

To accomplish these goals, Costa and Garmston (2002) offer the following:

1. Cognitive Coaching consists of a set of skills, mental maps, capabilities, values, beliefs, and commitments; all of which become a part of the coach's professional identity.
2. Cognitive coaches are "skilled at constructing and posing questions with the intention of engaging and transforming thought" (p. 6), while employing nonjudgmental response behaviors and other humanistic

psychological orientations to teaching and learning in order to establish and maintain rapport, trust, and intellectual engagement.

3. Cognitive coaches know "their own intentions and choose congruent behaviors, [while] setting aside unproductive patterns of listening, responding, and inquiring" (p. 6).
4. Cognitive coaches "adjust their own style preferences, and they navigate within and among several mental maps to guide their interactions [to get to] self-directed learning" (p. 6).
5. Cognitive coaches are committed to life-long learning and maintain that all individuals continue to develop their intellect throughout their lifetimes.
6. Cognitive coaches hold that teaching behaviors are "the product and artifact of inner thought processes and intellectual functions. Changing the over behaviors of instruction requires the alteration and rearrangement of inner, invisible cognitive behaviors" (p. 9).
7. Through utilizing learning that is reciprocal and shared between the coach/supervisor and the PST, the cognitive coach focuses "on the other person's perceptions, thinking, and decision-making processes to mediate resources for self-directed learning" (p. 15).

The CC model recognizes that the coach, or supervisor, will not be providing the coaching method all of the time and may be in a position where they are required to evaluate. In their book, *Cognitive Coaching: A Foundation for Renaissance Schools*

(2002), Costa and Garmston stipulate that their model must always be flexible; the coach must recognize when it is appropriate to use the features of the model and when it is more appropriate to use other features that are separate, but related to, CC. Specifically, Costa and Garmston mention *consulting*, *collaborating,* and *evaluating* as three other models for PST development. In particular, they indicate that the *consulting* and *collaborating* functions "prevail" (p. 9). To clarify, Costa and Garmston define *consulting* as the act of informing "processes and protocols; [giving] advice based on well-developed expertise for particular choices and actions" (p. 11). They understand *collaborating* as featuring "people with different resources working together as equals to achieve goals [when] the teacher and support provider plan, reflect, or problem-solve together" (p. 12). However, over time and practice, the coaching becomes the more dominant feature (see APPENDIX E).

With the CC model of supervising PST addressed, it is now important to examine the research that features educators using the model. The researcher conducted a review of the literature on the research featuring the CC model and analyzed the self-reported research put together by the Center for Cognitive Coaching (2012). The results of the review will be shared in the next subsection of the chapter.

Cognitive Coaching Research

This section will address the literature on the implementation CC for supervision and coaching with teachers and teacher candidates. This will be accomplished in two ways: (a) reviewing the literature cited by the Center for Cognitive Coaching (2012) and

(b) conducting a separate review of the more recent empirical research in peer-reviewed journals. The section will conclude with a summary of the findings.

Research reported by the Center for Cognitive Coaching. Before looking into the self-reported research from the Center for Cognitive Coaching, it is first important to acknowledge the creation of the Center. Carolee Hayes and Jane Ellison formed the Center for Cognitive Coaching in the early 1990s in response to a surge of interest in the principles of CC and the first edition of the book *Cognitive Coaching: A Foundation for Renaissance Schools*, edited by Arthur Costa in 1994. The purpose of the Center was "to provide leadership training and to serve as a resource to schools and districts that desire [CC] services, information, and products" (Costa & Garmston, 2002, p. xx). According to the Center, as the CC model gained more traction, its clientele grew; CC consultants now work not only with schools and districts, but with professional organizations, corporate agencies, and businesses as well. The name of the Center changed to Thinking Collaborative. It is not surprising that, along with the growth and popularity, research on the implementation of the model also became necessary.

Thinking Collaborative representatives generated a list of 73 scholarly works published between 1988-2012 that featured educators using CC approaches (Center for Cognitive Coaching, 2012). The research included: (a) 38 dissertations, (b) 13 papers presented at national conferences, (c) nine journal articles, (d) nine research reports, (e) two book chapters, and (f) one book. The journals included: *Educational Leadership, Teaching and Teacher Education, Issues in Educational Research, Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, Vision, Journal of Jewish Education,* and *National Association of Secondary*

School Principals. Next, the researcher reviewed each of the scholarly works to locate reports that mentioned *preservice teachers, student teachers, supervision, supervisors, self-efficacy,* and/or *cooperating teachers* in either the title, abstract, or key words. This new search yielded 19 sources; four of which were doctorate dissertations, and only one of was an article from a peer-reviewed journal.

Next, the researcher reviewed these five sources; all of which featured a study between 1995-2009 that used CC approaches to conducting supervision. They were Brooks (2000a, 2000b), Maginnis (2009), McMahon (1997), and Townsend (1995). Interestingly, and of relevance to this dissertation, McMahon's work featured special education PSTs as participants. The researcher culled together the outcomes from each of the studies and found that CC:

1. Was recommended for TPPs because the approaches help develop strategies to enhance the student teacher's reflective teaching (Brooks, 2000a, b; Townsend, 1995).
2. Resulted in more positive CT and student teacher experience because of its questioning techniques (Brooks, 2000a).
3. Prepared the CT and student teacher with tools for dialogue and reflection (Brooks, 2000a).
4. Supported clinical faculty in developing positive relationships and increased levels of trust (Maginnis, 2009).
5. Helped increased the perceived effectiveness of student teacher performance (Maginnis, 2009).

6. Supported statistically significant increases in teacher intern awareness, skill development, and application (McMahon, 1997).

It is important to note that the studies reported by the Thinking Collaborative were self-reported and self-selected by the organization. Therefore, it is not surprising that the findings from the studies were supportive of the model. Researchers employed by Thinking Collaborative did not report their methods for identifying the literature they cited. Therefore, these findings are limited and a more thorough literature review is warranted in order to locate empirical-based research on the topic.

Review of Cognitive Coaching literature. The researcher conducted a literature review to locate empirical studies featuring the implementation of CC. The search began by using "cognitive coaching" OR mentoring AND preservice teachers AND supervision using Academic Search Complete, ERIC, and PsycINFO databases. Studies were limited to those written in English, and published in peer-reviewed over a 10-year range (March 2004-March 2014). The researcher found 29 articles using this initial set of criteria. Next, he looked through the articles to identify studies that took place in the public schools in the U.S. in order to situate the work within the contexts of educational practices and guidelines in one country. This resulted in 16 articles. Finally, any remaining studies that did not feature an empirical study featuring supervisors and PST or novice teachers were eliminated. A total of 8 studies matched the final criteria (Bates et al., 2009; Bullough & Draper, 2004; McGatha, 2008; Schmidt, 2008; Schwille, 2008; Strong & Baron, 2004; Varrati, Lavine, & Turner, 2009; Zozakiewicz, 2010) (see APPENDIX F).

All studies located in the final review used qualitative methodologies, helpful for describing features and qualities of a given phenomenon. Interestingly, only 2 of the 8 studies featured the CC approach (McGatha, 2008; Strong & Baron, 2004), while the remaining 6 did not. Nonetheless, given the search criteria, the 6 studies provided information similar to the principles of CC, if not naming the model directly. Themes from the literature that were pertinent to this study revealed that CC and supervision for critical reflection and analysis of practice is highly complex. These sources of literature revealed other descriptors for this work, such as: difficult (Bullough & Draper, 2004), slow and learned over time (Bates et al., 2009; Schwille, 2008), mutually beneficial (Schmidt, 2008), and requiring "extreme effort" (Strong & Baron, 2004, p. 47). Other findings included:

1. Supervisors need to model critical reflection for their PSTs (Bates et al., 2009).
2. New mentors (supervisors) should be aware that it can be difficult to engage in rich conversations about teaching and learning and, like any new skills, it must be developed over time (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Schwille, 2008).
3. Cognitive coaching support functions serve different intentions and were not equally useful in moving PSTs/novice teachers toward reflection and self-direction (McGatha, 2008).

4. Clearly defining the coach's role in relation to the PST/novice teacher at the beginning of their professional relationships is very important (McGatha, 2008).
5. The quality of the relationship between the coach the PST/novice teacher impacts the PST's progress (McGatha, 2008; Schmidt, 2008), while a relationship of trust and rapport becomes mutually beneficial, even reciprocal, supporting the growth of both parties (Schmidt, 2008).

In closing, this literature review led the researcher to draw the following conclusions. There are: (a) insufficient empirical studies conducted on the CC model, (b) complexities involved in using the model, and (c) certain components of CC will be more helpful than others when supporting the practice of self-reflection for new teachers or PSTs. It is for these reasons that the researcher decided to use a supervision practice that is influenced by the CC and mediated learning theories (Feuerstein et al., 1999), but does not implement the model singularly or with fidelity. This researcher in this dissertation aimed to use the CC model to support his PST participant's self-evaluation and self-efficacy and drew from the model as necessary during his work as a university-appointed supervisor. With this stage set up, the focus of Chapter 2 will shift to a review of self-efficacy research.

SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

As noted in Chapter 1, teacher educators' ultimate goal is to prepare their PSTs to be effective teachers. Given the study's focus on special education and cultural diversity,

these future teachers were preparing to serve students of the twenty-first century, coming from increasingly diverse cultural, racial, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds. Moving to efficacy, prior researchers have found that effective teachers possess high levels of teacher self-efficacy to execute their obligations to serve their students (Brophy & Evertson, 1977; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and increase student learning (Armor et al., 1976; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Conversely, past researchers have also suggested that teachers who doubt their capabilities were more likely to burnout and/or decide to leave the profession entirely (Fives, Hamman, & Olivarez, 2007; Schawarzer & Hallum, 2008). Therefore, it is conceivable that a PST who is building confidence in his or her ability to teach through practice in the field experience, may become a teacher with more established, stronger self-efficacy beliefs to capably meet his or her teaching responsibilities. It is under this premise that a study such as this one was justified, to: (a) explore changes in PSTs' self-efficacy over the course of their first field experience and (b) examine contextual factors that may have contributed to the changes after the experience had been completed.

First, it is important to identify the factors that influence self-efficacy beliefs. This information represents a crucial step before moving on to assess self-efficacy. It is also important to review the work of Albert Bandura, who was the first scholar to identify the theory of *self-efficacy*.

To introduce his theory of self-efficacy, Bandura (1977a) first acknowledged the work of previous psychology researchers (i.e., Miller & Dollard, 1941) who explained that human behavior was acquired and regulated by central processing of "direct,

vicarious, and symbolic sources of information" (p. 192). Cognitive processes were understood to be key players to acquire and retain new behavior patterns. Bandura (1977b) expanded upon the *social cognitive theory* (Miller & Dollard, 1941) to include an understanding as to how individuals acquire new knowledge. Central to Miller and Dollard's social cognitive theory was that individuals observe others and from these observations they form a conception of how new behavior patterns are performed, which is then cognitively stored for later occasions. This symbolic construction serves as a guide for future action and is enhanced further by self-corrective adjustments on informative feedback from performance (Bandura, 1971). Through this observational learning, individuals come to establish consequences from their actions (and other's actions). These consequences serve as a way of informing what individuals should do to obtain beneficial outcomes and avoid negative ones. These consequences are powerful, impacting behavior through "the influence of thought [so much so that] beliefs about schedules of reinforcement can exert greater influences on behavior than the reinforcement itself" (Bandura, 1971, p. 192). Beliefs become central to an individual's decision making.

With Bandura's social cognitive theory established, the researcher next examined *motivation*. Bandura (1977a) explained that motivation consists of "activation and persistence of behavior" that is rooted in cognitive activities (p. 193). The individual cognitively constructs representations of future outcomes and decides current motivators for behaviors. By choosing to act a certain way, the individual creates expectations for desired benefits and to avoid negative ones. Bandura links these choices to goal-setting

and self-evaluated reactions; motivation becomes self-motivation involving standards upon which to evaluate performance. These conceptualizations set the stage for Bandura's concept of *self-efficacy* regarding an individual's perception to accomplish a given performance or task. Indeed, self-efficacy becomes "the perception that the individual has directive influence on choice of activities and setting [and] through expectations of eventual success, it can affect coping efforts once they are initiated" (p. 194). Self-efficacy drives the behaviors that lead to an *outcome expectancy* of the individual, followed by the outcome.

It is important to note that self-efficacy is different from other understandings of self (e.g., self-concept, self-esteem) in that self-efficacy is specific to a particular task (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Self-efficacy is independent from an evaluation of the self outside of the task. An individual may have high self-esteem but low self-efficacy to capably accomplish a task that he or she had never completed before. For example, a popular teenage male athlete may not consider himself to be an adequate father. This young man would likely have high self-esteem by virtue of his popularity and athletic accomplishments, but low self-efficacy to raise a child. The reverse may also be true, whereby an individual with a low self-concept may have high self-efficacy to accomplish a specific task.

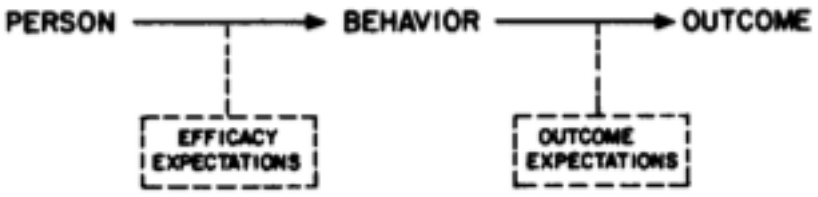


Figure 2.1: Bandura's efficacy and outcome expectations (1977a, p. 193).

Efficacy and outcome expectancy are clearly different, not only in the sequences upon which they occur. Outcome expectancy is understood as an individual's estimate that a chosen behavior will lead to a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977a). The influence of doubt over an individual is understood to be a much stronger determiner of self-efficacy, and less significant to outcome expectancy. An individual can believe that a particular course of action can lead to certain outcomes (outcome expectancy), but if he or she doubts whether he or she can capably perform the tasks in order to achieve the outcome – if he or she has a low sense of self-efficacy – this would not necessarily influence the understanding that a given task would still meet an outcome. Furthermore, in the context of this study pertaining to PSTs who had not officially started their teaching careers, it would be a more worthwhile endeavor to examine their self-efficacy, rather than their outcome expectations. This was the case because their practice was still a largely contained experience with many professionals who might had supported and/or influenced their sense of self-efficacy (e.g., teacher educators, CTs, coaches, administrators, university supervisors, students) who might not have had as significant of an impact on their outcome expectancy.

Now, given the importance of Bandura's self-efficacy theories and its impact on future behavior, it becomes necessary to turn to the sources of information that influence the individual. These sources of information are critical to the individual as he or she assesses his or her ability to accomplish a given task. As mentioned earlier, the sources of information that influence self-efficacy were particularly relevant to this study.

Sources of Information

Albert Bandura (1977a, 1991) credits four major sources of information that an individual considers when assessing his or her personal efficacy. They are: (a) performance accomplishment, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasion, and (d) physiological state. In order to strengthen an individual's efficacy, these sources of information can be used to decrease defensive behavior and stimulate expectations of success. The stronger the individual's self-efficacy, the higher the goals that she[3] sets up for herself and the more resolute she is in committing to reach them (Bandura, 1991), thereby becoming a recursive cycle. Depending on the context, one or more of the sources of information are more significant than the others. All four can be present in teaching and teacher training, and illuminated when the teacher candidate practices.

Performance accomplishment. This source of information is listed first because it is among the most influential on the individual, relying on personal mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977a). Strong efficacy expectations deepen with repeated success, while the negative consequences related to failure are reduced. In fact, Bandura

[3] The researcher selected gendered pronouns, at random, for the sake of brevity.

found that occasional failures tend to be overcome by increased effort, which in turn strengthens the individual's sense of self-efficacy. The effects of failure are diminished, and the strengthened self-efficacy tends to "generalize to other situations in which performance was [previously] self-debilitated by preoccupation of personal inadequacies" (p. 195). The methods that influence personal accomplishments are: (a) participant modeling, (b) performance desensitization, (c) performance exposure, and (d) self-instructed performance[4].

An example of a performance accomplishment in this study would begin with a PST teaching his first lesson. Through collecting student data after the lesson, he discovered that 100% of his students mastered his instructional objective. Based on the perception that his students mastered the objective and confirmed by student data, the teacher teaches his next lesson more confidently. This pattern over time would increase his motivation and decrease the impact of his more debilitating negative emotions (e.g., anxiety).

Vicarious experience. It is unconceivable to expect an individual to have first-hand experience performing every task. Therefore, individuals also rely on the performance accomplishments of trusted others. Through observing others perform difficult tasks without overly negative consequences, the individual can generate expectations that he, too, can meet the goals of the task if he improves or intensifies his efforts. This process becomes modeled behavior for the individual with outcomes that

[4] For further treatment of these sources of information, please refer to Bandura (1977a).

relay efficacy information. Bandura (1977a) found that vicarious experiences were typically induced by: (a) live modeling and (b) symbolic modeling.

An example of a vicarious experience in the context of this study would be when the PST observes his CT execute a behavior management technique that effectively supported the students' transition from the carpet to their desks in a brisk, orderly fashion. Prior to the observation, the PST was unsure what the transition should look like in this new classroom setting. Now, through observing his CT model this effective practice, he feels more confident that he can carry out the practice as well.

Verbal persuasion. This third category of information sources is not as influential on self-efficacy as performance accomplishments and vicarious experiences because it tends to lack "an authentic experiential basis" (Bandura, 1977a, p. 198). However, verbal persuasion is often the easiest and most accessible manner to attempt to influence an individual's behavior. Bandura also noted that verbal persuasion can be provided to encourage the individual to master tasks that she perceives are difficult, suggesting that this source of information can be highly interactive. In addition to encouragement, verbal persuasion can be used to reassure that the individual does, in fact, possess the capabilities to accomplish the task, which can potentially impact self-efficacy. Qualities of verbal persuasion include: suggestions, self-instructions, exhortations, and interpretive treatments.

An example of a verbal persuasion in the context of this study would occur during a post-conference between the university supervisor and the PST. This particular PST was being particularly hard on himself and questioned his ability to redirect the students'

attention in the classroom. The university supervisor recalled that over the week prior to them post-conferencing, the PST used an effective strategy by moving to the back of the classroom, turning the lights on and off, and waiting until he had "all eyes on him" before moving on to the next activity in the lesson. Because the PST was being hard on himself, he could not immediately draw upon this effective strategy that he previously featured in his lessons in order to get his students' attention. Through the reminder, the supervisor was able to use verbal persuasion to remind this PST of a strategy that he had already practiced, thereby redirecting his thinking and providing him with more support.

Physiological states. This final source of information works in combination with each of the preceding other sources. The physiological state refers to the individual's emotions pertaining to the circumstances involved in accomplishing a set task. Emotional arousal has been found to be a key source of information that impacts the individual's perception of self-efficacy, in particular if stress or anxiety is induced (Bandura, 1977a). Stress and anxiety typically sap the energy that could otherwise be used to meet a given task, therefore individuals who feel these negative emotions are less likely to expect that they will be successful. These emotions impact motivation and future efforts put forth to accomplish other tasks (Bandura, 1977b). Bandura identifies four ways to address efficacy expectations during a time when emotions are heightened: (a) attribution, (b) relaxation/biofeedback, (c) symbolic desensitization, and (d) symbolic exposure (1977b).

Physiological states in the context of this study might come into play as the PSTs begin their first field experiences because for majority of them, this will be the first time

that they will formally teach a lesson. It follows that their states of emotional arousal may be high because this experience is new and unknown for them. For an example, after two weeks in her field experience a PST finds that she is often comparing herself to her CT and replicating the practices that she sees her CT doing. She becomes increasingly frustrated when the students do not respond to her in the same way they do with her CT even though she believes she is trying *everything*. This continues for another week with no change that she can see, and she becomes discouraged. Finally, she shares her concern with her CT and university supervisor and seeks their feedback. The three develop an action plan; the PST and the CT will co-teach a lesson using a lesson plan written by the PST. The co-teaching experience helped the PST get practice and try out a new technique with the students while the CT monitored and assisted; both agreed that the students were a lot more engaged, and responded to her more as a teacher than ever before.

With the four sources of information that influence self-efficacy established, along with examples that PST may experience contextualized, the literature review will shift to assessments of self-efficacy. Given the wide range of studies that have followed Bandura's initial conceptualizations of self-efficacy, the focus of the review will only briefly touch on assessments measures, before moving onto teacher self-efficacy and assessments of teacher self-efficacy more specifically.

Assessment of Self-Efficacy and Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Individuals assess their self-efficacy to accomplish various functions and tasks regularly. At the same time, logically, one cannot be self-efficacious about all things because that would indicate that the individual has mastered every aspect of human life. Instead, individuals fine-tune their efficacy and motivation upon which to pursue given tasks. In this manner, Bandura (2006) concluded that an efficacy belief system will never be a global trait, but is, instead, a highly differentiated set of self-beliefs tied together to distinct realms of functioning. Similarly, Bandura indicated that there is no "all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy" (p. 307). If there was, this approach would have very limited explanatory and predictive value and its items would be featured in such general terms that they would no longer have meaning to specific situational demands and circumstances. For these reasons, the researcher shifted the focus of the review to literature about teacher self-efficacy assessments. Since the teaching profession has agreed-upon tasks, obligations, responsibilities, and dispositions, it is highly conceivable to locate teacher efficacy items that can more accurately reflect the construct.

Before Bandura's introduction of his self-efficacy theories in the late 1970s, there were studies that suggested that a teacher's belief in their abilities to serve students relates to his or her teaching effectiveness (e.g., Armor et al., 1976; Brophy & Evertson, 1977). Armor et al. and Brophy and Evertson were among the scholars who found that the most important teacher trait when it came to motivating students was (what is now understood as) the teachers' sense of efficacy. Armor et al. related this finding to reading achievement; the greater the teachers' efficacy, the more their students' reading levels advanced.

Following these studies conducted in the 1970s, Gibson and Dembo (1984) constructed the first teacher-efficacy scale. Teacher efficacy, or teacher self-efficacy, applies the concept of self-efficacy to the teaching profession. Thusly, teacher efficacy is the perception that the individual teacher has the direct influence on her ability to perform the obligations of the profession and she can affect coping efforts once they are initiated to positively impact student learning. Accepting this premise, Gibson and Gembo developed the *Teacher Efficacy Scale* (TES) and it continues to be among the most widely used and cited assessments in this area of research (Sorrells et al., 2004). Gibson and Dembo hypothesized that teachers with higher TES scores would: (a) provide greater academic focus in the classroom, (b) persist longer in their efforts, and (c) provide different types of feedback to students than teachers who scored lower. The TES included two measures: personal teaching efficacy (PTE) and general teaching efficacy (GTE). Gibson and Dembo found that teachers with a higher sense of efficacy were more likely to work with students in small groups for instruction and were less likely to criticize a student for an incorrect response.

Since the inception of TES, many related studies followed (e.g., Tschannen et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, 2007; Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990), including scholarship that critiqued and offered improvements to scale (e.g., Labone, 2004; Pajares, 1996). Indeed, research on teacher efficacy assessment has been maturing. Tschannen et al. recommended that future research should expand the conceptions of teacher efficacy to include other methodologies and perspectives to better understand the phenomenon. Labone was in accord with Tschannen-Moran et al. that prior teacher

efficacy research had been dominated by quantitative measures that explored only antecedents and consequences of the construct, thereby providing a limited view. In sum, the teaching context matters and more attention to the context is necessary in order to understand the construct of teaching efficacy. Following these suggestions, much care will be given to describe the context and methods of this dissertation in Chapter 3.

Just as the U.S. student population is becoming more culturally and linguistically diverse, it is not surprising that scholars have been studying teacher efficacy across different teaching contexts and with more diverse students. These types of studies are also of more relevance to this dissertation research. The studies included: teacher efficacy in working with students with disabilities (Brownell & Pajares, 1999; Soodak & Podell, 1993, 1998); teacher efficacy in working with CLD students (Watson, 1991); and teacher efficacy in working with CLD students with disabilities (Chu, 2013; Paneque & Barbetta, 2006). This dissertation built off of the findings of these researchers, in particular Chu (2013) and Paneque and Barbetta, but also contributed something new, with a focus on PSTs' self-efficacy to serve CLD students with and without disabilities.

Preservice Teacher Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The study of PST teacher self-efficacy was particularly intriguing because student teaching and interning typically signified the first time a teacher candidate got the opportunity to practice teaching. Some researchers (e.g., Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) noted that once efficacy beliefs are established as a PST, they appear to be "somewhat resistant to change" (p. 235) once the candidate has a classroom of his or her own.

Nonetheless, there is evidence that suggests differential impacts of PST teacher-efficacy and changes in scores of teacher-efficacy measures after completing a field experience and/or coursework. The remainder of this subsection of the chapter explores studies that look at PST self-efficacy (Housego, 1992; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Ross, 1998; Spector, 1990; Watters & Ginns, 1995), and its intersection with special education (Soodak & Podell, 1993), CLD learners (Siwatu, 2005, 2007, 2011a, 2011b; Sorrells et al., 2004), and CLD learners with disabilities (Kea et al., 2002).

Of relevance to this dissertation, a literature review of PST self-efficacy beliefs revealed implications that are useful for TPPs. Although at least one article suggested that PST self-efficacy might be resistant to change (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), others found that features of the preparation programs did influence changes. Coursework and field experiences that provide PSTs with *vicarious learning experiences* and *verbal persuasion* were found to have a greater impact on both PTE and GTE measures (Housego, 1992; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Watters & Ginns, 1995). Watters and Ginns found that college coursework provided social (verbal) persuasion: a key source of information in the formation of self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran et al. noted that performance feedback after the student teaching practice in the field experience was a source of verbal persuasion. A university supervisor, a CT, or any faculty affiliated with the TPP can be the source of the performance feedback. Interestingly, Hoy and Woolfolk, as well as Spector (1990), discovered a decline in the PST teacher-efficacy as a result of the student teaching, suggesting that the initial optimism of the teacher candidates may have been somewhat diminished by the complexities of teaching. Ross

(1998) also found that many PSTs make unrealistic and optimistic appraisals of their teacher self-efficacy before they practice, and later, recalibrated the measures of their beliefs after they have completed their field experiences.

Preservice teacher efficacy to teach CLD students with and without disabilities. Although much research has been conducted on PST teacher efficacy, no research to date could be located on special education PST teacher efficacy, nor special education PST teachers' efficacy pertaining to their work with CLD learners with and without disabilities. There was one study designed by Soodak and Podell (1993) that examined the relationship between randomly selected (in-service) teachers (N = 192) in a major Northeastern U.S. city and their: (a) special education beliefs, (b) referrals for special education services, and (c) beliefs in their ability to work with "difficult to teach" students. The results of their study suggested that teachers' special education beliefs were closely associated with their decision to refer a student to special education and that "general educators with a greater sense of efficacy were more likely to perceive the general education placement as the most appropriate for students having difficulties" (p. 77).

Other researchers (Brownell & Pajares, 1999) conducted a study related to teacher efficacy and special education. While this study did not feature PSTs, the findings are significant for TPPs for special educators. Brownell and Pajares featured in-service general education teachers (N = 128) and found that their teacher efficacy beliefs had a direct effect on their perceived success to serve students receiving special education services. They also found that the greater the participants' teacher efficacy: (a) the

greater the self-perceptions of collegial interactions with special educators and (b) the greater the self-perceptions related to the quality of their preservice education. For these reasons, Brownell and Pajares recommended that their colleagues who are charged with structuring TPPs for general and special educators, alike, should make the two programs more unified so that their graduates can become more self-efficacious about their capabilities to serve students with disabilities.

Following the studies of Brownell and Pajares, and Soodak and Podell, came researchers who conducted studies featuring (in-service) teachers and their self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students with disabilities. Chu (2013) and Paneque and Barbetta (2006) followed this path. Paneque and Barbetta found that their special education elementary school teacher-participants' (N = 202) abilities to communicate in their students' native languages were predictive of their self-efficacy to work with those students. In her pilot study, Chu (2013) developed several findings, including: "several contextual variables (personal characteristics and experiences, *professional preparation* [italics added], and teaching assignments) could predict special education teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy" (p. 404).

Moving the focus back to PSTs, the researcher of this dissertation identified 4 studies of particular relevance. Three of the four studies addressed PST teacher-efficacy to teach CLD students (Kea et al., 2002; Sorrells et al., 2004; Siwatu, 2007). A fourth study (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008) did not address CLD students directly, but examined the impact of setting (e.g., rural, suburban, urban) on PST efficacy to teach. Given the intersection of cultural and linguistic diversity with settings (e.g., rural,

suburban, urban), the inclusion of that study is warranted. Of the most relevance to this dissertation was the work of Kea et al., as it examines the complex intersectionality of PSTs, TPPs, CLD students, and special education. Each of these four studies will be addressed, briefly, in the following section.

Sorrells et al. (2004) and Siwatu (2007) were both influenced by the work of Dembo and Gibson (1984). Each set of researchers modified Dembo and Gibson's teacher-efficacy scale to make it appropriate to administer on PSTs. From there, Sorrells et al. and Siwatu's investigations diverged. Sorrells et al. explored whether there were differences in efficacy ratings between African American and European American PSTs (N = 123) who were being trained at a Historically Black University (HBCU) in the Southern United States. In their component analysis of the results, Sorrells et al. found three key factors: ability, effort, and environment. African American participants scored statistically higher than the European American peers on the environment factor (t = 2.3, p = .02), but not for ability or effort. Siwatu developed the Culturally Responsive Teaching Competencies[5] that featured two measures—the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (CRTSE) and the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy scale (CRTOE). He administered the scales to PSTs (N = 275) within two TPPs in the Midwest and found that his respondents were more "efficacious in their ability to help students feel like important members of the classroom and develop positive, personal relationships with their students" compared to their ability to "communicate with English language learners" (p. 1086).

[5] Further treatment of this measurement will be explored in Chapter 3.

Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy (2008) conducted a study with members of a student teaching cohort (N = 102) from a mid-sized university in the Midwest who were completing their field experience requirements across three different settings: rural (n = 29), urban (n = 28), and suburban (n = 45). They found that the student teachers all exhibited a significant increase in teacher self-efficacy (t = 6.32, p < .001) following the student teaching component of their preparation program. Interestingly, the PSTs in urban settings expressed a lowered sense of collective self-efficacy (M = 4.11, SD = 0.57) compared to their peers in rural (M = 4.51, SD = 0.69) and suburban settings (M = 4.78, SD = 0.66). Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy also found that the PSTs' CT's efficacy was a predictor variable, correlating positively.

Last, Kea et al. (2002) conducted a study on African American PSTs (N = 43) who were enrolled in a TPP in a large HBCU in the southeastern United States. Kea et al.'s research methods included analyzing the results from 3 surveys they issued that addressed PSTs self-efficacy to effectively teach CLD students with and without disabilities. The results of this study indicated that slightly more than 80% of the student teachers felt highly competent to teach CLD learners, but none felt "very much prepared"—the highest possible rating in the scale. Further analysis of their data revealed other trends of relevance to this study. For example, in-group membership mattered, as the African American PSTs in the study felt most competent teaching African American students with and without disabilities, while less efficacious to teach students from other CLD communities (e.g., ELLs).

These studies all had an impact on the methodology of this dissertation. The literature revealed many complex considerations when addressing the two research questions of this study. Yet, given the complexity of the questions, the depth and breath of this literature review was warranted. It is now important to summarize the key findings from Chapter 2 and offer a few predictions, before proceeding into the third chapter on this dissertation's research design and methodology.

SUMMARY AND PREDICTIONS

In order to examine a complex phenomenon, such as changes in PST self-efficacy to teach CLD students with and without disabilities while completing their first field experience in a diverse setting, a variety of research had to be consulted. This began with recognizing the numerous multicultural teacher competencies in place by national professional organizations and state teacher education agencies. Next, in order to prime teacher candidates to be successful teachers of diverse students, it was necessary to review CRT literature. In order to develop culturally responsive teachers, the literature review shifted its focus to coursework and field experiences offered by TPPs for their teacher candidates. The literature on teacher preparation programs was reviewed to include special education literature, but revealed relatively little research on the topic. What was present was not always distinguishable from the literature on general education teacher preparation.

The focus of the literature review narrowed further, from TPP broadly, onto the components of the programs, with an intentional look into university supervision. The

researcher of this dissertation was employed as a university supervisor, so the focus was justified. The researcher adopted a coaching model to perform supervision, influenced by Cognitive Coaching (CC; Costa & Garmston, 2002), thus warranting a review of the literature on CC. Although there was little empirical research to the CC model, the researcher remained influenced by its philosophies, in particular, its attention to the impact of coaching on the client, in this case, the PST. Next, the review located literature on self-efficacy, teacher-efficacy, and studies featuring PST respondents because of the underlying theory that efficacy influences motivation and future actions (Bandura, 1977a, b), critical factors to the teaching profession. The review concluded by visiting the literature that looked PST self-efficacy regarding their work with CLD students with and without disabilities.

The researcher concluded that the study of PSTs self-efficacy to serve CLD students with and without disabilities while completing their first field experience represented a topic that is both contemporary and necessary in the field of special education teacher preparation. The researcher predicted that while the special education PSTs were undergoing their first student teaching field experience, the PSTs would indeed, experience changes and would encounter the sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that would impact their self-efficacy beliefs.

The next chapter outlines the research design and methodology that the researcher used to examine his research questions. The next chapter also identifies the conceptual underpinnings and assumptions that informed the researcher of this study. Through a

non-experimental, mixed methods analysis, the researcher sought to answer his two research questions.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS FOR THE STUDY

There were two theoretical frameworks the researcher drew from in order to conduct this study. They were: (a) a sociocultural theory on teaching and learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and (b) a social constructivist view of epistemology (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Geertz, 1973) interpreted through cultural lenses (Crotty, 1998). The researcher also shared John Dewey's (1916) belief that education is key to ensure a fully formed public opinion and is necessary to engage in a democracy. Each of these frameworks is explored next.

Researcher Positioning

The researcher used a sociocultural theoretical framework to conduct this study. The sociocultural theory, as it pertains to education, holds that learning and development are "interrelated from the child's very first day of life" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 84). For social research using this theory, learning would begin with the infant and mother bond. As the infant completes increasingly complex tasks with the help of emergent speech, the mother with her affect and attention reinforces the infant's accomplishments. From there the young learner undertakes new tasks using increasingly complex language, tools, signs, and symbols. In this manner, a main feature of the sociocultural theory is the interaction of the individual within his or her environment, originating with the home environment and, over time and maturation, extending to many other new locations (e.g.,

the school). These environments are among the many locations operating within a larger sociocultural context.

To elaborate, Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory suggests that the attitudes, beliefs, language, and values related to human behaviors are all situated within a sociocultural context. Individuals are continuously interacting within this context that, overtime, shapes knowledge and conception of reality (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). Therefore, research on teaching and learning (and learning to teach) must take into account its own sociocultural context. For clarification, the researcher was in accord with Rossman and Rallis's (2003) understanding of culture, in that it informs: "the way things are and […] the way people should act" (p. 95). To communicate these things, culture includes a shared system of significant symbols (Geertz, 1973). At the individual level, each person views the world in a "meaningful fashion through lenses bestowed upon us by our culture" (Crotty, 1998, p. 54). This study that explored preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy, therefore, had to account for its own sociocultural contexts starting with the supervisor/researcher conducting the research.

Supervisor positioning. The sociocultural theoretical approach to conducting research included an understanding of the role of the supervisor who oversaw the field experience in this study. The supervisor was also the researcher; he aimed to support the preservice teachers (PSTs) by providing "opportunities for intense reflecting [under the premise that it] will likely produce novice teachers who are better prepared upon first entering the classroom" (Kent & Simpson, 2009, p. 696). As previously mentioned, the Cognitive Coaching (CC) model to conduct supervision (Costa & Garmston, 2002)

influenced his practice. This model, in turns, draws upon mediated learning theories (Feuerstein et al., 1999) and the clinical supervision model (Cogan, 1973). Effective interpersonal relationships, build on rapport, trust, and communication are necessary for success of the clinical supervision model.

The ultimate goal of this study was to contribute to the corpus of special education teacher preparation research by understanding how PSTs described changes in their self-efficacy to serve culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students with and without disabilities, as well as the sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influence the changes. The researcher hypothesized that the PSTs who develop greater teacher self-efficacy beliefs about their capability to teach diverse learners would likely become teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs to teach diverse learners. Researchers have found that effective teachers are efficacious about their ability to serve their students (Brophy & Evertson, 1977; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and student learning increases results (Armor et al., 1976; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The researcher conducted his study using this framework and positioning.

INTRODUCTION

As addressed in Chapter 1, the P-12 public schools in the U.S. continue to become increasingly more culturally and linguistically diverse, while the teaching force remains predominantly White and female (Banks, 2008; Utley et al., 2008), many of whom are underprepared to meet the needs of their CLD students (Boutte, 2012; Sleeter, 2008) and underprepared to meet the needs of their CLD students with exceptionalities (Seidl &

Pugach, 2009). Teacher preparation programs in both general education and special education have a responsibility to train their teacher candidates to competently serve all of their students. Failure to do so could jeopardize the programs' obligation to meet the standards of the professional organizations (e.g., CEC) as well as the teaching certification standards at the state-level (e.g., TEA).

There is an abundance of literature that offers recommendations for teacher educators seeking to prepare PSTs to use culturally responsive practices (e.g., Banks et al., 2005; Cochran-Smith et al., 2004) and culturally responsive teaching (CRT) strategies in special education settings (e.g., Gay, 2002b; Obiakor, 2006). There is also an abundance of literature that provides examples of special education preparation programs that incorporated multicultural course(s) or themes within their coursework and field experiences requirements (e.g., Correa et al., 2004; Kea et al., 2002; Robertson et al., 2012; Townsend, 2002). The literature examining culturally responsive supervision and/or supervisors mentoring for practices with a CRT or social justice orientation appears less frequently but is emerging (e.g., Achinstein & Barrett, 2004; Hassaram, 2013; Jacobs, 2006; Zozakiewicz, 2010). It was at this juncture that the researcher of this dissertation proceeded to examine its two research questions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study sought to answer the following two research questions:

1. Do preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach CLD learners with and without disabilities change

after they have completed their first field experience, as measured by the modified Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2007)?

2. How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?

With the research questions identified, it is necessary to discuss the population and the sample that were featured. This section will help contextualize the investigation.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The study took place through a partnership between a large research university and an urban school district (Sweetbriar Independent School District; SISD[6]), both located in Central Texas. Members of the university's Department of Special Education recently restructured their undergraduate TPP to better prepare culturally and linguistically responsive special educators through a federally funded grant. One outcome of the restructuring was an effort to enhance the university supervisors' mentoring during the PSTs' internships in their field experience. To accomplish this goal, members of the Department developed an observation form to support the supervisors in both their knowledge and application of CRT. This, in turn, influenced the researcher/supervisor in how he conducted his work with his PSTs.

[6] Sweetbriar Independent School District (SISD) was a pseudonym.

Faculty members of the Special Education Department appoint university supervisors who meet certain criteria. At minimum, they must be: (a) full-time graduate students who are studying special education or educational psychology and (b) former P-12 teachers with at least three years of teaching experience in inclusive classroom settings.

The College of Education at the university is home to five departments, including special education. The College offers undergraduates a variety of majors through its Applied Learning and Development (ALD) cross-disciplinary department. For this study, the undergraduates were enrolled in the All-Level Special Education major. Most of the ALD faculty members align their coursework with at least one field experience. For those seeking certification, the undergraduate students take their courses as a cohort. Most typically, they are interning and student teaching individually, under the mentoring of one university supervisor and one cooperating teacher (CT). The staff members of the Office of Field Experiences at the university support the coordination of the teacher certification programs and, along with the undergraduate advisers for each certification program, are in frequent communication with representatives of local school districts in order to secure field placement sites.

This dissertation featured participants from Cohort 8[7], the special education cohort. At the time of the study the students in this cohort completed their first internship in inclusive, general education (K-5) classrooms in elementary schools in SISD. When the members of this cohort interned for the duration of their first field experience they

[7] Cohort 8 was a pseudonym.

were identified as “Intern Is”. They were typically, although not always, undergraduate students in their junior year at the university. The Intern Is had all successfully completed a foundations block semester comprised of four courses. Upon successfully completing their Intern I semester of courses and field experience, they would have three additional semesters of coursework and three different field experiences, requirements, and expectations (see APPENDIX G).

The Intern Is began the field experience component of the preparation program in general education classrooms despite being special education majors. This was done in order to prepare them to be dually certified in general and special education and achieve highly qualified status under No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002). Each Intern I PST was expected to complete 224 hr in the general education internship over the course of two 8-hr days a week for 14 weeks. The requirements for the internship included:

1. Implementing 15 whole group lessons, using lesson plans approved by the CT and university faculty
2. Implementing small group tutoring as requested by the CT
3. Assisting in classroom duties (grading, preparing progress reports or report cards, attending parent/teacher conferences, assisting in parent communication, assisting with behavior management, observing CT and other teachers on campus, preparing materials, completing lunch duty and/or recess duty, going to specials with

students, designing bulletin boards/learning centers, going to grade-level meetings, etc.), as requested by the CT

4. Being supervised closely by university supervisors
5. Developing a strong emphasis on teaching CLD students
6. Taking four courses: Reading Methods, Language Arts Methods, School Organization and Classroom Management, and Foundations of Positive Behavior Support and Classroom Management[8]

The university supervisor/researcher made 10 visits with each PST; six of which were observations of the PST teaching a lesson using his or her own lesson plans, and three of which were three-way conferences between the CT, the PST, and himself. The purpose of the first three-way conference was to introduce each member of the triad to one another, followed by another conference mid-way into the internship to review the PST's progress and set professional goals for his or her growth. The final meeting took place over the last week of the internship when the three parties conducted a *summative conference* in order to review the goals and assess the PST's progress over the entire field experience. The supervisor also conducted one visit with each of his PSTs after the initial conference to co-observe the CT teach a lesson and manage the classroom. The purpose for the co-observation was for the supervisor and the PST to share best practices and tie in concepts the PSTs developed over the foundations block semester into practice.

[8] For further treatment of Intern I field experience requirements, see APPENDIX H

Sampling Procedures

The researcher featured a stratified random sample (Särndal, Swensson, & Wretman, 2003) from the Cohort 8 Intern Is. He selected the sample after preparing a list of the names of all members of the cohort ($N = 24$) and sorting the list by each student's score, from greatest to least. Next, he stratified the group by determining the four quartiles and the median score, dividing the group into four strata. Each stratum was made up of six members of the cohort ($n = 6$). Next, he randomly selected two members from the lower quartile and upper quartile, and one member from the second quartile (median), totaling to five participants ($n = 5$). The researcher worked closely with this set of participants and was the university supervisor of record, supporting each of them in his or her first field experience. They also made up the sample ($n = 5$) that the researcher studied using the qualitative methods used to answer the study's second research question. Finally, the researcher also selected one additional PST from each stratum totaling to three ($n = 3$) to oversample in case any original participants were unable to complete the study.

The researcher featured the stratified random sampling procedure because the method often improves the chances of representativeness from the sample by reducing sampling error (Särndal et al., 2003). The stratified sample is designed to be the most representative of a population; in this case, the sample would be the most representative of the variety of self-efficacy beliefs found amongst the cohort of Intern Is.

Procedures for obtaining consent. After obtaining verbal permission from the Department of Special Education's undergraduate adviser to conduct the study, the

researcher obtained signed consent from each Intern I over the Fall 2014 semester (N = 24). He had been in contact with the undergraduate adviser at the proposal, beginning, and final stages of the study. The Cohort 8 PSTs were informed that the results of the pre- and post-measures would be shared with him to examine trends and changes (see APPENDIX K). They were also informed that he might need to access additional data sources from the course most closely affiliated with the field experience (EDC 331). The additional data sources included the participants' supervisor debriefing prompts, lesson plans, reflective journals, internship activity assignments, and final reflection papers. Finally, he sought consent to let them know that they might be selected to participate in an individual interview and member check over the final data collection final stage of the study[9]. All participants were assured that every effort to maintain confidentiality would be followed during the entirety of the study.

A proposal to Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the university was submitted to obtain permission to conduct research with human subjects. The consent forms were included in the IRB proposal. Maintaining anonymity was accomplished by using pseudonyms for the participants, the CTs, and the field experience settings. Upon the data analysis stage of the study, all data and data sources that were not pertinent to the research questions were destroyed to maintain confidentiality. The university's IRB committee approved the proposal to conduct the study.

Demographics

[9] Further treatment of each of these sources of data will be explored later in the chapter.

With the procedures to identify the participants established, it is now necessary to report pertinent demographic information. This information will help illustrate the sociocultural context (Vygotsky, 1978) of this dissertation. To accomplish this, demographic data will be shared about: (a) the university's students, (b) the university's College of Education undergraduates, (c) Cohort 8 Intern Is for 2014-15 school year, (d) the five PST participants, (e) the university supervisor, (f) SISD students, and (g) SISD's host campuses' students.

University demographics. According to the university website, in Fall 2014 the university enrolled 51,313 graduate and undergraduate students made up of 50.8% females and 49.2% males that were 46.9% White only, 19.2% Hispanic (any combination), 16.2% Asian only, 9.5% foreign, 3.8% Black only, and 4.4% Other (Hawaiian/Pacific Islander only, American Indian only, Two or More Races/Ethnicities, or Unknown). The university's College of Education enrolled 2,061 undergraduates made up of 66.1% females and 33.9% males. These undergraduates were 50.0% White only, 25.8% Hispanic (any combination), 9.6% Black only, 7.4% Asian only, 3.4% foreign, and 3.8% Other (Two or More Races/Ethnicities, American Indian only, Hawaiian/Pacific Islander only, or Unknown).

Participant demographics. As a whole, the Cohort 8 Intern Is were more culturally and linguistically diverse and more female than the overall undergraduate population enrolled in the College of Education for the 2014-15 school year. At the start of the fall semester, the Intern Is (N = 24) included 3 males (12.5%) and 21 females (87.5%). Five were bilingual: four in Spanish and English and one in French and

English. Their racial and/or ethnic backgrounds are illustrated in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2.

Racial/Ethnic Background	*n*	% of Intern Is
Asian (only)	02	08.3
Hispanic (only)	02	08.3
White (only)	11	45.8
Two or More Racial/Ethnic Backgrounds	09	37.5

Table 3.1: Racial/Ethnic Backgrounds of Intern Is, Cohort 8, 2014-15.

Racial/Ethnic Background	*n*	% of Intern Is
American Indian/White	01	04.2
Asian/Black	01	04.2
Black/White	01	04.2
Hispanic/Asian	01	04.2
Hispanic/White	05	20.8

Table 3.2: Racial/Ethnic Backgrounds of Intern Is from Multiple Backgrounds.

The participants, who the researcher selected to explore to address both research questions ($n = 5$), were slightly more male and more culturally and linguistically diverse than the remainder of Cohort 8 – though less male and more culturally and linguistically diverse than the university's College of Education students as a whole. The sample included four females and one male. All of the participants were fluent in English. Spanish was the second most widely spoken language: One participant was fluent in Spanish and two others were either beginning or proficient. One participant also reported

that she could use American Sign Language at a beginning level. The participants' racial and/or ethnic backgrounds are illustrated in Table 3.3[10].

Racial/Ethnic Background	*n*	% of sample
Hispanic (only)	01	20.0
White (only)	01	20.0
American Indian/White	01	20.0
Black/White	01	20.0
Hispanic/White	01	20.0

Table 3.3: Racial/Ethnic Backgrounds of Sample from Cohort 8.

The university supervisor/researcher of this dissertation identified as a White male from a monolingual English-speaking family. He was fluent in English and could also speak and write proficiently in Spanish, proficiently. Professionally, he was a former P-12 public school special education teacher, having taught for five years in culturally and linguistically diverse schools. He was a former assistant instructor and teaching assistant for the university as well as a PST supervisor for five years. Lastly, he was a Ph.D. candidate pursuing this Doctor of Philosophy in Multicultural Special Education at the time of the study.

Sweetbriar Independent School District (SISD). SISD was a diverse, urban school district. According to the school district's website, it was the fifth largest school district in the State of Texas and includes 129 schools within its boundaries. Its demographic data were available for the school year of the study (2014-2015). The

[10] Additional information about the participants is provided in Chapter 4.

district enrolled 84,591 P-12 students, of which 59.5% were Hispanic, 25.9% White, 8.0% Black, 6.6% Other (American Indian, Asian, Pacific Islander, or Two or More Races/Ethnicities). Its total student enrollment also included: 59.7% identified as economically disadvantaged; 27.6% who possessed Limited English Proficiency; and 10.1% who were receiving special education services. The district served students and families who spoke 94 different languages and educators employed with the district taught seven languages other than English in the schools, including Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and American Sign Language.

The sample in the study (n = 5) was completing his or her field experience requirement in elementary school campuses in SISD. Three of the participants (n = 3) were assigned CTs at Sycamore Elementary School[11] in the south central part of the city. According to the most recent data released by TEA (2015), Sycamore enrolled 546 students in grades EC-5th over the 2013-2014 school year. Sycamore's students were predominantly White (54.6%), followed by Hispanic (34.4%), Two or More Races (5.5%), African American (1.8%), and Asian (1.5%). Amongst the students, 31.5% had been classified as economically disadvantaged and 7.5% ELLs. Just fewer than 10% had been qualified for and receiving special education services (9.9%). Compared to the rest of the district, Sycamore had more White students and fewer students who were either economically disadvantaged or identified as being ELLs. Sycamore had an equal proportion of students receiving special education services compared the rest of the campuses in the district.

[11] Sycamore and Cannon were pseudonyms for the elementary schools.

The remaining participants (n = 2) completed their field experience requirements with CTs in Cannon Elementary School in the northeastern part of the city. According to the most recent data released by TEA (2015), Cannon enrolled 561 students in grades EC-5th over the 2013-2014 school year. Cannon's students were predominantly of Hispanic ethnicity (86.1%), followed by African American (7.7%), White (5.2%), and Two or More Races (0.7%). Amongst the students, 90.2% had been identified as being economically disadvantaged and 60.6% ELLs. Just fewer than 50 students qualified for and were receiving special education services (8.0%). Compared to the rest of the district, Cannon served a greater proportion of students who were: Hispanic, economically disadvantaged, and identified as being ELLs. Cannon served a smaller percentage of students in special education compared to the other campuses in the district.

DATA COLLECTION AND INSTRUMENTATION

This section looks at the researcher's data collection methods and his selection of instrumentation for this study. The data collection methodology will be explained precisely to clarify the procedures that were executed. The instrumentation section will feature Siwatu's (2007) Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scale, including the rationale behind the researcher's modification of the scale to fit the purposes of this study.

Methodology

This dissertation used a non-experimental, mixed methods research design. The researcher gathered data from the following sources for each participant who was included in the study: (a) two administrations (pre- and post-field experience) of a modified version of Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE, (b) supervisor debriefing prompts, (c) lesson plans, (d) reflective journal entries, (e) internship activity assignments, and (f) a final reflection paper for EDC 331. The final phase of data collection featured an individual, semi-structured interview with each of the five participants. The researcher's inclusion of these qualitative data sources was acceptable because this source of data can help portray the participants' values and beliefs while they are in (or reflecting about) their settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013). Qualitative methodological approaches to conduct multicultural special education research have also been recommended in the literature (e.g., Gay, 2002b; McCray & García, 2002). The researcher conducted content analyses of the documents to focus on "the presence, meanings and relationships of […] words and concepts" with the intention to make inferences about the messages (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 161). The foci of the content analyses were to examine changes of self-efficacy beliefs and the sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced the changes. The researcher performed member checks with each participant to invite his or her feedback and refine the findings.

Interviews are crucial when conducting research that focuses on lived experiences, such as this study. This strategy is used to capture the deep meanings of the experience in greater depth than the content analyses of the documents (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Because one of the foci of this study was on self-efficacy changes expressed by a sample from the cohort, individual interviews were preferred over a focus group interview. To elaborate further, individual interviews were preferred because they can provide more breadth and depth (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), contingent on trust and rapport building between the researcher and the participants. Also, the nature of the research questions were personal and subjective so conducting a focus group would not likely reveal as much pertinent data, compared to the more personal, individual interviews. To help make the participants comfortable, the researcher asked each participant to select his or her location for the interview (e.g., Starbucks, Denny's).

The researcher decided to privilege the study's interviews and members checks over the remaining qualitative documents because the interviews and member checks were inherently more interactive and required less inferential reasoning by the researcher. Interviews allow the researcher to "understand the meanings that everyday activities hold for people" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 145) whereas the artifacts (e.g., lesson plans, reflective journals) are less intimate and interactive, therefore, potentially more ambiguous to the researcher. So, in this study, the researcher conducted interviews and member checks and also collected artifacts, but he placed the most time and effort analyzing the interview transcriptions.

In the next section of the chapter, each research document (the artifacts and the interview protocol) is described. The section concludes with the researcher's analysis of the CRTSE and the modified CRTSE, including his justifications for the modifications.

Supervisor debriefing prompts. Observation is central to qualitative research (Marshall & Rossman, 2011) and an important professional obligation of the supervisor/researcher in the context of this study. One of the requirements for each Cohort 8 university supervisor was to observe his or her assigned Intern Is teach six different times once they had begun to design and implement their own lessons. The Intern Is began teaching lessons in early September and continued teaching 1-2 lessons weekly until the first week of December. Since the researcher was influenced by the CC techniques to conduct supervision (Costa & Garmston, 2002), he implemented its practice of holding a pre-conference, observing a lesson, and debriefing over a post-conference for each of the six visits. He recorded his observation by completing a running record using the *Facilitator Formal Observation Form* (see APPENDIX L). He shared the feedback with each PST by discussing it over the post-conference and emailing it to him or her shortly after the conference had finished.

In order to align the coursework with practice, faculty members in this TPP listed examples of techniques for instruction and classroom/behavior management on the *Facilitator Formal Observation Form*. These techniques were covered as part of the four courses the PSTs were completing with the field experience. They included:

1. Instructions were explained in accessible language.
2. Modeling (or think-aloud) was evident.

3. Students were given multiple opportunities to practice.

Regarding classroom/behavior management, they included:

1. Behavior expectations were clearly stated.
2. Positive behavior was reinforced.
3. Inappropriate behavior was ignored/redirected.
4. Environment was conducive to learning.

Finally, the *Facilitator Formal Observation Form* provided the supervisor with five prompts to ask the Intern I during the post-conference. Interestingly, four of the five questions align with principles of CC (Costa & Garmston, 2002) and the clinical supervision models (e.g., Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969), requiring that the supervisor reposition him/herself from an evaluator to a colleague, with the ultimate goal of promoting self-direction within the mentee. To illustrate, the first question on the form prompts the supervisor to ask: *How do you think it (the lesson) went?* This question invites the Intern I to reflect while the supervisor actively listens and/or records the response.

Of the five questions provided on the form, the third and the fourth were the most pertinent to this study because they asked the Intern I to reflect on how his or her self-efficacy was changing and how he or she was implementing culturally and linguistically responsive practices. The third question asked: *What (if anything) changed in what you thought you could do?* The question, therefore, invited the participant to assess his or her self-efficacy to complete any aspect of teaching that comes to mind. The fourth question asked: *How was your lesson culturally and/or linguistically responsive?* For context, the

Intern Is completed the ALD 327: Sociocultural Influences on Learning course the semester before their first field experience. The ALD 327 course was designed to provide the foundations for: (a) an appreciation for diversity, (b) an ability to apply the principles of intercultural communication to teaching contexts, and (c) an increased awareness of sociocultural influences of (their own) worldviews (see APPENDIX M). It was therefore expected, as part of the teacher candidates' professional development, that the Intern Is would apply concepts developed in ALD 327 into practice in their field experience.

The researcher typed, collected, and stored each of his participant's responses to these questions and kept it as a source of data. Upon completing the data collection in December 2014, the researcher conducted content analyses across the all of the participants' data sources to seek patterns and trends as well as the sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that could be linked to self-efficacy changes.

Lesson plans. As previously mentioned, the Intern Is were enrolled in four courses at the university that coordinated with their field experience. One of the courses, EDC 331: School Organization and Classroom Management was most closely affiliated with the field experience. To fulfill the EDC 331 requirements, the students were required to plan, write, revise, and implement 15 lesson plans. When conducting an observation with feedback, the supervisor followed these lesson plans (see APPENDIX N) to be cognizant of how the lesson may or may not have gone as planned. As they designed their lesson plans, the Intern Is were asked to specify accommodations for their learners. They were asked: *What accommodations do you need to make for diverse*

learners? The faculty member teaching the EDC 331 course thereby invited the PSTs to apply concepts they were developing in their coursework into practice by considering the diversity of the students who they were serving.

The lesson plans written by the five participants were collected and stored by the researcher. Their written responses to the "accommodation prompt" were used as a source of data for this study. Upon completing the data collection stage of the study in December 2014, the researcher performed content analyses across the data sources to find any emerging patterns or themes. He compared the data from each participant with specific items from the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) and the participant's two scores from the scales in order to gather evidence about his or her thinking regarding how he or she prepared lessons that were accessible for his or her diverse students with disabilities.

Reflective journals. The Intern Is were also expected to complete weekly reflective journal entries as a way to respond to prompts, readings, or vignettes relevant to what teachers encounter in the profession. Prior to implementing the study, the researcher met with the professor teaching EDC 331 to select two reflective journal prompts that align with the characteristics of culturally responsive teachers (e.g., Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and specific items on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007; see APPENDIX O). One of the outcomes of the meeting was their selection of two vignettes for the Intern Is to read; one illustrated a scenario that special educators often encounter in their work with ELLs, the second described a time when a special educator

experienced a culture clash in an unfamiliar setting as she supported her client with moderate intellectual disabilities (see APPENDIX O).

The two vignettes and reflective journal prompts provide the PSTs opportunities to apply Villegas and Lucas's (2002) understanding of *sociocultural consciousness*. The vignettes featured special educators who used sociocultural consciousness to "navigate through cultural boundaries that may separate them from their students" (p. xiv) and illuminated a key characteristic of a culturally responsive teacher. The journal prompts also pertained to items 5, 6, 24, and 25 of the CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007; see APPENDIX I, J) related to an educator's awareness of students' home cultures and his or her communication with families, parents, and/or caregivers. The five participants' journal entries from these two assignments were collected, stored, and used as a source of data. Upon completing the data collection phase of the study in December 2014, the researcher conducted content analyses of his participants' entries in order to develop emerging trends and any sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that impacted their self-efficacy.

Internship activities. Clearly, the Intern Is completed a variety of internship activities while completing their first field experience and their coursework (e.g., EDC 331; see APPENDIX H). The researcher and professor who taught the EDC 331 course selected two internship activities that would encourage the PST to consider the student diversity featured in his or her host classroom (see APPENDIX O). One of the internship activities the researcher and the professor planned, required the PSTs to compile student demographic data, including any observed differences amongst their students who shared

the same ethnic background, corresponding with a teaching practice suggested in the CRT literature (e.g., Villegas & Lucas, 2002). The process of obtaining this data, and the subsequent teacher-actions that would ensue, corresponded to items 13, 16, 18, 20, 30, and 35 of the original and modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). The five participants' responses to the two internship activities were collected, stored, and used as a source of data for this dissertation. Upon completing the data collection phase of the study in December 2014, the researcher conducted content analyses of the responses to find emerging patterns and themes. The researcher also sought sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that could have impacted the PSTs' self-efficacy.

Final reflection paper. The faculty member teaching EDC 331 required the Intern Is to compose a final essay in order to encourage them to reflect on their growth over the course of their first internship. The directions for this final paper were as follows:

> This assignment will have you apply two practices that I believe great teachers do consistently: (a) reflect and (b) identify what they still need to learn. For your final assignment in this class, you are to write a short (approximately 4 pages) paper identifying at least two "big ideas" that you have learned from this course regarding teaching and/or lesson planning (or any other topics we covered in class this semester) and any clouds or gaps in your knowledge that remain. In addition, you need to list at least 10 "take-aways" you have learned from your CT's classroom this semester.

The essays from the five participants were collected, stored, and used as a source of data. Upon completing the data collection phase of the study in December 2014, the researcher performed content analyses across the participants' final essays and developed themes individually (per participant) and from the aggregate of the sample. Once again,

he sought out any mention of sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that might have impacted their self-efficacy over the course of the first field experience.

Interviews. Qualitative researchers rely quite heavily on in-depth interviews (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), so much so that interviews have been characterized as: "construction sites of knowledge" (Kvale, 1996, p. 2) where two or more individuals discuss topics of mutual interest. For this study, the researcher-conducted interviews marked the final phase of the data collection stage of the study. The interviews all occurred in January 2015, slightly more than one month after the participants had completed their internships but before beginning their second internships in order to separate any possible contamination from the influence of another field experience. The researcher conducted the interviews with each participant (n = 5) at a day, time, and location based on his or her individual preference in order to maintain comfort and trust (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The interviews were semi-structured and were audiotaped using an Olympus Digital Voice Recorder WS-400S. Qualitative semi-structured interviews are "similar to structured conversations where the researcher explores a few general topics to help uncover the participant's views, but otherwise respects how the participant frames and structures the responses" (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 108). Upon completing the interviews, the researcher transcribed the audio with the assistance of Express Scribe Transcription software.

The interview featured three questions to collect demographic information and two to gather information about the participant's previous experience(s) working with CLD students with and without disabilities (see APPENDIX P). Two of the three

demographic questions were open-ended, while one offered a close-ended, fixed choice. The researcher asked each participant to complete the three demographic questions, in writing, at the start of the interview. The one close-ended question asked the participant to select his or her racial, cultural, and/or ethnic background from categories that matched the categories recorded by the university. The remaining two non-demographic questions were included to gather information about the participant's background experience(s) working with students. These two questions were open-ended and audio-recorded.

After completing the first five questions, the researcher provided each participant with his or her responses to the pre- and post-measures (the modified CRTSE scale; Siwatu, 2007). Then, he asked one question to open this section of the interview along with an additional one or two prompts if needed (see APPENDIX P). In order to gather the richest data, the researcher also made clarifying or confirming statements to ensure his understanding of the responses. According to Northcutt & McCoy (2004), an example of a clarifying question was: *So why might that be the case?* While an example of a confirming question (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004) was: *So what is it about the situation that led you to score yourself higher after you completed the internship?* Aside from the clarifying or confirming questions or statements, he did not add anything more to the interview than what was provided on the interview protocol (see APPENDIX P). The initial question and prompts were:

1. *Over your first field experience in the general education classroom, did you experience any changes in your perception of what you could do?*

I. *(If yes) Please tell me about it. (If an additional prompt is needed) Why was that the case?*

II. *(If no) Please tell me about it. (If an additional prompt is needed) Why was that the case?*

Further treatment of the data analyses from these qualitative data sources is addressed later in this chapter. For now, the researcher's description of this dissertation's data collection process turns to how the researcher featured the modified version of Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE scale.

Siwatu's (2007) Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Overview. Siwatu (2005, 2007) developed and tested two measures: Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (CRTSE) and the Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectancy Scale (CRTOE). He used theoretical and empirical research on self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs (e.g., Bandura, 1977a) as the basis to create his measures. He also credits Bandura's (1977b) social-cognitive theory that suggests that the *perception* of one's competence to complete a skill is a more accurate predictor of future behaviors than other constructs (i.e., *actual* competence, IQ). Teacher efficacy, or teaching self-efficacy, applies social cognitive theory into the field of education. Other scholars concurred with the premise that a teacher's perception of their competence was a more accurate predictor of future teaching behaviors (Pajares, 1996). Siwatu (2005, 2007) sought to test that hypothesis in his position as a teacher

educator, charged with attending to, and assessing the professional growth and development of PSTs.

This set the stage for Siwatu's (2005, 2007) development of his CRTSE and CRTOE scales. In his literature review, Siwatu (2007) encountered qualitative studies (e.g., Foster, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 1994) that had found that CRT "consists of general teaching practices and culturally sensitive, equitable, and responsive teaching practices" (p. 1089). His scales reflect an integration of these varied practices and Bandura's (1977a) self-efficacy theories. The scales comprised of 66 statements (40 in the CRTSE; 26 in the CRTOE). He completed a pilot study in 2005. To follow up his pilot study, he selected PST participants (N = 275) from two TPPs in the Midwest and asked them how confident they were in their capabilities to accomplish a series of teaching tasks, represented by the 66 statements. The respondents each rated the beliefs in his or her abilities by scoring them on a 100-point scale ranging in 10-unit intervals from 0 (c*annot do*) to 100 (*highly certain can do*). The participants completed a hard copy of the questionnaire during one of their courses. They took 20-25 min to complete it. Siwatu's CRTSE[12] scale items included the following:

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.

[12] To see the CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) in its entirety, please refer to APPENDIX I.

4. Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students.

Findings. In the CRTSE measure, Siwatu's (2007) respondents' efficacy was the highest for the ability to: (a) *help students feel like important members of the classroom* (M = 92.97, SD = 8.91) and (b) *develop positive, personal relationships with their students* (M = 92.76, SD = 8.42). They were lowest in the ability to: (a) *greet English language learners with a phrase in their native language* (M = 71.01, SD = 23.78) and (b) *praise English language learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language* (M = 71.48, SD = 23.56). High scores suggest a greater sense of self-efficacy to use specific instructional and non-instructional tasks related to CRT. The respondents had a mean score of 3351.89 (SD = 342.03) that ranged from 2270 to 3970. The highest possible score was 4000.

Pertaining to the CRTOE, Siwatu's (2007) respondents' teaching outcome expectations were the highest for the possibility that: *a positive teacher-student relationship can be established by building a sense of trust in their students* (M = 93.49, SD = 8.62). They were the lowest for the possibility that: *encouraging students to use their native language will help to maintain students' cultural identity* (M = 74.62, SD = 19.44). The respondents had a mean score of 2245.46 (SD = 224.08) that ranged from 1470 to 2600. The highest possible score was 2600. As previously explained, the researcher of this dissertation will be privileging the CRTSE measure and will not be administering the CRTOE.

As a result of this study, Siwatu (2007) recommended that more weight should be placed on the PSTs' item-specific responses rather than the global[13] score, which is in accord with Bandura's (2006) guidance on constructing self-efficacy scales. Siwatu also suggested that teacher educators should focus on the pedagogical aspects in which PSTs feel "less efficacious and the related practices that they do not believe will lead to positive outcomes" (p. 1097).

Modified Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

The researcher had to make some key choices because his study had a different purpose than Siwatu's (2007) study. He, therefore, made five modifications to Siwatu's measure to better meet his purposes. Specifically, he: (a) added "for each of the 40 items" to the directions; (b) added "related to teaching students with and without disabilities" to the directions; (c) added "as of now" to the directions; (d) separated each of the 40 items into two columns; one to consider students with disabilities, the other to consider students without disabilities; and, (e) changed the wording of item 39 to reflect a teaching best practice. Each of these changes will be addressed, justified, and clarified.

First, as previously stated, the researcher selected Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE but not the CRTOE scale for this study. The key differences between the two measures are that the former examines *self-efficacy*, while the later examines *outcome expectancy* (Bandura, 1977a; see Figure 2.1). The two constructs are interrelated, but differ in terms

[13] The researcher used the terms "global" and "composite" interchangeably, to refer to the sum of the scores that the respondents gave themselves for each 80 item on the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007).

of when they occur, cognitively, within the individual. Bandura theorized that an individual cognitively evaluates his or her efficacy expectations prior to deciding a given behavior to accomplish a given task. This cognitive perception of the individual's ability is *self-efficacy*. Next, upon executing the selected behavior, the individual cognitively constructs an outcome expectation that is understood to be a result of the chosen behavior. This *outcome expectancy* is evaluated upon the actual outcome that occurs, which, in turn, informs future efficacious beliefs. This cycle occurs recursively.

Since the participants of this study were PSTs completing their first of four internships in the public schools, the researcher opted to conduct his study of self-efficacy and not outcome expectancy. The researcher theorized that self-efficacy would be more valuable to this study, because it serves as the catalyst for exerting agency upon which to realize a desired outcome. Therefore, he selected Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE scale as the most appropriate measure to address his research questions. Furthermore, the CRTOE, while useful in a general sense, would not be specific enough to support the researcher in his exploration of the sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influence self-efficacy beliefs.

Special education focus. There is power in language. It reveals presence, meanings, relationships, and contexts to understanding phenomena (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Educational leaders who set professional writing standards argue, convincingly, to use bias-free language that is free of stereotypes and sexism, racism, classism, abelism, heterosexism, etc. (e.g., American Psychological Association, 2010). Now, since this study examined the self-efficacy of special education PSTs who were

training to be inclusive special educators, it was necessary to modify the original CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) to prompt the participants to consider teaching students *with and without disabilities*. Special education considerations were not included in the original scale. Also, to control for the possibility that the participants' self-efficacy beliefs were different depending on the students' disability status, the researcher prepared two separate scales for each item: one to consider students with disabilities, the other without disabilities.

Additions to the instructions. Three of the five changes that the researcher made to the measure pertained to the instructions. The instructions set the stage for the purpose of the survey, therefore its precise wording was important. The researcher made changes to address: (a) the present tense nature of the scale, (b) the quantity of items, and (c) the inclusion of students with disabilities. First, the researcher added "**as of now**" to the instructions to emphasize that the scale should be evaluated in the *present*, and *not a prediction of future behaviors*. The researcher made this modification in response to Bandura's (2006) recommendation, that adding "**as of now**" in bold font to the directions heightens the respondent's attention to the present nature of the measure. Second, the researcher added "for each of the 40 items" so that the participants could adequately prepare themselves for the amount of time and effort that it might take to complete the scale. The third and final change was adding "related to teaching students with and without disabilities" to emphasize the diverse learning needs that the PST participants would encounter when they begin their internships; skills that make preparing to teach in special education settings somewhat different from general education settings (Fuchs et

al., 2012). The directions to the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) are illustrated in Figure 3.1:

For each of the 40 items**,** how confident are you that you can do each of the following tasks described below related to teaching students with and without disabilities? Rate how confident you are that you can achieve each of the following **as of now** by indicating a probability of success from 0 (no chance) 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 probability.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
very little chance			little chance		50/50 chance			very good chance		completely certain

Figure 3.1: Directions for the Modified CRTSE

Teaching best practice. The researcher made one final modification in order to reflect a teaching best practice. He changed item number 39 from *implement cooperative learning activities for those students who like to work in groups* to *implement cooperative learning activities based on the instructional objective*. He made this change to emphasize that implementing cooperative learning activities is a teaching best practice for all students (Scruggs, Mastropieri, & McDuffie, 2008) and would not solely benefit students who like to work in groups, as suggested by the original item.

Sample items on the modified measure included:

1. Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students…
    a. …for students with disabilities.
    b. …for students without disabilities.
2. Obtain information about my students' home life…
    a. …for students with disabilities.

b. …for students without disabilities.

3. Use a variety of teaching methods…

    a. …for students with disabilities.

    b. …for students without disabilities.

Following these considerations, the researcher modified Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE and used this version as the pre- and post-measure to best understand the Intern Is' self-efficacies to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities. The participants completed each administration online using Qualtrics Online Survey Software. With the data collection and instrumentation established, the next section of the chapter explores how the data will be analyzed.

DATA ANALYSIS

To review, in order to answer the study's research questions the researcher used a non-experimental, mixed methods approach. In order to make appropriate interpretations from the results of the modified CRTSE pre- and post-measures, the researcher conducted paired *t*-tests to determine the statistical significance of the changes and provided the descriptive statistics to fully illustrate the survey data. To interpret the remaining data, he utilized qualitative research methods. These remaining data sources included the: (a) supervisor debriefing prompts, (b) lesson plans, (c) reflective journal entries, (d) internship activity assignments, (e) final reflection papers for EDC 331, and (f) final individual interviews. This section of Chapter 3 will revisit each research question and address the methods that the researcher will for analysis.

Research Question 1

The first of the two research questions asked: *Do preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach CLD learners with and without disabilities change after they have completed their first field experience, as measured by the modified Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (Siwatu, 2007)?* To address the question, the researcher analyzed the pre- and post-internship data from each member of Cohort 8 by performing paired *t*-tests in order to ascertain whether any changes in self-efficacy scores were statistically significant. The researcher also calculated the following descriptive statistics:

1. The mean, median, and standard deviation for each of the 40 items across all of Cohort 8 ($N = 24$)
2. The mean, median, and standard deviation for each of his participants ($n = 5$)
3. The total scores and ranges for all 80 items (40 items pertaining to educating students with disabilities, and 40 without disabilities) for all of Cohort 8 ($N = 24$)
4. The total scores and ranges for all 80 items for his participants ($n = 5$)

The purpose of displaying the descriptive statistics from the scale was to illustrate whether there were any recalculations of the respondents' self-efficacy from the time before the field experience to immediately after it. The descriptive statistics were

displayed as a total score from the entire cohort, as well as the sample featured in the qualitative phase of the study. The researcher hypothesized that since the respondents were selected randomly, there should not be many differences between the scores of the participants (n = 5) and the remainder of the cohort (n = 19).

Research Question 2

The second research questions asked: *How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?* To address this inquiry, the researcher used qualitative methods for analysis. Corbin and Strauss (2014) noted that qualitative data analysis signifies a search for general statements about relationships and underlying themes that can form grounded theories, however Marshall and Rossman (2011) cautioned that this method of analysis would not be "neat" (p. 207) and is time-consuming. Proceeding with a recognition of these cautions, the researcher collected the following sources of data: (a) supervisor observation prompts, (b) lesson plans, (c) reflective journals, (d) internship activity assignments, (e) final reflection papers for EDC 331, and (f) semi-structured interviews. He gave more credence to the interviews compared to other artifacts because the interviews were dynamic and required the researcher to use less inferential reasoning to interpret his respondent's messages. Lastly, he followed Marshall and Rossman's (2011) seven phases to analyze and interpret qualitative data:

1. Organizing the data

2. Immersion in the data
3. Generating categories and themes
4. Coding the data
5. Offering interpretations through analytic memos
6. Searching for alternative understandings
7. Writing the report for presenting the study

He began the seven phases only after he collected all of the data at the end of January 2015. Now, with each phase, the researcher sorted the data into categories and interpreted them by providing "meanings and insights to the words and acts" from the participants in the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 210). He used inductive reasoning to guide his analyses, moving from the specific to the more general. Inductive reasoning also guided his generation of categories and themes to best understand this particular phenomenon (i.e., preservice special education teachers making sense of their efficacy to serve all of their students). To prepare figures and graphs to display the findings, the researcher used Microsoft Excel Software.

Member checks. Upon reaching the final step of Marshall and Rossman's (2011) procedures, the researcher provided each of the five participants a copy of his write up from the interview in order to complete a member check. He did this in order to give each participant the opportunity to offer feedback and ensure accuracy, a necessary step to add credibility, dependability, and confirmability in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checks helped the researcher refine the findings, as well as locate any disconfirming evidence offered by the participants. Indeed, through triangulation

(using data, methods/theories, and the participants themselves), the validity of "specific knowledge claims is argued to be more robust" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 42). The researcher allowed for approximately one month to elapse between the final interviews and the member checks so that he had sufficient time to transcribe and write up a draft of the findings. The member checks were completed in a manner that worked best for each participant including emails, text messages, and phone calls.

SUMMARY

Chapter 3 of this dissertation identified the mechanics for conducting the research. The study examined preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities and how they explained their perceptions of their abilities evolves over the course of their first field experience. The researcher was appointed by the Department of Special Education as a university supervisor. Mediated learning theories (Feuerstein et al., 1999) and Cognitive Coaching (Costa & Garmston, 2002) influenced his supervisory practices. He identified as a White, male, fluent in English, proficient in Spanish, Ph.D. candidate in Multicultural Special Education at a large research university in Central Texas and was an experienced public school teacher, working in culturally and linguistically diverse schools. The participants were selected among a cohort of special education PSTs (N = 24) from the same university. This particular cohort was made up of predominantly undergraduate students in their junior year. Faculty members familiar with this teacher preparation program (TPP) knew them as "Intern Is". The researcher selected his final participants (n = 5) by using a stratified

random sample (Särndal et al., 2003) procedure. The procedure began with the researcher writing down the names of each member of the cohort then listing them in order from greatest to least self-efficacy scores on the pre-measure. Next, he sorted the list into quartiles and randomly selected representatives from each quartile.

The researcher collected the following data: (a) pre- and post-measures using the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007), (b) supervisor debriefing prompts, (c) lesson plans, (d) reflective journal entries, (e) internship activity assignments, (f) final reflection papers for EDC 331, and (g) final interviews. One of the underlying assumptions that the researcher (and the faculty members in this TPP) had was that the Intern Is were beginning to apply their coursework, background knowledge, and skills into their field experience. To analyze the CRTSE scores from the modified scale, the researcher performed paired *t*-tests to determine whether any changes that occurred over the internship were statistically significant and he calculated descriptive statistics to explore emerging trends from the changes. The researcher analyzed each of the qualitative data sources using Marshall and Rossman's (2011) seven phases and inductive logic; moving from specific pieces of evidence to general categories, in order answer his research questions. Finally, the researcher privileged the modified CRTSE scores and Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *sources of information* that impact self-efficacy when he needed to reference any specific examples of effective teaching for diversity or any specific examples that led to self-efficacy belief changes.

The final stage of the data analysis consisted of two components: (a) interviews with each participant individually and (b) member checks. The interviews were concise,

purposeful, and semi-structured (see APPENDIX P). They were audio recorded for transcription purposes only. Member checks represent a critical phase in conducting qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 2011) and to support reliable conclusions. Therefore, the member checks were also conducted in order to obtain the most accurate information. It was only after these research endeavors had been completed that the researcher could complete his data analysis.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

The present study examined special education teachers' changes in self-efficacy to serve culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students with and without disabilities while they completed their first field experience. Using a non-experimental, mixed methods research design, the researcher gathered data from the following sources for each participant who was included in the study: (a) two administrations (pre- and post-field experience) of a modified version of Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE, (b) supervisor debriefing prompts, (c) lesson plans, (d) reflective journal entries, (e) internship activity assignments, and (f) a final reflection paper for EDC 331. Additionally, individual, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a stratified random sample (n = 5) of preservice special education teachers who participated in the study. He featured paired t-tests for statistical significance, descriptive statistics, and qualitative methods to analyze and interpret the participants' responses.

COHORT INTRODUCTION

A total of 24 special education preservice teachers (PSTs) enrolled in this teacher preparation program at a large research university in Central Texas completed the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) over the first two weeks of June 2014. They completed the scale approximately five weeks after completing their foundations block of four courses, but before beginning their first semester of field experience in local public

schools. The scale was administered online using Qualtrics Online Survey Software and was completed by each member of the cohort, representing a response rate of 100%. Each survey was fully completed. Demographics characteristics were previously described (see Chapter 3).

The special education PSTs Intern Is completed their first of four internships over the following fall semester. They interned two full school days per week in inclusive general education classrooms throughout Sweetbriar Independent School District (SISD), which was located in the same city as the university. Cooperating teachers, university supervisors, and the university faculty supported the PSTs over the course of that semester. As part of the requirements for one of the courses (EDC 331), the PSTs completed a second administration of the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) over the final week of their first internships. Twenty-three of the 24 original PSTs completed the second administration of the survey representing a response rate of 95.8%. One PST switched majors early into the fall semester and, therefore, was not expected to complete the post-internship scale. Each of the 23 PSTs fully completed the second-round of surveys.

The researcher served as the university supervisor for each of his five participants across Sycamore and Cannon Elementary Schools in SISD. Each of these participants successfully completed all coursework and internship requirements for the fall semester, including completing both administrations of the modified CRTSE. The next section of

Chapter 4 will feature descriptive, background information about each of the five participants: Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline[14].

GETTING TO KNOW THE PARTICIPANTS

In order to more fully understand how the participants' self-efficacy beliefs changed after the first field experience, it was important to first get to know more about each participant individually, including his or her background experiences working with students with and without disabilities from CLD communities. Data, which descried the prior experience of the participants (n = 5), were provided in individual, semi-structured interviews, which were conducted after they completed their first field experience. In the interview questions, the researcher left the phrase *working with students* intentionally ambiguous during the interviews that he conducted with the participants, so that each participant could develop his or her own meaning of that phrase over the course of the interview it in a way that was personally meaningful and applicable. This set the stage for the participants to include customers, children, adults, participants, and friends among the people they had worked with or served in CLD communities prior to the first field experience. Likewise, the meaning of the word *working* within the phrase *working with students* took on a variety of different meanings to each participant, which will also be described over the proceeding sections of Chapter 4.

[14] These were pseudonyms for the participants.

Alegría

It's part of the journey. Alegría was a Hispanic female in her early twenties and was bilingual (fluent in both English and Spanish). She was also a beginning speaker of American Sign Language (ASL). She was born and raised in a large, metropolitan city in West Texas, located along the border with Mexico. The city had a predominantly Hispanic population of people with Mexican and Mexican-American heritages. The researcher conducted an interview with Alegría to gather her background experiences, lasting 26 min 27 seconds. When Alegría described her prior experiences working with CLD communities in her home city, she initially paused to consider it:

> I've been around students of my race [*sic*] the whole time, you know? Like, obviously there are different cultures but where I grew up, in the area that I was in, it was just purely Hispanic. So, it wasn't until I came to Sweetbriar where I actually worked with students from different areas. For example, my freshmen year my roommate was African-American and that was my first, like – not encounter – but like… Okay, I am going to college and I am going to live with someone who is completely different. (interview, 1/15/15)

Alegría continued with a description of her experiences working with students from CLD communities and experiences more broadly with/within CLD communities. She expressed both insider and outsider perspectives when describing her encounters: insider in the sense of belonging to and membership within a certain CLD community but also outsider in the sense of her encounters with people outside of her own CLD community. She included "working with people who were Caucasian" among her experiences with cultural and linguistic diversity. She also expressed different levels to the depth of her encounters, noting: "I've seen people [from other CLD communities]

before, but it's not like I actually had a conversation with them and went out to eat with them." She indicated that she felt these new experiences were "part of the journey":

> And the funny thing is, I wasn't even scared. I was more excited. Because to me, I am leaving [home city], going to Sweetbriar… It's like a new college, a new start, and then, my roommate, you know, so I was excited. It's part of the journey. But, yeah, and here is when I met and saw people from India, China – like everywhere! (interview, 1/15/15)

After providing this description, Alegría related working with students with disabilities from CLD communities to her experience as a volunteer at a regional school for the deaf located in Sweetbriar. Her volunteering at the school fulfilled a requirement for ALD 322: Individual Differences; a course she took at the university over her sophomore year in her foundations block. She described, in detail, her time working at the concession stand during a wrestling match at the school. She was the only person who was not using ASL and she initially felt scared and nervous. As she was telling her story, she made it clear that she viewed speakers of ASL within this particular setting as members of a linguistic community. She also indicated that she was a beginning ASL speaker, herself, when asked to list the languages that she spoke. To elaborate, she shared:

> I learned that you are "special" when you are within the Deaf community. You have to know how to speak ASL. If not, don't speak English. It's very offensive to them. Like, you are in their community and you're speaking a different language, so it's not right. So I was super nervous. (interview, 1/15/15)

This text taken from the interview also aligned with another sentiment that Alegría shared within the first minute of the interview. She indicated that when she moved to Sweetbriar, she worked with a child who was deaf for the first time while she

was employed at a toy store. She said it was very interesting for her and used a pen and paper to facilitate her communication with the child in that instance. "I didn't want to offend them [the child and her family]." Later, Alegría clarified what she meant: "After I took ASL, I learned that you should never try to sign because it makes you [seem] offensive."

Returning to the topic of her volunteer work at a regional school for the deaf, Alegría went on to describe how she met a young man named Eduardo[15]. He was a student at the school who took her under his wing and supported her until she gained enough confidence as a volunteer at the concession stand to take her customers' orders independently. She said that Eduardo could tell that she was uncomfortable. As a result, he supported her by teaching her the names of a few items in ASL that were on the menu at the concession stand and a few phrases that customers used for ordering the items. Describing this moment as a personal breakthrough, Alegría explained:

> Yeah, so after he showed me all the stuff on the menu then that's when I went a little crazy. I started pointing at everything and he would sign it. Like this [signing in ASL], like this [signing in ASL], and he would – you know? He would sign everything! That's my experience because that was something completely new. (interview, 1/15/15)

Let's see if this works. Alegría's face lit up when she described her experiences working with students from CLD communities with disabilities. In fact, she chose to answers the question pertaining it first when given the choice of how she wanted to describe her prior experience with and within CLD communities. During her time working at a toy store, Alegría described how she felt that good customer service also

[15] Eduardo was a pseudonym.

meant meeting the needs of customers with disabilities. She described how she was provided with her first encounters with children with autism, auditory impairments, and orthopedic impairments as an employee at the toy store and how it as necessary for her to learn how to meet the needs of customers with disabilities.

Alegría provided further description of how her experience at the toy store gave her practice meeting the needs of individuals with disabilities by noting that the store provided customers with the opportunity to engage in an interactive shopping experience: children and their parents could work together to construct the toys out of materials provided by the store. As part of this description, Alegría gave a detailed account of how she had to modify aspects of the retail environment in order to accommodate the unique needs of her customers with disabilities as they were constructing these toys. For example, in addition providing accommodations, such as a pen and paper for a child who was deaf to help her communicate with the customer, she also had the opportunity to practice using assistive technology with children with disabilities:

> I did work with a child who used a wheelchair. I don't know if you've been to [name of toy store], but you [the customer] stuff the bear. You physically press on the pedal to stuff the bear. But, obviously, I couldn't ask the little boy to get off his wheelchair. So, [name of store] has a wire-thing to accept a bear, but your hands have to get out and press it. (interview, 1/15/15)

During the interview, Alegría did not clarify whether the customers with disabilities that she was referring to were also members of CLD communities. Earlier in the interview, she did share that the toy store in her home city served predominantly Hispanic customers, while the toy store in Sweetbriar served more White shoppers.

Besides this experience as an employee in a retail store, she gained a second experience when she volunteered in a place that served people with disabilities – an experience which fulfilled a course for one of her foundations block courses within the special education major at the university. The course requirement was for her to volunteer several hours in a place that served people with disabilities. In this capacity, she volunteered at a recreation center in Sweetbriar where she ran the "Friendship Café". She said the café featured evening programs for adults; the purpose of the program was for the adults to learn how to cook and, as a volunteer working there, her role was to support her participants' independence to cook for themselves. She summed up her role in this position by stating: "My job was not to do it for them, but to help them and support them."

In her third and final background experience, serving members of CLD communities with and without disabilities, Alegría described her experience working as an "activities specialist" at a summer camp. This experience represented her longest, most sustained worked with children with disabilities prior to interning in the fall semester. She served as an "activities specialist" that summer at the camp. Interestingly, cultural and linguistic diversity did not immediately emerge in the description of her experience at the summer camp. However, the practice she gained differentiating camp activities for her students (she called them participants) – similar to her previous experience catering the retail environment to customers with disabilities – was apparent in her description as an "activities specialist." To illustrate how she addressed the needs of campers with disabilities, she provided examples of the assistive technology she

provided: scooters, big markers, iPads, and apps on her iPhone. At least one participant used a communication device. As an activities specialist, her approach could be summarized as "let's see if this works." She explained:

> Alegría: Let's see, I think [we had] three participants who are deaf and there were only two of them with cochlear implants. And, I forgot what we were doing, but we needed an activity, like an educational activity for them, and someone offered to read a book and I was like: "How are you going to read it?" So, I don't know if you have seen the game Heads Up? You can get it as an app for your phone for you to put it on your forehead.
>
> Ray: Oh, I've seen an older version of it where they are actually wearing a plastic crown and they put a little card in there.
>
> Alegría: I put the app on my phone and was like "let's see if this works" and sure enough those three participants – they can read. And it was funny because it's like a charade game and, believe it or not, they were the ones that were doing awesome [*sic*] because they know the physical movements of acting. It was nice to see them right at that moment because usually with the other activities they were shy. (interview, 1/15/15)

Later in the interview, she related this experience as an activities specialist to the topic of language differences and linguistic diversity. Many of her co-workers at the camp, she explained, did not speak Spanish, nor they were able to communicate using ASL, thereby creating the opportunity for Alegría to serve as the translator for her participants' family members who preferred to communicate in either of those languages. "Hey Alegría, I have this parent, can you come translate," she was asked many times that summer. She said that she saw it as being part of her job. To the researcher, her dedication in this job working as a translator for these campers and their families

resonated with her dedication to her customers in her previous job at the toy store modifying aspects of the environment to leave her customer's satisfied.

Regarding her role as a translator and interpreter for her participants' families, Alegría expressed both positivity in feeling needed as someone who possessed these skills, as well as concern for the lack of other trained interpreters or translators who could serve individuals and families within this population. To illustrate this latter point she said, "this is a side note, but when I wasn't there, another kid who actually knows Spanish was the translator for my supervisor". Interestingly, she stated, this summer camp – which predominantly served participants with disabilities - utilized some of the children as translators between monolingual English-speaking camp staff and the parents and family members of the parents who spoke only Spanish. She shared that she saw this as an area where the camp could have provided more support, noting that one particular student who attended the camp spoke only Spanish. With few bilingual staff members who spoke both English and Spanish employed at the camp, many staff members "couldn't understand him and he couldn't understand them."

Carter

I saw people with blue hair and green hair. Carter was a male in his early twenties and identified as having two racial and/or ethnic backgrounds (African-American and White). He was fluent in English and a beginning Spanish speaker. He was born and raised in a small-to-medium sized city in East Texas - a city that he

characterized in unique ways. The researcher conducted an interview with Carter to gather his background experiences, lasting 20 min 58 seconds.

When Carter first described his hometown, the phrase that he used revealed some strongly felt sentiments, which, due to time constraints during the time when the interview was held, not fully fleshed out. Carter described the town as belonging to a "very Christian White male dominant society". Later in the interview, he clarified what this meant to him:

> Carter: As far as [name of town] goes there wasn't a lot of opportunity for me to meet other types of people. I mean, around the town, you will find the Presbyterian church, [the] Baptist church; I think that's pretty much it as far as the lay of the land. It's kind of a small area […] our high school often had events that were held at local churches and stuff and it was all very interconnected even though they're not necessarily suppose to be.
>
> Ray: I see.
>
> Carter: It was very, well, the community, as a whole, was very aged – well-seasoned. It's kind of like a retirement community. (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter described the cultural and linguistic background of his hometown as somewhat culturally and linguistically diverse: "I remember growing up we had Hispanics, we had Asian-Americans." Yet, he offered that it wasn't until junior high that had any other African-American classmates. He characterized his high school as having a greater mix of cultural and linguistic diversity than his elementary or junior high schools.

Carter also juxtaposed his impressions of his homework with those of Sweetbriar and described his experiences of living in Sweetbriar since moving there to attend the

university as like being in a "whole new world". He found that the people in Sweetbriar were more open to change and the city provided him with more opportunities to explore. Sweetbriar was a city where people preferred to do their own things. He explained: "I saw people with blue hair and green hair, you know, and no one was coming around pointing at them saying: 'you're going to hell and stuff for this.'" Assessing his current time living, working, and studying in Sweetbriar, he added: "There is so much more going on. I am just ready to drink it all in."

They still will have their own daily challenges. The researcher's interview with Carter began with a question for him to consider his background experiences working with students from CLD communities (see APPENDIX P). Carter began to share his experience working for a company in Sweetbriar which pairs babysitters and/or tutors with children and families in need of these services and with whom he conducted individual tutoring sessions with two students who were in need of academic support. Without any prompting from the researcher, Carter compared and contrasted his work with these two students, each of whom lived in different parts of Sweetbriar. He said that one of his students, Wyatt[16] was "not from the wealthiest part of Sweetbriar" while his other student, Dylan, was from *Sweetbriar Pond* – a part of Sweetbriar known for its mansions and other markers of financial wealth. Carter shared that Dylan was "on the opposite spectrum" from Wyatt. This description suggested that he viewed the ranges of socioeconomic statuses as being similar to points along a spectrum.

[16] Wyatt and Dylan were pseudonyms.

He shared both similarities and differences that he experienced working with these two students. Regarding the similarities, he shared: "It was very interesting to see how, when it comes to where they are from or what they do, they still will need help with homework. They still have their own daily challenges." Although not explicitly linked to socioeconomic status, Carter noted that Wyatt's need to get "wired down from the day" revealed one crucial difference between what Wyatt and Dylan needed from him during their respective tutoring sessions. He then elaborated on what he meant:

> [For Wyatt] it was: I had to introduce more structure. Where – Dylan – his environment was already very structured and so, for me, it was kind of filling in the gaps when he needed them. But, I would say working with Wyatt was a little more challenging but it was a lot more rewarding. I really got a closer connection to him than I did with Dylan. (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter did not mention the racial, ethnic, and/or linguistic backgrounds of Wyatt or Dylan. It was therefore not immediately clear if he was solely responding to *the working with students* part of the researcher's question, or if he was responding to *working with students from CLD communities* more fully. He did give a different example of a time when he worked with students from CLD communities, while he continued working for the same tutoring company. Over the summer before the fall semester interning in the general education classroom, he tutored two students who had a history of living in foster homes there were currently under the direction and care of Child Protective Services. Carter shared:

> They were extremely behind – both of them. I am not sure if it matters, but they were African-American. They had a lot of things going on. They hadn't had a stable placement for a long time so this was their [representatives from CPS's] attempt to having a stable home. (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter explained that his first goal was to help the students become comfortable with him. He wanted to make sure they knew they could count on him: he would be there at the time he said he would be there every day. He shared that the students showed small improvements in the quality of their schoolwork throughout the summer the students attended the program, but that it was also difficult for their schoolwork to compete with the nice summer weather. Instead of doing homework, the kids often would want to play or go outside.

It was just out of pure habit and the joy of doing it. Similar to Alegría, Carter cited a volunteering requirement for one of the foundations block courses (ALD 322) as among his experiences working with students with disabilities from CLD communities. Coincidentally, he and Alegría both volunteered at the same recreation center in Sweetbriar, but served in different capacities. Carter's volunteering was the first example he offered. He and two other members of the cohort would meet five participants with disabilities, between the ages of 40-80, at a local bowling alley. Originally, he went to the bowling alley to fulfill his course requirements, lasting for approximately six weeks. However, his tone got more animated, as he explained:

> We started off going for our minimal time and then we ended up continuing going every Friday. It was just out of pure habit and [the] joy of doing it and it became an expectation. When we got there late one day and no one had started bowling and we were like: "What's going on?" They [the participants] had said: "We were waiting for you guys 'cause you come every Friday!" (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter described this experience as being "wonderful". He and one or two other members from the cohort went to the bowling alley to bowl with these adults with disabilities for "close to a year", stopping only when his internship placement began in

the fall. It was unclear from this description if Carter was responding to *working with students with disabilities* or *working with students with disabilities from CLD communities*. It was possible that he was responding to both components of the interview question, but he did not provide that information during the interview.

Around this same time period, before interning in the fall, Carter described another from another course from the foundations block (SED 332: Field Experiences in Special Education). One of the course requirements was for the cohort members to observe across several different special education classroom settings. It was clear that he completed the assignment, Carter was also evaluating and forming aspects of his own teacher identity - in particular, how he would relate to his students. He described one charter school in Sweetbriar where the majority of the students were "non-White" and the teacher was a White female. He characterized this teacher's approach as feeling "kind of abrasive" and detached, teaching in a learning environment where the focus was solely on the academics. Carter expressed an open-mind to his experience observing this teacher's classroom, stating: "everyone has their own way of doing stuff" and "they have really high test scores, so in that way it works for them, too." At the same time, he reflected on his role as a future teacher and emphasized how he would use a different approach in building a classroom culture: "I am the kind of person that I want to make a connection first and then do [the] academics." In this example, Carter hinted at characteristics that could be linked to cultural (or linguistic) differences by describing the teacher's background and communication style with her students, but the link to disability was not explicit.

You don't want anyone pitying you. There were many moments during this part of the interview where Carter was actively synthesizing many of his experiences in a way that showed how he was shaping his positioning as a teacher and his framing of disabilities as a whole. In his description of his hometown, he offered that he had "always grown up with people with all kinds of ranges of abilities" because both of his grandparents worked for Early Childhood Intervention Services (ECI), a statewide program in Texas for families with children, birth to three, with disabilities and developmental delays. Citing the impact of his grandparents, as well as an additional volunteering experience in high school, Carter shared a self-reflective, inclusive understanding of disabilities:

> I think part of it for me was prior to having all these experiences seeing people alive and things like that I had this notion, kind of like this media interpretation that special education would mean, you know—people think Down syndrome or people think [of] people in a vegetative state. People think of the most extreme, dependent individuals but it's not that. It's this wide range of humans and we all; I mean, even us who aren't necessarily diagnosed have some sort of something. […] People – they do things in their own way and you don't need to pity anyone you just need to accept that people are different, you know? You don't want anyone pitying you for your weird quirky things we do. (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter, again, was animated during the interview and passionate, communicating pride in his viewpoint of understanding working (and engaging with) individuals with disabilities. He likened "normality" to being highly relative if or non-existent, and questioned the notion of disability using a "critical consciousness" that has been presented as an attribute of a critically reflective teacher (Larrivee, 2000) and has been suggested in the culturally responsive teacher literature (Gay, 2002a; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Shealey et al., 2011). To the researcher, his positioning regarding special

education and disabilities was well-developed and was a personal source of pride for Carter: "[It's this] cool feeling that – it's like you're in the 'in crowd' because you know the truth and you know it's not just [individuals with] Down syndrome and autism and stuff."

Jessica

It's kind of like the start of a spider web. Jessica was a White female in her early twenties and was fluent in English. Jessica was raised in a large, metropolitan city along the Texas Gulf Coast. The researcher conducted an interview with Jessica to learn about her background experiences working with students from CLD communities and students with disabilities from CLD communities. The interview occurred over the course of 10 min 22 seconds. Interestingly, although the city where Jessica was raised was among the top ten most populated cities in the U.S. (and among the top three in Texas), she suggested that the city was actually made up of rural, suburban, and urban communities. She said that residents of each of these communities still identify as being part of the city:

> Jessica: There's a loop [illustrating with her finger on the table]. We have a highway that's a loop. It goes in a big circle and you can get off, you know, anywhere. It's kind of like the start of a spider web. Here's [name of city, pointing to the table to show]. Downtown is kind of like the center. Towns and little cities are all around it and then it goes to like [name of several mid-size cities]. You can keep going bigger and bigger and you'll find places like… you'll say: "Where are you from?" "[Name of home city]".
>
> Ray: Okay. And you all—

Jessica: We will all call it home.

Ray: So, there are a lot of different types of experiences [suggested] when someone says: "I am from [name of city]." It could be like [name of suburb in the area], it could be suburban, it could be—

Jessica: It could be rural.

Ray: Rural, too. So there are rural parts of [name of city], too?

Jessica: Yes, there are. I mean there's anything. Like, you can drive from one area to another and think that you are in a different environment. (interview, 1/23/15)

Jessica did not provide additional information as to how this distribution of communities within her city had impacted her growing up or what it meant to be raised in a major city with many different communities within it. She did, however, tie her description of her home city together with her experience working with the Special Olympics, which will be described later.

This is it. At the beginning of the researcher's interview, Jessica shared that she didn't think that she had much experience working with students with disabilities from CLD communities prior to her field experience during the fall semester. An exception that she offered, however, was to complete a requirement for one of her foundation block courses. It was the same course that Carter mentioned in his interview (SED 332) and one of the requirements was to observe in several different special education classrooms. Of all of the rotations, Jessica described her experience in a Preschool Programs for Children with Disabilities (PPCD) classroom in Sweetbriar with the most detail. Jessica shared:

> The one [rotation] that I stayed in was a PPCD class with students with speech impediments and other disabilities. Or, they all had speech impediments [but] everything ranged. That was my first time really being like—you can't always just have a straightforward conversation. It was someone trying to help, telling them [*sic*] what to do. You had to work all the way around that. That was my first time seeing it, really, in a classroom setting. (interview, 1/23/15)

In offering the above description, Jessica illustrated how her observations with the PPCD classroom provided her with a first glimpse at how special educators modify their language in the delivery of instruction to very young students with speech impediments. Jessica added that she observed not only the host teacher but also a student teacher from the university in the classroom practice this modification of her language to meet the communication needs of her students, Jessica also shared with a laugh that she "got to attempt it." Reflecting on it further, she said: "That was the first time I really saw it and was like: *this is it* [italics added]."

Jessica's description of "this is it" was in response to the researcher's first question: *Prior to the fall semester what has been your experience, if any, working with students with disabilities from CLD communities*? But what she was referring to from her observations in the PPCD classroom was not immediately clear. Following an example of a clarifying question from the interview protocol (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004), the researcher asked:

> Ray: When you say "it" do you mean: teaching students from CLD communities? Or, do you mean students from CLD communities with disabilities? Or both?
>
> Jessica: I would say both… I just mean, like, this is the environment where I am like "I am here, this is starting" and it really felt real, like, being a part of this community and it's small but big all at the same time. I guess it was just like: we're starting, these are the kind of

> things that are going to happen and I am going to be surprised everyday. (interview, 1/23/15)

In order to gather more background and context, the researcher decided to extend the interview in order to query Jessica's experiences working with students with disabilities more broadly – an adaptation to the interview protocol that was not used with Carter and Alegría. Jessica had already mentioned that she did not think she had much experience working with students with disabilities from CLD communities, but the researcher wanted to be sure of it. When the interview went into a discussion about her home city during this extension of the interview, Jessica made links to different regions within her home city that were possibly related to socioeconomic status (e.g., urban/suburban/rural). But the links were not immediately clear or present and, due to the nature of this stage of the interview (see APPENDIX P), a move to discuss special education more broadly was justified.

Wow, I am good at this! I want to keep going! Jessica shared two pivotal experiences prior to attending the university that influenced her decision to major in special education. For four years she served as an assistant who was in charge of the bocce ball competition within the local chapter of the Special Olympics. This branch of the Special Olympics served athletes from all over her home city and its suburbs. She described her work as "hands-on" being a referee or "doing something on the day of the tournament" and "getting to work with those kids" – activities which she greatly enjoyed doing. "I fell in love with all of them!" she gushed when describing the participants with whom she worked. When asked about the nature of the athletes' disabilities, she shared

that she worked with participants who had quite a range of disabilities, including Down syndrome, autism, and cerebral palsy. She further offered: "I mean, you could find anything [referring to the diversity of disabilities]… They're so much better at bocce ball than I could even imagine!"

Jessica's second pivotal experience was when she was a student, herself, before graduating from high school. She shared that sometimes she used to struggle in mathematics. With hard work and the help of a very influential teacher – Jessica stated, "I mean, she saved me in a sense" – she developed her own strategies for solving difficult mathematics problems by the time she entered high school. With these strategies for solving math problems in hand, she shared that she would "hear the way they [the high school math teachers] would teach it and find a completely different route to get an answer." Because of this skill, Jessica would often help her peers who struggled in math and developed a reputation as a capable peer tutor who teachers sought after to help struggling math students. In describing this experience, Jessica was both humble and candid:

> So, I was always set up with someone younger than I was, I would break it down the way I did it because I would hear they way they did it and find a completely different route to get the answer. I didn't really know [if] what I was doing was teaching or helping. I was like "the problem is like this," [laughing] and I was giving a formula. (interview, 1/23/15)

Through this experience in peer tutoring, Jessica related that she realized that she was great at it. Her teachers seeking her out to help other students was a likely source of verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) for Jessica, that strengthened her belief that this was something that she was good at doing. Near the end of this part of the interview,

Jessica once again described the influence of a particular teacher she had when she was younger. Thinking about this teacher, she shared, "I want to do something like that [what she did her Jessica] and I realized why don't I just do what she does?" So while Jessica might not have had much experience working with students with or without disabilities from CLD communities, she related considerable prior experience during the interview in working with students with disabilities or had struggled academically.

Julia

You are going to come with me. Julia was a female in her late twenties who identified as having two racial and/or ethnic backgrounds (Hispanic and White). She spoke English fluently and was also a proficient Spanish speaker. Julia was born and raised in a small city along the Rio Grande on the Texas border with Mexico. Julia was the oldest of the five participants. She had also spent longer than any other participant working with students with and without disabilities from CLD communities before her field experience during the fall semester. Accordingly, the researcher's background interview with Julia was longer than any of the others, lasting 49 min 14 seconds.

When Julia described her initial experiences working with students from CLD communities, she first described work she had undertaken alongside her mother at Head Start. Her mother taught at Head Start for 15 years and was described by Julia as a "strong teacher" who worked with some of the "naughty children". Julia confessed that this latter phrase was "not the correct language" for describing children but that her

mother used this language to describe the "bad class" of children she worked with. She added that these young students needed a teacher who was firm like her mother. Julia's experiences with this CLD community began when she was about half of her current age and in middle school, helping her mother set up her classroom during the summers. By the time she turned 15 years old, Julia would help her mother during over several school years. She shared, candidly:

> I don't know if she had a rule, but once I turned 15 she was like: "You haven't missed any school this year, right? You are going to come with me." I thought this was great! (interview, 1/19/15)

Julia connected her experiences working under her mother's mentorship with to serving students from CLD communities because her home city was "on the border, so nearly 100% of those students were children of color; all Spanish-speaking." She also shared that everyone spoke Spanish at this Head Start program. Implied in her comments was that English was either not spoken, or a second language to speakers in this context, and that the majority of the students at Head Start were of Hispanic ethnicity.

Later in the interview, Julia reflected on certain liberties that were available to the teachers and staff working at this Head Start program that were not available when she later moved to a much larger city in Central Texas. After she moved, her mother followed suit, and they both ended up living and working in one of the top three most populated cities in Texas. Naturally, Julia compared her experiences working in both cities throughout the interview. Reflecting on Head Start, she shared that because so many students were "clamoring" to attend this program that teachers and staff could be highly selective in choosing which students would be admitted to the program. Because

the program was highly selective in enrolling students, Julia recalled that her mother (and other teachers and staff) could also remove students from the program due to misbehavior. Julia explained that the continuously large supply of families who were interested in participating in the program directly related to their access to government assistance in the region for families from low-income backgrounds.

I think it was more my professional development. Julia spent six years working at Advancement House (AH; a pseudonym) in this highly populated city in Central Texas. AH was a for-profit preschool when Julia started working there as a *floater* (which she defined as a teaching assistant for many teachers). Julia emphasized its for-profit status quite a few times during the interview, which she seemed to do to contrast AH with Head Start. Returning to the topic of her work with students from CLD backgrounds, Julia offered that the young students at AH were much more of a "heterogeneous mix of kids". She added:

> We had children of color. When I started, most of the children came from affluent backgrounds. […] Because of where we were located just by the Medical Center, we had a lot of immigrant families from Africa that [would] come in and work as nurses and as doctors. So, we had a number of those kids. We also had some families that came from India and we had many, many, many Hispanic children. That's kind of the makeup of [the large city]. (interview, 1/19/15)

Later in the interview, it becomes clearer why AH's for-profit status becomes part of Julia's story. Shortly after she began her job, a new director assumed leadership of AH. She had new ideas about how to run AH, including turning the organization into a for-profit venture, subsidized by government funding, which could accept more children from low-income families. According to Julia, the new director also wanted a clearer

focus on early intervention which impacted AH in two ways: (a) the number of students with disabilities substantially increased and (b) a shift from "just being a daycare" to a preschool that featured lesson planning and where early intervention would occur.

Over the course of Julia's first few years with AH, she went from being a floater, to a teaching assistant, to a PPCD classroom teacher assistant. She was a member of a teaching team comprised of a lead teacher, a special education teacher from the local school district, and one other assistant – all working with roughly 28 students. Julia indicated that over the years, her classrooms tended to have around 7-8 students with disabilities. She described her work as developing activities for her students and following the lead teacher's lesson plans. Much of the classroom activities, she said, supported her students' fine motor skills.

As a result of chronically high attrition rates amongst the teachers and staff at AH, Julia became one of the few veteran employees at the school. Because of her status, she was provided with more leadership opportunities and responsibilities, particularly over the second half of her six-year tenure at AH. One of the opportunities she took advantage of was teaching in the preschool's summer camp. She later became an assistant director at the school and by her sixth year essentially served as the school's curriculum coordinator and was, essentially, the curriculum coordinator. Julia concluded her account of her time working at AH by proudly citing her school amongst those piloting the HighScope Curriculum from the Perry Preschool Project – a curriculum which featured a research-based, constructivist approach to early education (Schweinhart, Barnes, & Weikart, 1993; Schweinhart et al., 2004). In order to develop the experience skills to

fully implement the HighScope Curriculum in her school's classrooms, Julia attended trainings throughout the city and became acquainted with several other PPCD special educators within the school district. These experience, she said, were pivotal for her in shaping her desire to become a special education teacher. When asked whether the trainings were for her own professional development or if she had to train other teachers to use the strategies, Julia explained: "I think it was more my [own] professional development" but at the same time "we [at AH] started the training in-house because it can get really expensive when you are sending 30 people [to HighScope Curriculum trainings]."

We have some concerns. Amid the various roles that Julia fulfilled while she was at AH, she cited her year as a lead teacher for 2-year-old students as "probably the best year of my life." That was the year she decided to commit to teaching. From this point in the interview, as she described her students, one student in particular stood out to her. Her work with him and a handful of students like him set the stage for her ultimately deciding to enroll at the university and major in special education. The student, who Julia later shared had a diagnosis of bipolar disorder, had demonstrated unexpected, challenging behaviors in the classroom where she taught. During the time he was a student in her class, she reported that some of the signs of his disorder already appeared to be evident in his behavior:

Julia: I did have one student with autism. I had another student—he's now labeled with [*sic*] bipolar. But there was, I guess, some manifestations that came out pretty early on.

Ray: Even at two [years old]? Wow, yeah.

Julia: I mean… a 2-year-old—everybody throws a tantrum and it was kind of hard to decide if this was… maybe not typical, but the length and duration and frequency of them were a little more severe. (interview, 1/19/15)

Julia indicated that the student was eventually removed from AH, but only after many conversations between the school personnel and the student's mother or grandmother. When describing one of the final conversations that the director had with his family, Julia offered:

> You know, I wasn't there in that conversation, but I know my boss and I know it wasn't "oh your son is bipolar". It was, you know: "we have some concerns and these are what we see." She [the mother or grandmother] got really upset and took him [from the program]. (interview, 1/19/15)

Julia described two other experiences serving students with disabilities, which were influential in her decision to pursue her undergraduate degree in special education at the university. Her two experiences related to serving two particular students: one student who had also been diagnosed with bipolar disorder and a second student who had a very rare genetic disorder. It was relevant to note that it was not entirely clear if either of these two students with disabilities belonged to CLD communities. As with the other background interviews with the other participants – though in particular, with Jessica – the conversation between the researcher and the participants would often shift onto the broad topic of working with youth with disabilities, while a discussion of CLD-related factors within the communities where this work occurred faded into the background.

Julia worked with these two students over separate years, while she was a teacher at AH's summer camp. She described the young male who was diagnosed with bipolar

disorder as 15-years-old at the time and was "a big kid". Prior to his enrollment in the program, Julia got a phone call from his mother: "Do you take bad kids?" To this question, Julia replied: "Well, there are no bad children, so tell me more." At this point in time in her career, Julia was feeling confident in her ability to capably serve a wide variety of students with disabilities, such as this young male with bipolar disorder, which she discussed at greater length:

> I think I had gotten really good at—I can do transitions, I can get us quiet, I can get us through the day, and I was happy with that and I really wasn't getting better [on other aspects to teaching]. Then, when I got my [additional] student with bipolar disorder that was nine, he was—I had other students with bipolar disorder which made me feel that maybe I could do this. I kind of know the language [to use with the students] and the way to come off which is usually not using any directives and kind of "let's talk about this". (interview, 1/19/15)

The student, in fact, was allowed to enroll in the summer camp and fared well until he ultimately was removed from the program after displaying "a really violent outburst" during a period of free play. Julia described his outburst as "really intense" and that she and a team "had to hold him down as he broke shelves." She and the team had to contain him for 40 minutes, leaving each of them feeling drained afterwards. She cited her lack of success with this student as one of several impetuses for learning more about individuals with disabilities, enrolling at the university in Sweetbriar, and eventually pursuing her undergraduate degree in special education.

Julia concluded her discussion of working with students with disabilities with a description of the aforementioned 13-year-old female summer camper who had a rare genetic disorder. The characteristics of her disorder included having an auditory impairment, limited verbal expression, and cognitive delays – all of which compromised

her ability to communicate with others. Additionally, her physical mobility was impacted by partial paralysis of her body. She also had a particular affinity for water. Before working with the student, Julia asked the student's mother how she communicated with her daughter, to which her mother said: "Well, she'll just point to what she wants." Julia explained to the researcher how the mother did not want her daughter to use sign language or pictures to assist in her communication with others because she thought it would hinder her daughter's progress toward developing her verbal communication skills.

Julia then described, in detail, a particular episode which illustrated some of the challenges in effectively communicating with this student. It happened when they were getting ready to go to the swimming pool. As a result of the communication between this student and others, the student ignored Julia's request to change her undergarments before going into the swimming pool. The student proceeded to head to the swimming pool right after she had an accident in her undergarments. At that point in time, the teachers at AH still did not have any signs or assistive communicative devices to facilitate communication between staff members and the student. As a result, Julia explained, there was no way to tell her "first, I am going to change you" before she entered the pool. Consequently, Julia reflected on how further developing her own understandings of disabilities could help her better serve individuals within this population: "How much more could I be helping you, or how much could we have progressed if I knew a little bit more?" she wondered. These experiences and Julia's eagerness to learn more research-based practices for working with students with

disabilities ultimately led her to the university and to pursue an undergraduate major in special education and become a member of Cohort 8.

Madaline

I was like their second kid, almost. Madaline was a female in her early twenties and identified as having two racial and/or ethnic backgrounds (American Indian and White). She spoke English fluently. Like Carter, Madaline was from East Texas. The researcher conducted an interview with Madaline to gather her background experiences working with students with and without disabilities from CLD communities. The duration of the interview was 11 min 12 seconds.

During the interview Madaline did not provide the name of her hometown. It was therefore not clear if she had grown up in an urban, suburban, or rural area. She did indicate that her high school was very culturally diverse. Her high school, she reported, featured "a lot of Hispanics, a lot of African-Americans […] and less Caucasian people." To illustrate, she provided examples of her interactions with peers outside of her own cultural and linguistic community. For example, Madaline was a member of her high school's track team, where she made a number of African-American friends. She described this group of friends on the track team as "so fun" and "so different than [*sic*] my other friends". She further offered that this group of friends would typically use a different communication style that was markedly different from the one she used with her other groups of friends: "They're louder, but that's like who they are," Madaline stated. To clarify what she meant, Madaline shared over the member check that she was "talking

about their culture, if that makes sense. I've noticed that their culture uses a higher volume – just like the Cajun culture [which] also uses a higher volume or speaks loudly" (email communication, 3/2/15). She wanted to make it clear that she was not meaning to apply a stereotype.

In addition to her discussion of her different groups of friends from the track team, Madaline described her best friend Lourdes[17] in great detail. Lourdes was originally from Honduras. They both attended the same high school and the same university in Sweetbriar. She described how welcomed she felt by both Lourdes and her family and likened this to a crosscultural experience; one she which she both enjoyed and cherished:

> So even through her [Lourdes], I got to meet all of her Honduran family which—a lot of them don't speak really good English, but they're so welcoming and have these big dinners and big parties and they're—it's a bunch of fun and seeing that culture through her and being like—I was like their second kid, almost. I would always be over there! (interview, 1/23/15)

We have these bonds. Madaline noticed that the two open-ended background questions from the interview protocol (see APPENDIX P) were "intertwined". She was the only participant to have made that connection, or at least to acknowledge this connection during her interview. In contrast to Alegría, Jessica, and Carter, who provided separate responses to each of the interview questions about their prior experiences working with students with and without disabilities from CLD communities, Madaline synthesized her answers to both questions. Therefore, she answered the

[17] Lourdes was a pseudonym.

questions about her prior experiences working with students with disabilities from CLD communities and students from CLD communities, together.

She began by describing her membership with Capernaum – a club for students (as well as adults) with disabilities – which itself was part of a larger organization called Young Life Ministry. She explained that Capernaum was a Christian organization and that one of its goals was to share the teachings of the Bible with people who were joining the Young Life Ministry. As a high school student, Madaline had become a member of Young Life Ministry and associated many positive experiences with the organization. As a result, she was already quite familiar with the organization before enrolling as a student in the university.

Madaline went on to provide a description of Capernaum. The particular branch of Capernaum in Sweetbriar, which Madaline belonged to served "kids from 14 [to] adults who are 30." Within this group's membership were several young ladies from a Hispanic, Spanish-speaking cultural and linguistic community, who lived in suburb adjacent to Sweetbriar's city limits, known locally as being less affluent than most other communities in Sweetbriar. She got to know these young ladies from this suburban community very well. Living in a group home that provided them with assisted-living supports, they also attended the Capernaum Club on a weekly basis, where Madaline frequently encountered them. Madaline said that she could "just be their friend, hanging out." Madaline also worked with a group affiliated with Young Life Ministry in Sweetbriar Pond – a neighborhood within Sweetbriar that Carter also described in his interview – which had a reputation among many within the local community for wealth

and ostentation. This socioeconomic contrast between the two communities might have been implied in Madaline's responses during her interview, but the links were not fully developed or explained.

Madaline's involvement with Capernaum – helping fulfill its mission and enjoying the social aspects of the organization – was what she described as ultimately leading her to decide to become a special education major. She described her experience at Capernaum as illuminating "the community with disabilities" to her more fully. Similar to Carter, Madaline discussed how these experiences helped change her perceptions of individuals with disabilities. She shared:

> I never saw them [individuals with disabilities] in the way that I do now. […] I saw the danger of a single story from that TED Talk and that was how I viewed disabilities [before Capernaum]. I'd viewed them as their disability rather than an actual person. And so doing Capernaum, I saw so much more than just the disability. I actually became friends and we have these bonds and so I think that helped to shape me as the teacher that I am. So, going into teaching [and] seeing these people as a whole person rather than different aspects of them. (interview, 1/23/15)

Throughout the interview, Madaline used some phrases and specific moments that caught the researcher's attention. For example, she referred to "the community with disabilities" in a way that demonstrated tenets of a person-centered approach to special education and a respect for individuals within a community, similar to the way that Alegría framed her experiences with the deaf community. Madaline shared, "I never saw them in the way that I do now," indicating a reflectiveness of her evolving understanding of special education, teaching, and, more specifically, understanding individuals with disabilities. Another example of Madaline's self-reflectiveness regarding her

understanding of disabilities was when she shared, "I'd viewed them as their disability rather than an actual person." She also shared an account of a TED Talk about individuals with disabilities that she had watched at some point before the fall semester. It was not clear if the TED Talk was a requirement for one of the foundations block courses or if there was a separate impetus for her to watch it. Some of these topics were beyond the scope of the background interviews but would certainly be worth further exploration.

COHORT'S CHANGES MEASURED BY THE MODIFIED CRTSE

This section describes the self-efficacy beliefs of members of Cohort 8 to serve CLD students with and without disabilities and documents changes in the self-efficacy beliefs of members of this cohort, as measured by their responses to the pre- and post-internship administrations of each item on the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007). This section also further examines the patterns and trends revealed in the data from the pre- and post-internship scales. Particular attention in this section is given to the cohort's three highest and three lowest scoring items. The researcher performed paired t-tests to determine whether there were any statistically significant changes; he also calculated the descriptive statistics to further illustrate the data. The descriptive statistics consisted of the mean, median, standard deviation, and range of the cohort's pre- and post-measurements of self-efficacy *overall* (i.e., as an entire cohort). In addition, these

descriptive statistics were used to evaluate the data at several different levels of data disaggregation, in order to provide a fuller and more nuanced account of the self-efficacy belief changes that the participants experienced by the end of their first field experience. Lastly, an evaluation of trends and patterns within the data are used to address the two research questions which motivated the undertaking of this dissertation study.

The data shared in this section of Chapter 4 address this study's first research question: *Do preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach CLD learners with and without disabilities change after they have completed their first field experience, as measured by the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007)?* In short, the answer to this research question was yes: indeed self-efficacy beliefs of PSTs who participated in the study changed after they have completed their first field experience. However, the participants' changes in their self-efficacy scores from the first to the second administration failed to reach statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level, based on the findings from the researcher's paired *t*-tests. The remainder of this first section of the chapter provides a closer analysis of where and why the changes in Cohort 8 special education PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs occurred, as captured by data from the pre- and post-field experience administrations of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007).

Pre-Internship Scale

Cohort 8 global scores. Overall, members of the cohort expressed relatively high self-efficacy beliefs in serving CLD students with and without disabilities before starting their first preservice field experience. The range of possible overall scores on the

modified CRTSE was 0 – 8000 for each participant, which was made up of the sum of two separate scores: self-efficacy to serve CLD students with disabilities (0 – 4000), and self-efficacy to serve CLD students without disabilities (0 – 4000). The range for the individual participants' composite scores within the cohort was 4905 – 7776. Other descriptive statistics for the individual participants' composite scores (M = 6417.42, SD = 825.99, Mdn = 6377.00) indicated that the distribution of these scores was slightly positively skewed.

Interestingly, Cohort 8 members expressed slightly greater self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students without disabilities compared to serving CLD students with disabilities. As a cohort, the PSTs reported a positively skewed distribution of scores with a mean of 3220.67 (SD = 422.58, Mdn = 3206.00), which ranged from 2366 to 3917 to capably teach CLD students without disabilities: in comparison, the PSTs reported a mean score of 3196.75 (SD = 405.51, Mdn = 3171.00) that ranged from 2539 to 3883 in their self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students with disabilities. The distribution was also positively skewed. The PSTs' pre-internship scores for serving both students with and without disabilities are displayed in Figure 4.1:

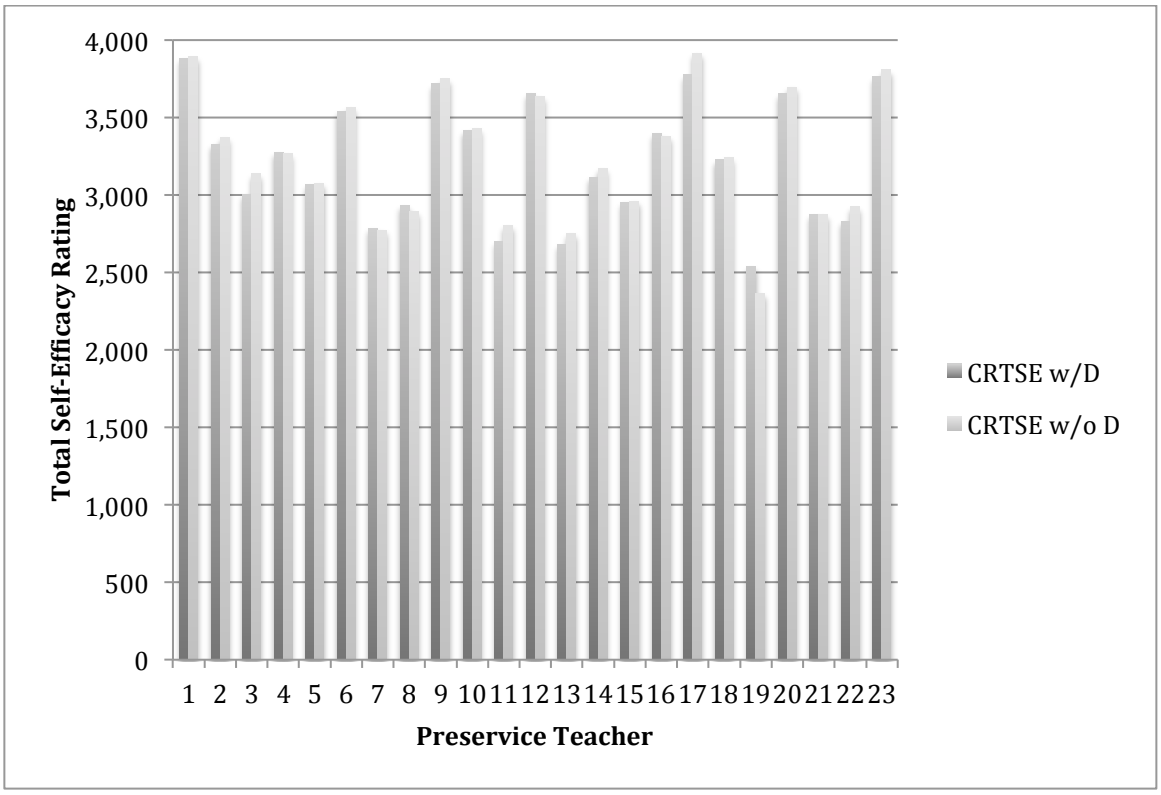


Figure 4.1: Participant Scores on Modified CRTSE, Pre-Internship

While the PSTs in the study expressed greater self-efficacy beliefs before beginning their first field experience to serve CLD students without disabilities, these scores were less widely distributed than scores which measure their self-efficacy in serving CLD students with disabilities, as noted by the difference between the standard deviation in the two sets of scores. At this stage in the study, it was difficult to infer why such a difference in these distributions was recorded. It was possible that the students had a clearer mental model (Craik, 1943) for teaching in general education as opposed to a special education setting, because the PSTs were still in the formative stages of their special education major. Further speculation and findings will be explored through the

eyes of Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline later in the chapter. Nonetheless, as a cohort, the PSTs felt more self-efficacious to teach diverse students without disabilities than those with disabilities before they began their first field experience.

Cohort 8 item-specific responses. As Siwatu (2007) and Bandura (2006) recommend, more weight should be placed on the item-specific responses compared to the global score from self-efficacy scales. Therefore, an item by item score analysis was conducted within the modified CRTSE. In this analysis, each of the 40 items from the modified CRTSE was examined to discover on which self-efficacy beliefs the participants, as a cohort, scored the highest and lowest. High scores showed greater self-efficacy beliefs to implement a specific task related to culturally responsive teaching (CRT); in contrast, low scores suggest more uncertainty. The highest and lowest items are provided in Tables 4.1 and 4.2:

Rank	Scale Item	*M*	*SD*
1	*Help students feel like important members of the classroom*	D[18]: 92.71 N/D: 92.21	D: 7.30 N/D: 7.92
2	*Build a sense of trust in my students*	D: 91.67 N/D: 91.33	D: 8.70 N/D: 9.10
3	*Develop a personal relationship with my students*	D: 90.67 N/D: 89.83	D: 11.91 N/D: 13.01

Table 4.1: Three Items with the Highest Scores, Pre-Internship

[18] D signified the scores that correspond to working with CLD students with disabilities; N/D signified working with CLD students without disabilities.

Rank	Scale Item	*M*	*SD*
1	*Teach my students about their cultures' contributions to science*	D: 64.75 N/D: 65.14	D: 27.37 N/D: 27.47
2	*Greet English language learners with a phrase in their native language*	D: 66.13 N/D: 66.46	D: 32.37 N/D: 32.04
3	*Implement strategies to minimize the effects of the mismatch between my students' home culture and the school culture*	D: 66.42 N/D: 67.58	D: 15.51 N/D: 16.36

Table 4.2: Three Items with the Lowest Scores, Pre-Internship

There were several trends emerging from an analysis of the three highest and three lowest ranked scale items. Overall, it was apparent that the members of Cohort 8 as a whole felt confident in their ability to capably serve students with and without disabilities even before their first field experience in a public school setting. Importantly, the three highest ranked items for the cohort as a whole did not explicitly feature culture, race, ethnicity, language, or other variables that specifically illuminated these student attributes in practice. However, when the focus of the items on the modified CRTSE shifted to more specific and nuanced skills required of culturally responsive teachers, their self-efficacy dropped. In two of these items (#1 and #3 from Table 4.2), the focus of the items was not only on respondents' awareness of students' cultural backgrounds; additionally, these items focused on an application of that awareness to CRT practices – including instructional strategies – in a specific content area (e.g., science). Further analysis from the data at both the pre- and post-internship stages will be explored in more depth later in Chapters 4 and 5.

Post-Internship Scale

Cohort 8 global scores. Overall, members of Cohort 8 expressed slightly higher self-efficacy beliefs in serving CLD students with and without disabilities after they completed their first internship compared to their self-efficacy beliefs before completing the internship. However, the paired *t*-tests that the researcher performed on the PSTs self-efficacy changes from the pre- to post-internship ($t = 1.3137$, $p = .2025$) indicated that the changes were not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. The range of scores, which was identical to that on the pre-internship measure (0 – 8000), was 4760 – 7916. Other descriptive statistics of the total scores from the second administration of the modified CRTSE included: $M = 6757.78$, $SD = 950.53$, $Mdn = 6931$. Compared to the first administration, the mean and the median of the cohort's global score of self-efficacy increased by 5.30% and 8.69%, respectively. Interestingly, the standard deviation of the cohort's global self-efficacy score increased from 825.99 to 950.53, indicating a wider spread of the global self-efficacy scores of individual participants during the second administration of the modified CRTSE. The finding indicated that while the cohort members, as a whole, increased in their total self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students with and without disabilities, there was also a greater range of scores expressed over the second administration of the scale. In fact, the range increased in both directions – positively and negatively – suggesting that the experience of this first field placement increased the self-efficacy beliefs of some participants while decreasing these beliefs in others. As with the first administration, the distribution was positively skewed.

It was not surprising, given the same finding during the pre-internship administration of the modified CRTSE, that in the post-internship administration of this

scale the PSTs in the cohort expressed greater self-efficacy in serving CLD students *without* disabilities compared to serving CLD students with disabilities. However, the researcher ran paired *t*-tests and found that these changes ($t = 1.6766$, $p = .1078$) fell short of being statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Nonetheless, many of the respondents may have expressed these changes as a result of the emphasis on general education teaching in the four university courses and the field experience placement for the first semester of the special education major, in which all of the participants were enrolled. As a group, the PSTs reported an average post-field experience self-efficacy score for serving diverse students without disabilities of 3425.48 ($SD = 433.19$, $Mdn = 3461.00$) with a range of 2616 – 3058. In contrast to the previously reported findings, this distribution was negatively skewed. This global mean score represented an increase of 6.36% in the cohort's mean self-efficacy score to serve diverse students without disabilities during the second administration of the modified CRTSE.

By comparison, the PSTs as a cohort reported a mean score of 3332.30 ($SD = 549.33$, $Mdn = 3470.00$) to serve diverse students with disabilities at the time of the second administration of the scale. These scores ranged from 1876 – 3958, and the participants' changes in their scores to serve diverse students with disabilities did not reach statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level ($t = .9183$, $p = .3689$). The distribution of this data negatively skewed. The cohort's mean score serve diverse students with disabilities increased by a modest 4.24%. The data from the second administration are displayed in Figure 4.2:

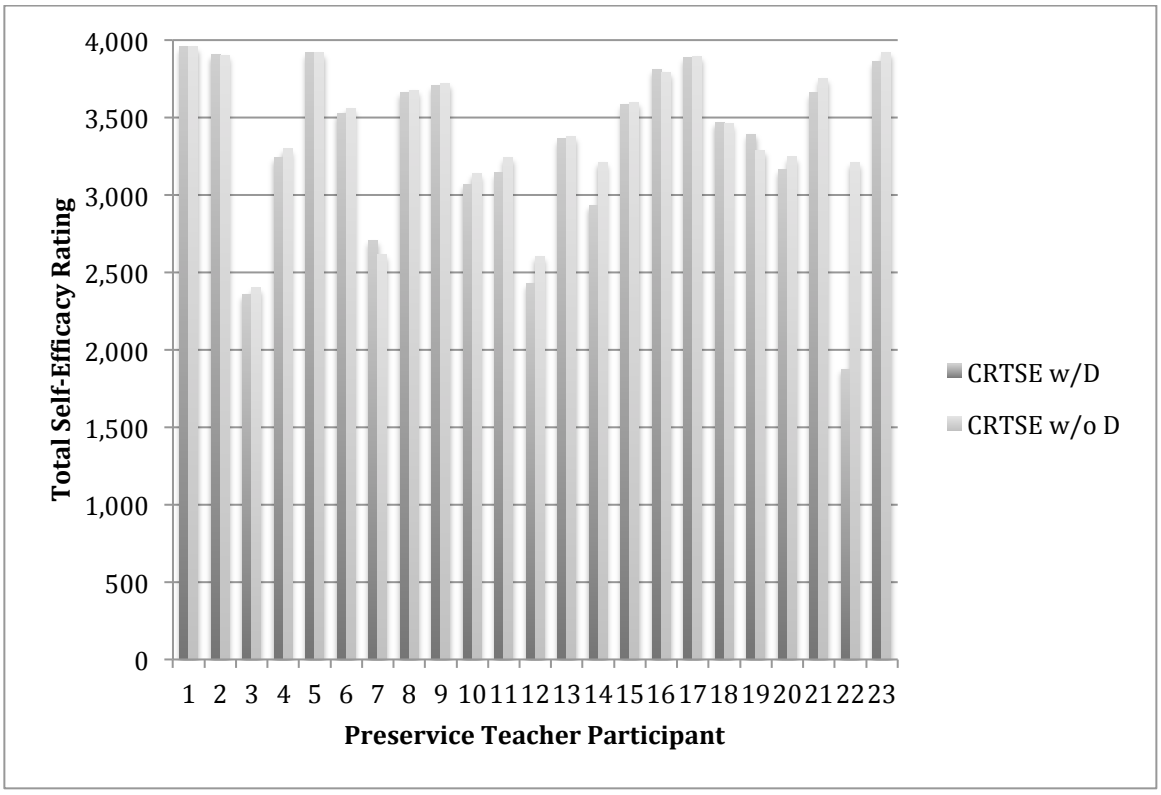


Figure 4.2: Participant Scores on the Modified CRTSE, Post-Internship

In sum, average self-efficacy scores of PSTs (for working with diverse students with and without disabilities) increased between the first and second administrations of the modified CRTSE, but failed to increase at a statistically significant level of $p < .05$. Nonetheless, these findings illustrated that the PSTs within this study likely increased their self-efficacy and confidence to capably execute many items indicative of a culturally responsive teacher after they had completed their first internship experiences. However, in contrast to data from the pre-internship administration of the modified CRTSE, the distribution of mean self-efficacy scores in the second administration was negatively skewed. The standard deviation of the cohort's mean self-efficacy was also

greater than in the first administration of the scale. Therefore, there was greater variety between members of the cohort in self-efficacy beliefs after they had taught in their first field experience setting. In sum, as a cohort, the PSTs felt more self-efficacious to teach students with and without disabilities after completing their field experience, according to their scores on the scales as well as the descriptive data.

Cohort 8 item-specific responses. The respondent's ratings on specific items on the scale can also provide TPP educators with a fuller understanding of areas within the program where the teacher candidates feel prepared and where they still feel underprepared and, potentially, strengthen the overall outcomes of the program with data. Accordingly, the researcher examined each of the 40 items from the second administration to seek which item the cohort, as a group, expressed the strongest and the weakest beliefs in their capabilities. These items are shared in Tables 4.3 and 4.4:

Rank (Previous Rank)	Scale Item	*M*	*SD*	% Change
1 (3)	*Develop a personal relationship with my students*	D: 96.65 N/D: 97.30	D: 6.82 N/D: 4.91	D: +6.59 N/D: +8.32
2 (2)	*Build a sense of trust in my students*	D: 93.26 N/D: 95.14	D: 9.08 N/D: 5.86	D: +1.73 N/D: +4.17
3 (1)	*Help students feel like important members of the classroom*	D: 93.74 N/D: 94.65	D: 8.25 N/D: 7.29	D: +1.11 N/D: +2.65

Table 4.3: Three Items with the Highest Scores, Post-Internship

Rank (Previous Rank)	Scale Item	*M*	*SD*	% Change
1 (1)	*Teach students about their cultures' contributions to science*	D: 70.78 N/D: 73.26	D: 22.99 N/D: 18.95	D: +9.31 N/D: +12.47
2 (NR[19])	*Praise English language learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language*	D: 73.87 N/D: 76.35	D: 30.22 N/D: 28.34	D: +3.13 N/D: +6.72
3 (NR)	*Determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with other students*	D: 73.17 N/D: 77.96	D: 24.16 N/D: 22.03	D: -5.23 N/D: -2.50

Table 4.4: Three Items with the Lowest Scores, Post-Internship

Clearly, the PSTs' data from the second administration of the modified Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy scale (CRTSE; Siwatu, 2007) indicated certain changes, trends, patterns, and themes. The top three items from the second administration of the scale were identical to the first administration, except that two of the items were ranked slightly differently. The bottom three items, which signified the components of CRT in which the PSTs in this study felt least self-efficacious, were somewhat different. The lowest item *"teach my students about their cultures' contributions to science"* remained the lowest in both administrations, although the PSTs' overall sense of his or her ability to teach students about different cultural contributions to science increased by the end of the semester. One item ("*praise using a phrase in native language*") replaced another ("*greet with a phrase in native language*")

[19] NR: Not previously ranked.

at the bottom of the list: both examples of linguistically responsive teacher items (at least, at the beginning stages). Finally, by and large, members of Cohort 8 felt less self-efficacious in their abilities to "*determine whether my students feel comfortable competing with others*[20]".

For now, it is helpful to return to Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline to hear how they explain their changes in their self-efficacy beliefs. Since these participants (n = 5) represented a stratified random sample from the cohort (N = 24), their input was especially meaningful: each participant's discussion of his or her prior experiences working with diverse students could also provide an enriched context for interpreting data about his or her self-efficacy beliefs and also illuminate potential patterns, trends, and interpretations shared by the rest of the cohort.

CHANGES EXPERIENCED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

Introduction

To discover the changes in self-efficacy that the participants (n = 5) experienced, the researcher retrieved their scores from the two administrations of the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) and the following qualitative data sources: (a) supervisor observation prompts, (b) lesson plans, (c) reflective journals, (d) internship activity assignments, (e) final reflection papers for EDC 331, and (f) individual interviews. The purpose behind this investigation was to address this dissertation's second research question: *How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy*

[20] Further discussion about these findings will be provided later in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?

Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline made up the researcher's stratified random sample based on their scores on the first administration of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) in June 2014. Alegría and Jessica were chosen, at random, from the six members of the cohort who comprised the upper quartile. Julia's overall score for her self-efficacy beliefs was the closest to the median and mean of the cohort for the first administration of the modified CRTSE, while Carter and Madaline were chosen from the lower quartile. For context, high scores on the June 2014 scales suggested a greater sense of self-efficacy to capably complete tasks related to CRT before interning and commencing any field experience requirements. Alegría and Julia interned at Cannon Elementary School in SISD; the remaining three participants were at Sycamore.

Data from the first scale. The five participants were selected using the stratified random sampling procedure and they, as a whole, expressed slightly greater self-efficacy ratings in June 2014 than the 19 remaining members of the cohort. This can be explained because two of the participants (Jessica and Alegría) were the first and second highest scorers of the cohort. While on the other end of the spectrum, Madaline and Carter's initial scores placed them as 20th and 22nd. Consequently, two members of the cohort reported a lower sense of self-efficacy than the two participants, Madaline and Carter, who were chosen in the sample. The total self-efficacy from each of these participants in the sample (n = 5) ranged from 5430 to 7776. Other descriptive statistics comparing the researcher's sample with the remainder of the cohort are displayed in Table 4.5:

Group	*M*, D	*M*, ND	*M*, Total	*Mdn*, Total	*SD*, Total
Participants ($n = 5$)	3279.60	3320.60	6600.20	6545.00	1233.21
Remainder of Cohort 8 ($n = 19$)	3174.95	3194.37	6369.32	N/A	786.19

Table 4.5: Participants' Scores Compared with the Remainder of the Cohort, Pre-Internship

Data from the second scale. Given each of the participants' backgrounds, it was not surprising that each of their self-efficacy scores changed when they took the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) that second time in December 2014. How their self-efficacy beliefs changed will be explored over the next section of Chapter 4, which revisits the five participants (and their qualitative data sources) individually. As a whole, the average of the five participants' total self-efficacy scores to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities increased by a modest 3.94% from 6600.20 to 6860.40. This was a slower rate of increase compared to the rest of the cohort ($n = 18$), as they increased by 5.65% from 6369.32 to 6729.28. The specific scores by participant will be described in the next section of Chapter 4. The total scores from the sample ($n = 5$) ranged from 5324 to 7916. Other descriptive statistics comparing the sample with the remainder of the cohort over the second administration of the scale are displayed in Table 4.6:

Group	*M*, D (% Change)	*M*, ND (% Change)	*M*, Total (% Change)	*Mdn,* Total (% Change)	*SD,* Total
Participants (n = 5)	3431.40 (+4.63)	3429.00 (+4.56)	6860.40 (+3.94)	6741.00 (+2.99)	1053.77
Remainder of Cohort 8 (n = 18)	3304.78 (+4.09)	3424.50 (+7.86)	6729.28 (+5.65)	N/A	978.34

Table 4.6: Participants' Scores Compared with the Remainder of the Cohort, Post-Internship

Participants' scores. When looking at the participants' global self-efficacy scores from both administrations of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) scale, there was an overall strengthening in their self-efficacy beliefs (i.e., mean global self-efficacy score) to serve diverse students with and without disabilities. However, upon closer inspection, an increase in the global self-efficacy was not experienced by all of the participants. Instead, there were a variety of both increases and decreases in the global self-efficacy by individuals within the sample. This trend was consistent amongst all Intern Is. In fact, only Alegría, Carter, and Jessica recorded an increase in their total modified CRTSE scores by the end of their first internships. Julia's global score essentially remained the same, declining by > 00.1%. Madaline, on the other hand, expressed a decrease in her global self-efficacy by the second administration of the modified CRTSE. These changes are explored in the next section of Chapter 4. In the meantime, Figures 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 illustrate the participants' changes in their reported, global (cumulative) self-efficacy:

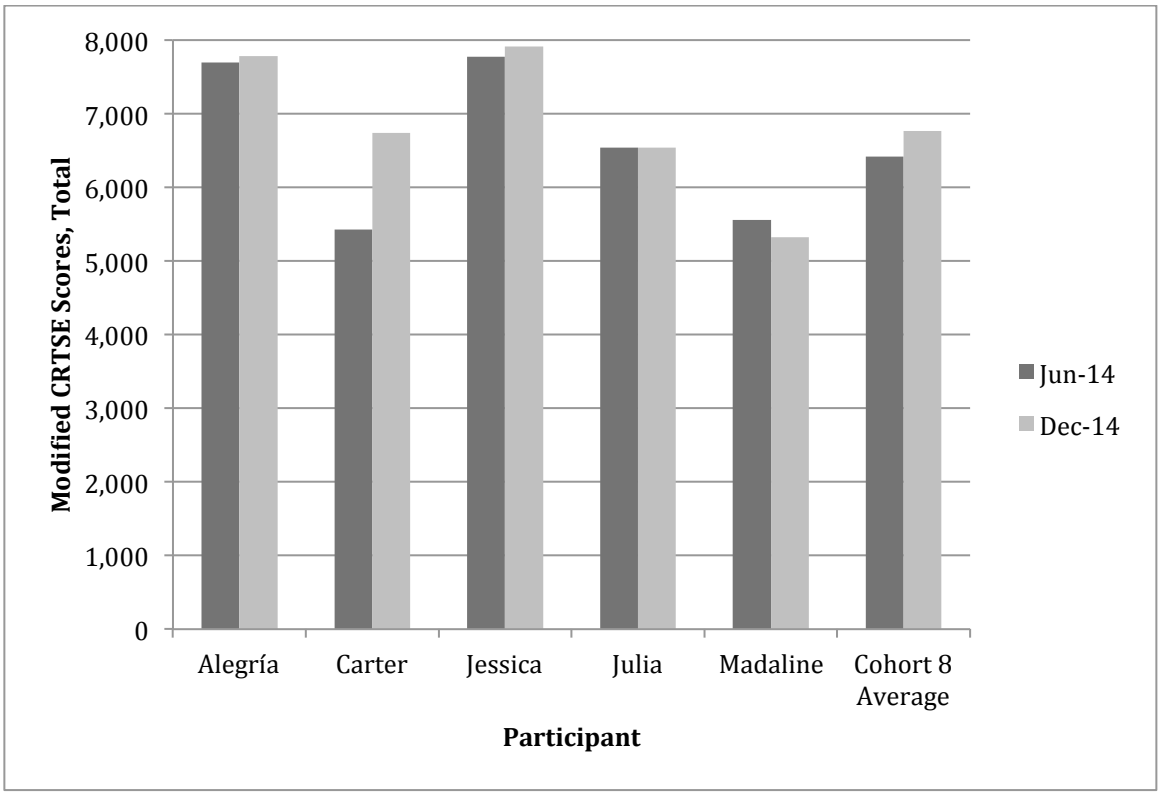


Figure 4.3: Sample's Total Scores Across both Administrations of the Scales

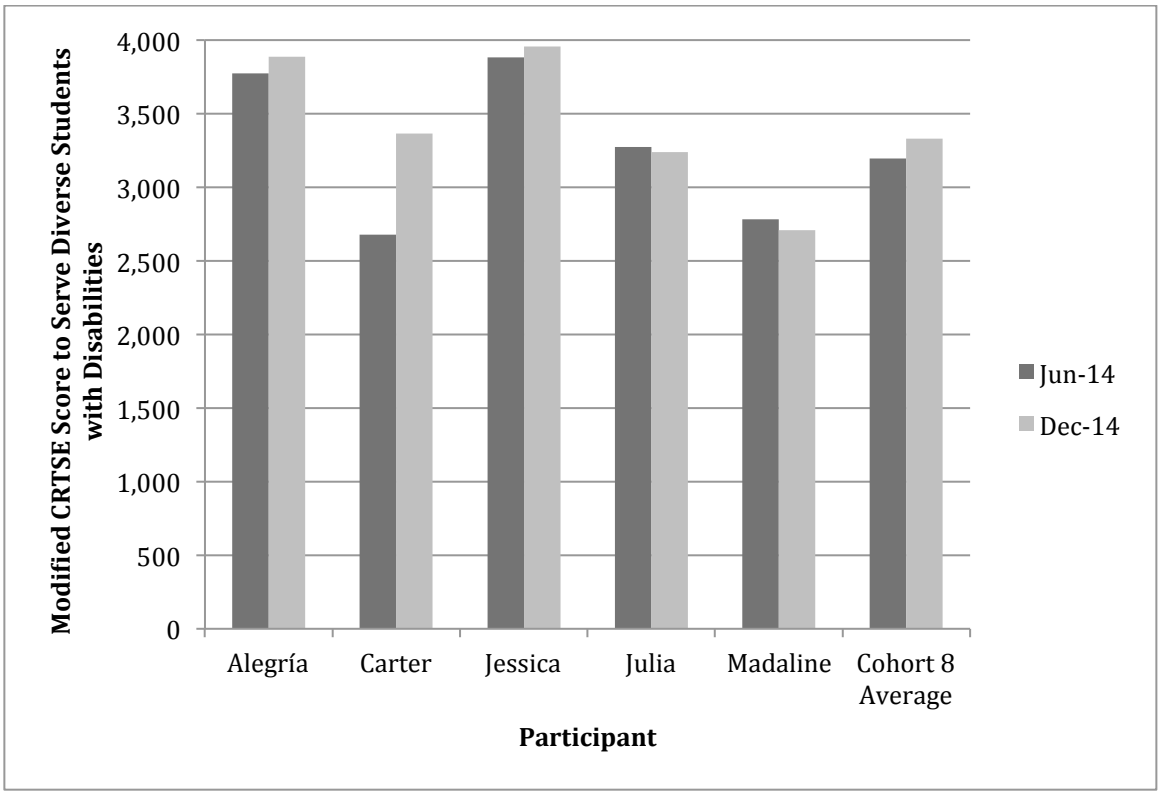


Figure 4.4: Sample's Self-Efficacy Scores to Serve Diverse Students with Disabilities

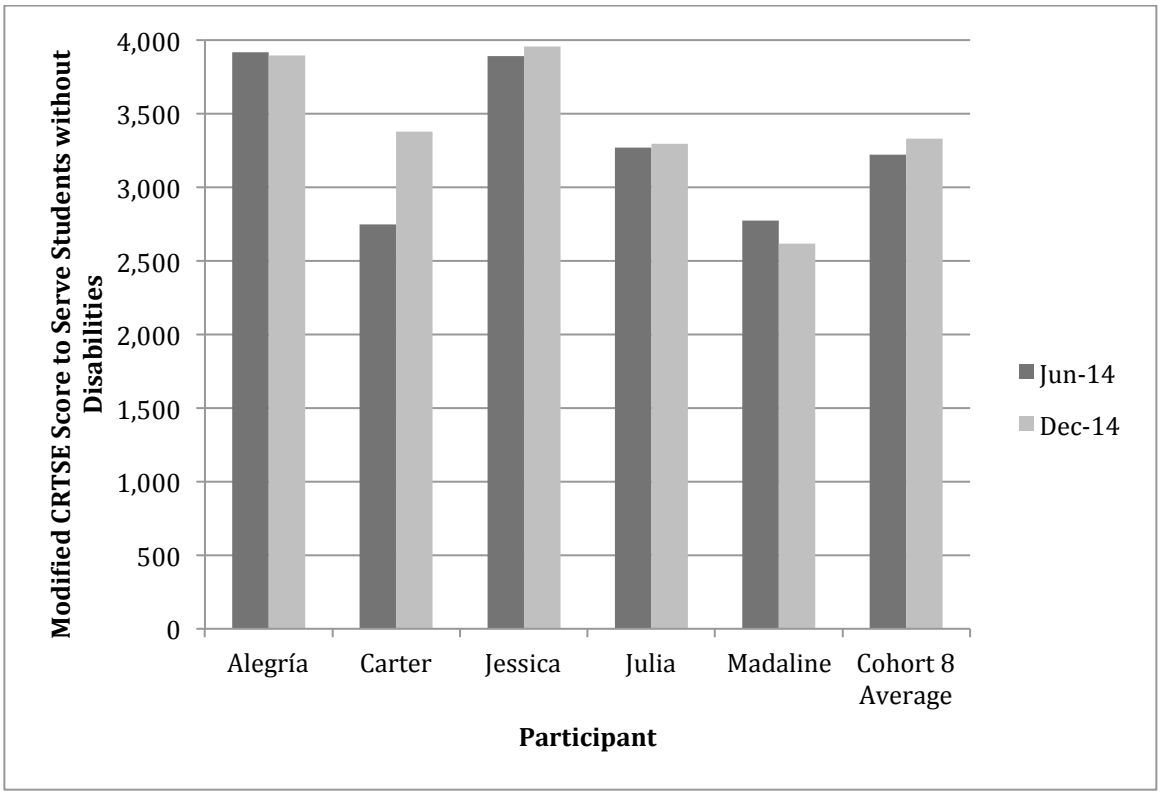


Figure 4.5: Sample's Self-Efficacy to Serve Diverse Students Without Disabilities

At this junction, Chapter 4 explores this dissertation's second research question: *How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?* The next part of chapter features the sample's explanations of how their self-efficacy beliefs had changed. As noted in Chapter 3, the researcher privileged the interviews over the other qualitative artifacts (supervisor observation prompts, lesson plans, reflective journal entries, internship activity assignments, and the final reflection papers for EDC 331) because the interviews required less inferential reasoning (Marshall

& Rossman, 2011) and were designed to more closely aligned with the dissertation's second research question.

The researcher followed Marshall and Rossman's (2011) seven phases to analyze and interpret qualitative, starting with the interviews first. The seven phases are: (a) organize the data, (b) immerse in the data, (c) generate categories and themes, (d) code the data, (e) offer interpretations through analytic memos, (f) search for alternative understandings, and (g) write the reports for presenting the study. He began the seven phases only after he collected all of the data at the end of January 2015. He used inductive reasoning to guide his analyses, moving from the specific to the more general. Using inductive reasoning, the researcher generated categories and themes from the raw data which could be best used to address this study's second research question to best understand the sample's answer to his research question. The researcher sought how the PSTs explained any changes in their beliefs and how/if they related to any of the four sources of information (performance accomplishment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological state; Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influence self-efficacy. Now, this section of the chapter returns to the participants: Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline.

Alegría

Alegría spent her first internship in an inclusive, dual language, second grade classroom in Cannon Elementary. According to her first internship activity assignment[21] her students were majority Hispanic (16/19 students) and female (11/19 students), whose first language was Spanish (11/19 students). Within this class, a few of the students had also been previously identified as gifted and talented (GT; 2/19 students, or were currently being considered as candidates for receiving special education services (4/19 students). Her cooperating teacher (CT) was an African-American female who taught in English and Spanish using the dual language model adopted by Cannon. In sum, Alegría interned in a highly culturally and linguistically diverse classroom and as a Hispanic, multilingual female, she also shared certain cultural and linguistic features with her students.

I learned the importance of being confident in everything that I pursue in life. Alegría wrote about the value she placed on confidence in her final reflection paper for EDC 331. It was also indicative of the way she assessed her self-efficacy on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). She gave herself a cumulative score of 7693 in June 2014 and 7782 in December 2014, showing a slight increase of 1.2%. Her scores put her in the upper quartile among her cohort over both administrations. In fact, in her second time with the scale, she gave herself a score of 80 on only one item and that was the single score that she reported below 90. She rated her capability at 100 – the highest rating, indicative of a culturally responsive teacher action that she was completely certain that she could do when she took the scale – 73.75% of the time (59 times out of a

[21] See APPENDIX O for a full description of the internship activity assignment.

possible 80). Alegría's positioning about "the importance of confidence" was, therefore, reflected in her self-assessment on the scales.

During the 20 min 11 s interview, Alegría chose to discuss the handful of items that she did not score herself as "completely certain." The researcher, therefore, coded the transcription of her interview for: (a) how her self-efficacy changed and (b) sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced her changes. He also consulted the other qualitative artifacts (e.g., her lesson plans) for further evidence and to triangulate any conclusions.

I shouldn't just differentiate my instruction for my students with disabilities. In her individual interview, Alegría first chose to discuss her responses to item 7 on both administrations of the modified CRTSE scales. Item 7 asked respondents to *assess student learning using various types of assessments*. She scored herself with an 81 in her capability to complete this teaching task for diverse students with disabilities and with a 100 for students without disabilities. This changed to a 90 for both diverse students with and without disabilities in December 2014. She shared her reasons why and in her explanations it was clear that she interpreted her scores on the item during the second administration of the scale as marked *decreases*. She arrived at this interpretation despite the fact that for her teaching one of these two groups – students with disabilities – she actually assigned herself a higher score on this item at the end of the semester. She went on to describe how the experience of her internship increased her awareness of what she did not yet understand about the learning needs of her students:

> The biggest thing I learned is that, yes, I am going to be a teacher and I have to differentiate my instruction for my students with disabilities. But, my biggest eye opening [*sic*] was that I shouldn't just differentiate my instruction for my students with disabilities because one of my students in my Intern I experience – the student that needed more behavior support, or [just] more support was actually one of my GT students… and I realized what was going on; he is supposed to be smart. Why is he acting this way? (interview, 1/15/15)

Differentiating her instruction and activating her students' higher order thinking skills were two qualities of teaching that lingered with Alegría: not only in the interview, but also over her final reflection paper. She explained that her two students in her class who were identified as GT also needed the most behavior reinforcements and differentiated instruction from her. Practice shock has been well documented in the research on PSTs and new teachers (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005) and, at times, it can turn into a heightened focus on student behaviors and classroom management (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004). However, this was not necessarily the case with Alegría: She shared that once she learned more about these two students' strengths and personalities that, in fact, "their actions of concern resulted from being bored and not challenged" she adjusted her teaching accordingly. When asked by the researcher whether these two students who were identified as being GT also had disabilities, and might have been identified as twice-exceptional (Prater, Smith, & Yssel, 2010), she said they did not have disabilities.

The researcher asked a clarifying question to find out what led Alegría to make this change and recalibrate how she measured her approach to serving her students who were identified as GT. She responded with a *performance accomplishment* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) source of information that caused her to change her beliefs, and, ultimately, her self-efficacy. Performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) typically occur

when an individual has altered his or her self-efficacy beliefs based on whether he or she had successfully addressed a challenge. In this scenario, her performance accomplishment was when she completed teaching a lesson and was grading her students' worksheets:

> Yeah, I guess it was when we were doing a math problem – like two digits plus one digit. I gave them a worksheet and when I was grading, I knew he [a student who was identified as being GT] could do it because the whole time he was like: "this is easy, are we almost finished?" But, yet when I graded his papers his scores were actually the lowest of them all. (interview, 1/15/15)

Alegría shared another change in her self-efficacy to serve CLD students. This recalibration came from her reflecting on her experiences teaching students who were identified as GT again. In the interview, it was not clear if this was the same student she was describing before, but this particular student was not as strong of a Spanish speaker as he was in English and that actually made him unique to the rest of his peers in the class. Nonetheless, Alegría shared that this student was "one of the smartest students in my class." This student would get mad and have a hard time in the library at the school. Alegría said she would ask him what book he was going to read and he would get mad at her. She reflected that he would get mad and upset during the times when he had to select books to read in Spanish – an expectation that was part of her classroom's dual language model. She did not know until later on in the semester that this was a trigger for this student to display challenging behaviors. Because he was gifted in other areas, he wanted to be perfect in *all* areas, including his ability to read in Spanish. Alegría shared that the student told her, "I don't know how to read Spanish. I can't, I can't!"

She related this event – which she believed to be a failure on her part to develop a strong bond with her students right away – to a slight drop in her self-efficacy score in item 9: *build a sense of trust in my students*. She felt that it took much longer to build trust in students than she originally thought. She cited examples that the student in the library where she had difficulty getting students to open up to her. Her scores dropped from 100 for serving diverse students with and without disabilities to a 90. She shared: "So it made me realize that building trust in your students is not going to be in the beginning [of the school year]. It's not on the first day. It could be on the last day, but you just have to work with them, you know?" Her recalibration of her self-efficacy was related to her firsthand experience, which corresponded to two interrelated sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influence self-efficacy beliefs: (a) *performance accomplishment* and (b) *physiological state*. She expressed slight disappointment, as she shared:

> Before [the internship], I had no idea. I thought everyone's going to be open with me. It was going to be easy. No, it's – I rated my score lower because it's something that I am still learning as a new teacher. (interview, 1/15/15)

When I did my lessons in Spanish, a different group of students were raising their hands. In the discussion about her work with her students identified as being GT, Alegría did not provide information about their racial and or ethnic backgrounds. Given the demographics of her second grade classroom, it's like that these two students were Hispanic, but she did not elaborate. However, when the interview shifted to being about her self-efficacy to serve linguistically diverse students - in particular Spanish-speaking

English language learners – her thinking about planning lessons that were culturally and linguistically responsive became evident.

In her interview and in her second reflective journal entry (see APPENDIX O), it was clear that Alegría took pride in her bilingualism and ethnic identity. In her journal entry, she wrote that she was proud to communicate in two different languages and considered herself "fortunate enough to grow up speaking both English and Spanish." She connected to the educator featured in the vignette (see APPENDIX O) for the reflective journal entry: in a reversal of traditional classroom roles, Alegría's students became her teachers. Her students, she explained, helped her recall phrases in Spanish that were useful in the classroom, which she might have forgotten since she no longer lived in the bilingual-rich environment she grew up in before moved to Sweetbriar.

Since this particular class featured a dual language model for instruction, there were many chances for Alegría to practice teaching in Spanish. Accordingly, her self-efficacy on two items on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) – both of which probed the respondent's efficacy relating to teaching English language learners (ELLs) – either increased or remained very high. On the first of these two items on pre-internship scale, Alegría assigned herself a score of 100 - the highest level of certainty - on her ability to *greet English language learners with a phrase in their native language* for both students with and students without disabilities. On the second item first administration of the scale, she assigned herself a 91 on her capability to *praise English language learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language* for students with and without disabilities. Subsequently, she assigned herself a score of 100 on both items in

the second administration of the scale, representing the highest possible rating. Alegría, herself, was bilingual and shared certain cultural characteristics with her students. Therefore, like the findings from previous research (Kea et al., 2002), it was likely that in-group membership matters to PST participants like Alegría.

Two related trends also emerge from Alegría's adjustment of her self-efficacy scores: one was that she was considering Spanish and Spanish-speaking students in her mental model (Craik, 1943) for ELLs; the other was that her performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977b, 1991) and experience, itself, influenced her change. Alegría described how she changed over the course of the semester on those two scale items:

> Alegría: For *praise English language learners for their accomplishment using phrases in their native language*, I gave myself a 91 because, at first, I was like "praise English language learners" that should be easy. But, I didn't know what that totally meant. But, still I rated myself a 91 because I was an English language learner, so I know how to… commend performance. But, then, after my internship, I rated myself a 100 because I was able to change [my teaching] to be in both English and Spanish. […] So, I was doing a science project on heat energy. In the beginning, I did a review in Spanish just so that I can get it started. But, then I changed to English just so that I made sure we'd reviewed everything in both languages so they [the students] could get the information of what we were going to learn. And then, I – that's when I switched, once I knew that they got it.
>
> Ray: Yes, I think I remember observing that lesson, too. I remember you using that approach for one of the lesson that I observed, too.
>
> Alegría: And through my rating here, um, with different languages, I think I did good [*sic*] and I learned how to praise them – especially for my English language learners. Because the majority of my lessons were in English, but I was able to do the reviews in Spanish and when they didn't get it, when they didn't understanding something,

> I would say it in Spanish to support them. Once they heard it sound [*sic*] in Spanish, they were like: "Okay!" (interview, 1/15/15)

After this, the researcher asked Alegría clarifying questions to see how she was concluding that she was doing well when she was teaching. As she was explaining her changes in self-efficacy working with ELLs, she used an animated tone, suggesting that in addition to her sense of performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977a, 1991), she also experienced certain positive physiological states (excitement) while she was teaching. The questions the researcher asked were:

> Ray: Okay and what led you to make that decision that that [support in Spanish] might have been needed? Was there anything in particular? Was it data? Was it input? Like, what made you kind of know that?
>
> Alegría: Because when I would ask questions, you can tell there are some students who aren't raising their hands. Or, the same students are raising their hands especially, I realized, when I did my lessons in English, this group of students was always raising their hands. But, yet, when I did my lessons in Spanish, a different group of students were raising their hands. So, the opposite groups of students would raise their hands in different subjects. (interview, 1/15/15)

It was relevant to note that since the researcher was also Alegría's university supervisor, he also got to know her as an intern in this classroom setting. In one post-conference he held with Alegría after she taught a lesson in both languages, the CT joined them and shared her beliefs about the benefits of the dual language model in her classroom. She also shared that she appreciated the fact that multiple students speak up, depending on their level of comfort in English or Spanish. So, Alegría's changes in her self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students could also be partially explained through a

vicarious experiences: watching her CT teach, or the verbal persuasion of her CT sharing her beliefs about the benefits to the dual language model. However, none of these links surfaced in the interview, or with the other qualitative data sources.

Carter

Carter spent his first internship in an inclusive, third grade general education classroom in Sycamore Elementary. According to his first internship activity assignment, his students were majority White (15/21 students), female (12/21 students), monolingual English speakers (20/21 students). Among these students in his classroom, four received special education services. Three of these students qualified under the categories of: gifted and talented (GT), emotional/behavior disorders (ED), and/or other health impaired (OHI). One additional student had multiple disabilities that impacted his cognitive development and fine motor skills. Carter's CT was a White female. Although Carter's classroom was significant less culturally and linguistically diverse than Alegría's or Julia's, these demographics were nonetheless representative of the student population served at Sycamore. Despite being a less culturally and linguistically diverse environment, he had more opportunities compared to others in the sample, to practice working with students with different types of disabilities.

I am finally believing them. Toward the end of his final reflection paper for EDC 331, Carter wrote: "I have had many people in the cohort, in my classes, in my placement, and in my home life tell me that I have natural instincts with children. I am finally believing them." His sentiments were also reflected by his increased ratings on

the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007); he rated his efficacy with a cumulative score of 5430 in June and 6741 in December 2014. This represented a 24.1% increase, making him the participant from the sample (n = 5) that gained the most self-efficacy by the end of the semester. His pre-internship score put him in the first quartile amongst Cohort 8, while his post-internship score put him in the second quartile of scores, just below the mean.

At 31 min 46 s, Carter had the second longest lasting interview[22] pertaining to his self-efficacy changes. Carter would often talk about his internship in detail, referring to specific moments without relating them to items on the measure. He also appeared to be quite candid and self-reflective without much prompting by the researcher. Compared to Alegría and Jessica, Carter seldom scored his teaching with a 100 on any item – particularly during the first administration. As before, the researcher coded the transcription of Carter's interview for: (a) how his self-efficacy changed and (b) sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced his changes. The researcher also consulted other qualitative artifacts (e.g., reflective journal) for further evidence to triangulate any findings.

It's all about your relationship with the kids. Carter began reflecting on changes in his perception of what he could do by explaining why he felt that he scored low on the initial scale. He explained that he was feeling "anxious" and "kind of unsure what it was going to be like" because he had not taught before. "I've always been self deprecating," he shared. He also brought up a certain struggle that was only mentioned

[22] Madaline's interview about her self-efficacy changes was the longest.

directly by one other participant, Jessica, in such transparent terms: "I remember going through this internal struggle of 'is this the right major for me; is this what I want to do?'" He was initially considering majoring in musical theater but throughout the course of the interview, he cited ways that he was able to cultivate his theater background with third graders such as through activities such as reading texts in dramatic voices – even considering the students as his "audience". Indeed, he shared many comparisons that showed how he considered his theater background applicable to teaching.

In fact, he rationalized that his theater skills transferred over to the classroom in such a way that made him relatively comfortable in his role as an intern and a general education teacher. He related his experiences as an actor performing in front of audiences to diminishing the feelings of stress that he felt when his CT, university supervisor, or faculty members from the university were observing him teach. He shared:

> When you are really teaching, when you are in the moment, you don't pay attention to the adults around you. It's doesn't become a factor in how well you deliver instruction. It's all about your relationship with the kids. You just have to take it one step at a time. (interview, 1/16/15)

He also likened the building relationship aspect of teaching to a professional responsibility. This resonated with a reflection he shared earlier in the interview on his background working with CLD youth, when he observed what he described as a "detached" teaching approach of a teacher at a charter school in Sweetbriar. The value that he placed on the relationship-building aspect of the teaching profession was also reflected in his assessment of his self-efficacy. Item 20, *develop a personal relationships with my students,* was among the only items where he scored his teaching with a 100 on

the measures. He shared in the interview how he initially did not know his students and how he adapted:

> I had these 21 pairs of eyes looking at me and I am supposed to help shape their future. I don't know anything about these kids. I don't know how J. was raised. I don't know where, you know, T. gets those shoes. I just know that it is my responsibility now to do it, and it is an overwhelming thought. But, once you are in the classroom with those kids and you are making them laugh [and] you are keeping them engaged because you are learning together, it's… everything just kind of falls into place and, I mean, there's some natural instincts that I feel take over. (interview, 1/16/15)

Carter offered several other examples in the interview and in his lesson planning, of his awareness of the value he saw in relationship building. As reported earlier, Carter's classroom featured less cultural and linguistic diversity than the classrooms where several other Intern Is practiced: most of his students were White monolingual English speakers. However, his classroom consisted of four students who were receiving special education services, including one student with multiple disabilities. For all 15 of Carter's lesson plans, he included accommodations for the student with multiple disabilities under the *accommodation prompt* (see APPENDIX N). Carter explained, with a certain degree of animation, about successfully working with another one of his students with disabilities by relating to him over their mutual interest in video games. Carter shared:

> Every time we were doing math, he [the student] would get frustrated […] and I was like "every question you complete is like a new level on our game!" And it was an inside joke between me and him [*sic*] for the longest time. He would constantly level up in our game! (interview, 1/16/15)

It was worth noting that student characteristics beyond disability status were not mentioned or shared with the researcher. It was, therefore, not clear if the students with

disabilities that Carter worked with during the semester were also from CLD communities. Since Carter identified as having two racial and/or ethnic backgrounds and was proficient in at least two languages, he could had been forging his own CRT pathway by making his lessons culturally responsive for predominantly White, monolingual English speaking students. For example, Villegas and Lucas (2002) identified one of the many skills that a socio-culturally conscious teacher possesses is a capability to "navigate through cultural boundaries" that separate the teacher from their students (p. xiv). This could have been an aspect of teaching that he intuited based on his background, life experiences.

Honestly, trial and error was kind of my a-ha moment. Toward the second half of the interview, Carter began to link to specific sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced his self-efficacy beliefs to serve diverse students with and without disabilities. His sense of performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) was one of his chief influences, positively impacting his teaching efficacy. He described the following examples of performance accomplishments from when he taught: (a) reserved students contributing; (b) lead teaching a full day while a substitute teacher was present; (c) students asking *him* questions when they could have gone to other teachers or adults to answer them; and, (d) teaching a highly hands-on lesson and determining that it went smoothly and the learning objectives were met.

He also shared particular examples of sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced his self-efficacy besides performance accomplishments. He noted the following examples of verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977a, 1991): (a) students asking

him to help (i.e., students treating him as their teacher); (b) CT telling him that she wants him to take over the full day of teaching when a substitute was going to be present; (c) CT telling him that she wanted him to "figure things out" and not provide feedback or answers; and (d) "good feedback" from a variety of different sources. Lastly, Carter offered the following examples of vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that influenced his self-efficacy: (a) watching and then using his CT's teaching methods and (b) watching a well-respected fifth grade teacher at Sycamore teach a math lesson, while thinking about how to apply it with his students. To illustrate, Carter said:

> Well, in math I'd seen my CT try something more engaging involving manipulative money and it started off really well for a while and then things got to be a big mess. So from seeing someone else's experience with the students with that, I determined: "Okay, I will try something slightly different because if I try the same thing, it might not work out." But, as far as the math thumbs up/thumbs down thing [that he had seen used in the fifth grade classroom] honestly, trial and error was [*sic*] kind of my a-ha moment. When I did it and it worked [laughs]. (interview, 1/16/15)

I would just have to approach it in a different way. Returning to the topic of culture, Carter's score markedly increased in his belief that he was able to *use examples that are familiar to students from diverse cultural backgrounds*. This was item 35 on the scales; Carter's rating went from 20 (for students with and without disabilities) to a 70 (for both groups of students) on the December administration of the scale. The identical scores to serve students with and without disabilities demonstrated a trend in Carter's reporting: an even assessment of his self-efficacy beliefs to serve diverse students regardless of their disability status.

During the interview, Carter first explained that he tended to give himself the same scores on each item for serving students with disabilities and students without disabilities. In describing his reasoning for this approach he stated: "I think if there was a disability that was related to the content I was teaching, it wouldn't necessarily make it more difficult. I would just have to approach it in a different way." He also shared that he didn't find that relating to students and talking about their cultural backgrounds would be any different if he was teaching students with disabilities or students without disabilities. He continued to describe one student he was thinking about who struggled in writing; because he shared an interest in video games with this student, he used that commonality as a way to bond with the student and encourage him to write, specifically, about video gaming. He believed examples such as this were ways to incorporate his students' background experiences (and, as an extension of it, culture) into the classroom. He did not make the connection that would link background experiences to being part of one's culture explicit, but his thinking on that question suggested that a link that was implied.

Since Carter seldom rated his self-efficacy as 100 (*completely certain*) on any item on the scale before or after he completed his first internship, the researcher used item 35 as an opportunity to explore why:

Ray: So with that one example, how come you didn't go all the way up to an 80 or 90 or even higher? Because you jump quite a bit, or grow quite a bit, but it wasn't all the way to 100.

Carter: Well, the way I feel is that if I can do it once, it doesn't necessarily mean that I can do it for every single student […] The way I would answer a question like that—which is something that is familiar to

> them—is assuming that I can incorporate that [relatable context] for every student. And I don't know if I necessarily could. But I gave myself a 70 because that's a passing score. I can do it on a pretty good basis, but I am not confident in my—if I can give myself a B, that's saying that I am extremely confident. If I gave myself an A that's saying that I am very confident that I can replicate that. (interview, 1/16/15)

In this manner, Carter was showing the discerning way that he: (a) understood the purpose of the scale and (b) interpreted what the gradients within the scale meant to him. His interpretation of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) was different than Alegría and Jessica's interpretations, but similar to Madaline and Julia's. More will be discussed in Chapter 5 about the participants' different mindsets and understandings regarding the scale. For now, the focus of Chapter 4 shifts to Jessica.

Jessica

Jessica spent her first internship in an inclusive, second grade general education classroom in Sycamore Elementary. According to her first internship activity assignment, her students were majority Caucasian (16/21 students), male (12/21 students), monolingual English speakers (20/21 students). Similar to Carter's class, the lack of certain aspects of cultural and linguistic student diversity diminished the opportunities that were available for Jessica to practice certain culturally responsive teaching practices with CLD students. Jessica's CT was a White female. Jessica had three students who had dyslexia, two of whom also had ADHD.

I want a confidence boost. Fairly quickly into the 26 min 44 s interview Jessica explained why she scored herself highly on both administrations of the scale. She likely

did this because the researcher shared with her that she was the member of the cohort with the greatest self-reported teaching efficacy. She explained her mindset going into the first administration: "I want a confidence boost and I think I can do all of these things and I don't doubt myself unless I have proof to do it." Her scores reflected it, too. She scored herself a cumulative 7776 score before her internship and 7919 after, increasing by 1.8%. For both administrations, her scores placed her in the upper quartile and the top scorer in her cohort. Jessica assigned herself a 100 indicating that she was completely certain that she could implement a culturally responsive teacher action on 48/80 items on the pre-measure and 66/80 items on the post-measure. She gave herself only one score of less than 90 once on the pre-measure on her readiness to *adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students with disabilities*. On this item she assigned herself an 80. In sum, like Alegría, Jessica saw an importance to confidence going into the internship and reflected this view in the way that she rated herself. The researcher conducted an interview with Jessica to discuss her self-efficacy scores and changes over the course of her first internship.

I lived it and I loved it. The interview began with Jessica sharing her views about confidence and resiliency in general terms, before going into specifics about her internship. For approximately the first half of the interview, Jessica shared many statements that appeared to be generalities without making any references to her activities, observations, or experiences from her semester at Sycamore. The emphasis on generalities, over specifics, also spilled over in her assessment of her two self-efficacy

measures. This pattern did not continue into the second half of the interview, however. Here was an example from the transcription of the interview from its first few minutes:

> Ray: So, as you go through it [the two measures] I see that you gave yourself a lot of 100's. Is there any area that stood out to you one way or another?
>
> Jessica: Well, I am pretty sure for the 100's it was learning about my students or taking—taking the time to get to know them as a student and as a person. There's no doubt in my mind that I would not do either of those things… because if I ever stopped doing that, then there's no reason for me to be teaching at that time.
>
> Ray: Okay.
>
> Jessica: That would just mean that I would need a break, or something else is wrong in my life that can't be—I can't give it my full; I shouldn't do it at that time because this is… It's 100% in my mind. (interview, 1/23/15)

The "it's 100% in my mind" was largely indicative of the way that Jessica was showing what the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) meant to her. The directions did indicate for the participants to rate how confident they were to achieve each of the 40 items on the scale. It was clear that when Jessica (and Alegría) read the directions, she wanted to put forth her highest level of confidence forward; anything else could signify less than full dedication to the teaching profession. Jessica explained that she felt rating herself on each item was like being a "cheerleader" for her students; wanting to be capable and able to do each of the items for her students.

Following this understanding of the scale, the researcher asked Jessica about an item where she did not initially rate herself completely certain that she would be successful. For item 1 (*adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students)* she rated her

self-efficacy at an 80 for students with disabilities and a 90 for students without disabilities on the pre-internship administration of the modified CRTSE scale. As she explained, it was clear that her answer was in alignment with two of Bandura's (1977a, 1991) sources of information that influence self-efficacy. She shared:

> Yeah, my needs have changed because I hadn't tried it on my own yet. I'd watched it, I'd seen it and I was like "I think I can" because it was the first question [on the scale] and I was being hesitant. I wasn't being confident like I usually like to be in situations. And, ah, I think I was nervous. I was like: "what if I can't do this?" This is going to be my first year to decide what I want […] And my answer [on item 1] changed from 80 to 100. I know that I can do it. I've practiced it, I've tried it, I saw it, I lived it, and I loved it [laugh]. (interview, 1/23/15)

Her explanations of the reasons why her self-efficacy beliefs strengthened aligned with Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *performance accomplishment* and *physiological state* sources of information. Her performance accomplishments through having experienced adapting her instruction to meet the needs of her students (with and without disabilities), led her to recalculate her self-efficacy score higher at the end of her internship. Likewise, she shared a similar physiological state to that which Carter mentioned: the nerves and stress that may come from doing something new such as teaching for the first time. Jessica's responses suggested that she had successfully navigated through any difficult physiological states in order to teach her students, or at least that was what could be interpreted from her explanations and her scores.

One of the pieces that was lacking, however, was any evidence that caused her to recalculate her beliefs or sustain her remarkably high ratings of her self-efficacy. Typically, the other participants provided anecdotes or specific events that took place

during her internship that helped more objectively substantiate the beliefs. Furthermore, according to Jessica's first internship activity assignment her students were from largely homogenous, predominantly White, monolingual English speaking backgrounds. The researcher, who also served as her university supervisor, was aware of this situation. So when they would conference after Jessica taught a lesson, they would often discuss other elements of student diversity (e.g., religion, socioeconomic status, urban/rural differences) as well as what she could do if (or when) she would teach (or intern) in a more ethnically diverse neighborhood in Sweetbriar.

Within small groups they would talk. Over the second half of the interview, however, Jessica described more instances from her internship that helped shaped her self-efficacy beliefs more clearly. It was then that she reflected on her experience interning at Sycamore. She called it "a great experience" with "such a wide range of learners." The range was bigger than she initially thought, she offered. The researcher was curious to find out what led her to come to that conclusion. Jessica explained, "I think it was one-on-one with different kids, getting to know them. […] Once I talked to them, I realized they all are at different levels just for communication [*sic*]."

Relatedly, Jessica designed at least two of her lesson plans to teach a small group of students. There were a variety of reasons why she and her CT made the decision for her to teach a few of her students in a small group setting that were beyond the scope of the study, but it was important to note that implementing teaching lessons to small groups of lessons, in lieu of the whole group, was not an EDC 331 course expectation and would not typically count towards the 15 lessons that the Intern Is were to plan and deliver over

the course of the internship. Nonetheless, Jessica got practice teaching students in a small group setting and administering progress monitoring tests to them. Jessica said that this experience was valuable to her because she could see the range of abilities of her students more clearly in the small group settings. Typically, the CT would assign the 2-3 students who had dyslexia or ADHD to work with Jessica, making up her typical small group setting. Jessica related that experience with her higher self-efficacy rating on item 1 at the end of her internship. She shared that she could see students' learning needs emerge when she worked with them in the small group setting because "within small groups they would talk" allowing her to more fully grasp their unique learning because the students had her undivided attention.

It was from watching how my CT did it. Because of the value Jessica said that she placed on confidence, the researcher was curious what led her to recalibrate item 10 lower on the second scale, which probed the respondents to assess their ability to *establish positive home-school relations*. On the item, pre-internship scores were identical for both students with and without disabilities (94/94). Each measure, however, dropped by 4 points during the second administration to 90/90. Her answer revealed one of only a handful of examples when participants from the sample lowered their own self-efficacy ratings because of a negative *vicarious experience* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991): when the PST observed his or her CT struggle to meet a particular teaching competency.

Logically, it follows that if a PST observes his or her CT execute a teaching practice successfully, the PST could potentially have a model for him or her to feature. When the reverse of this pattern happens, the learning becomes equally valuable, but

trickier to execute in the context of the internship. More on this pattern will be explored in Chapter 5. In the meantime, Jessica illustrated her experiences:

> [Reading item 10] Oh. I think the only reason that was a hard one was because that's like not from my own experience, it was from watching how my CT did it and she still struggled with it and she had been teaching for x amount of years… and it was still something that… it's something new every year. It's like you don't get to practice with the same people. You have like a few months of the—or, I guess a month, really, to like—you want to have that solid relationship by then. (interview, 1/23/15)

It was not immediately clear what led Jessica to conclude that teachers needed to have positive home-school relationships within the first month of school, or how she believed that her CT struggled in that area. However, her assessment of the situation was impactful enough to have led her to lower her self-efficacy ratings, if only very modestly, on that item. Also, since all members of Cohort 8 began interning with their CTs the first week of the school year they would (at the very least) get glimpses into how experienced teachers set up their classrooms, teach their students the routines, and interact with parents/guardians of their new students who were likely visiting the classroom for the first time. It would be worthwhile to follow up with Jessica to see if her thinking on this item changed with more time and practice, but it was beyond the scope of this study.

Julia

Julia spent her first internship in a bilingual (English/Spanish) inclusive fourth grade classroom in Cannon Elementary. According to her first internship activity assignment, all 21 of her students were Hispanic and native Spanish speakers. Just over

half of the students were males (11/21 students). There was also one student that recently immigrated from El Salvador and was "just beginning to learn English."

Julia (and Madaline) provided the most detailed reports about their learners with disabilities compared to the rest of the sample. Julia indicated that she had eight students who were identified as "special needs or at-risk." The majority of her students were considered at-risk for needing special education services in language arts or math, while one student was at-risk in language arts and math. Lastly, Julia reported that one student had spina bifida and scoliosis. She did not report whether this student needed any academic accommodations. Julia's CT was a Caucasian male who was bilingual in English and Spanish. In sum, Julia interned in a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom and as a Hispanic female who was proficient Spanish speaker, she also shared certain cultural and linguistic features with her students.

It really does take a lot of work. Among the sample, Julia (and Madaline) were the only two participants whose cumulative self-efficacy to serve CLD students dropped by the second administration of the scale. Julia assigned herself a total score of 6545 in June and 6539 in December representing a very slight decline of 0.09%. However, given that members of Cohort 8 on average increased their ratings by 5.3%, Julia went from being just above the median to just below it. In June, her scores were above the mean cumulative scores from Cohort 8; in contrast, by December she was just below them. Interestingly, her self-efficacy increased in her readiness to serve CLD students without disabilities (3270 to 3298), while slipping in terms of efficacy to serve diverse students with disabilities (3275 to 3241).

The researcher conducted an interview with Julia that lasted 17 min 2 seconds. Thematically, the researcher became aware that Julia was quite cognizant of the amount of work, effort, and time that were required to be an effective educator. The work involved in being an effective educator was touched on numerous times within the interview; she mentioned the words *effort* or *difficult* over 9 different times. Her sentiments regarding her first internship seemed to have influenced her self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students with and without disabilities. It was a connection that was not lost on her; in fact, she came to those conclusions herself. As an example, regarding her modest drop in scores from 90/91 to 80/80 on item 2 (*obtain information about my students' academic strengths),* she shared:

> I don't know why before actually doing this internship that I thought I would be better at it because I'd come to find that it is more nuanced. And so after the internship, I definitely rated myself a little bit lower… mostly just because figuring it out [item 2] is more difficult than I anticipated. (interview, 1/19/15)

The researcher had been working as the university supervisor supporting Julia throughout her internship. He knew that she also could be self-critical at times and had, in fact, brought several years of background experiences working in diverse educational settings, serving students with disabilities. So many of the decisions that she was making in her internship must also have been reflective of her earlier practices. The researcher was not surprised that Julia thought she could execute several of the teaching items from the scale before the semester because she had practiced several of them in her early childhood education settings. Her measures, both pre- and post-internship, were therefore grounded not only by the knowledge she was obtaining from the university

coursework, but also from her clinical, work experiences with CLD youth before moving to Sweetbriar. Furthermore, in her late-twenties, she was among the oldest and most experienced PSTs within Cohort 8.

Julia cited another item on the scale that was indicative of a drop in her self-efficacy and her thinking behind how her scores changed. She brought up item 17 (*teach students about their cultures' contributions to science)*. To contextualize the practice of teaching students about their cultures' contributions to science, she taught in a bilingual fourth grade classroom that served 100% Hispanic students who were identified at Cannon as benefitting from instruction in Spanish and English. Therefore, Julia would likely be considering examples of contributions made by Hispanic, or perhaps Mexican or Mexican-American, scientists. Clearly, this was possible. Her self-efficacy ratings pertaining to item 17 dropped from a 92 to serve students with and without disabilities to a 49. She explained this decrease in a way that illustrated the balancing act of being a successful member of Cohort 8 (passing four courses and interning for two full days a week). Clearly, there were certain limits as to how much the Intern Is could get done within this context. She explained:

> That's tough to really know what that person's culture or what some cultures have done towards [*sic*] science. That's a lot of extra work that you are doing in addition to what was normally happening n the classroom. […] I did think it would be very easy to do—very doable. And then, looking back at the lessons that I wrote, I didn't mention or even think about some of the cultural contributions and I know that it wasn't on the radar, but, again, that's something that we talk about that's an important piece of teaching students, CLD students […] It took so much effort in writing that whole lesson [plan] and then going back to add in, like, contributions to science. I will do that, but I feel that it is something that is going to take time and I need to get, like, the lesson planning

down and then it kind of comes with it. I know there will be places to add it in, but I know it's a little more difficult than I thought. (interview, 1/19/15)

They want to hear about their kids. On a different topic, Julia increased in her self-efficacy in nearly all of the scale items that pertained to a teacher building a relationship and trust with his or her students, similar to Carter. Julia was also among the members of Cohort 8 who increased in their self-efficacy beliefs to engage and collaborate with parents. Specifically, with item 25 (*structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents)* she increased from a 71 (with disabilities) and 70 (without disabilities) to a 92/92 (with and without disabilities). In the interview, she credited her CT as a positive influence for her increase, thereby providing an example of Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *vicarious experience* source of information.

Ray: What led you to come to the conclusion that this [item 25] is something that you can do? What led to that change, because that was substantial growth?

Julia: Definitely. I mean, even just the first Meet the Teacher Night that I did, when I had just met my CT and then just talking to the parents from the first day… and initially I was a little hesitant to do it because it's not really my classroom […] but beginning to talk to parents a bit more during pick-up and they're so, I mean, they want to hear about their kids! Everybody does. So, I found myself getting more confident about it. (interview, 1/19/15)

Later, Julia added:

I think watching my CT lead so many conferences and have such a good relationship with his parents and the little things that he did, such as: he didn't give them like a time limit, like you can only call the school phone from these hours because so many parents were working and he was really great about

> picking up the phone and he knew, too… it would ring and he'd say: "It's so and so's mom." And he was right on the money! (interview, 1/19/15)

These transcriptions from Julia's interview provide examples of Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *vicarious experience* by observing her CT's interactions with his students' parents and *performance accomplishments* by virtue of her own engagement with the parents during pick-up time at Cannon, which she determined were successfully accomplished. Accordingly, she became less "hesitant". Julia had mentioned she was fluent in English and proficient in Spanish, but she did not indicate which language she used to communicate with the parents/guardians. Given the demographic makeup of her students at her internship site and the demographic makeup of the students she served at Head Start when she worked with her mother, there were likely similarities that might have also led her to recalculate her self-efficacy scores higher.

Doing things that are not best practice because they are easy. Julia's responses during the interview suggested that she was considering events in her internship with rich details and specificity that contrasted with Jessica, who considered her experiences much more globally and generally. Given Julia's 6-plus years of experience working with students from CLD communities with and without disabilities, comparisons across experiences seemed natural. She explained that her work in the other early childhood settings prepared her to lead young children, but she believed that what she was doing this semester was different because, as a teacher, she was responsible for "tracking information" and delivering "rigorous instruction". She felt that her prior experiences lacked "rigor" – a word she used more than once – but she thought that her

prior work did prepare her to comfortably execute certain classroom management tasks, such as implementing a reward system for positive student-learning behaviors. In a way, she was also critical of what she had done or observed happening at Advancement House where she worked before enrolling at the university. Some of these factors likely also influenced her self-efficacy beliefs. She offered:

> I just felt like I am not as strong as I might have originally thought. I think that's a big part of it. Having had a lot of experience, I think it can be ingrained, like: "Okay, I've got this. I am going to make little tweaks and this will work out." And then it doesn't… I mean it's different. It's a lot different and the truth is I do have some bad habits that have kind of become ingrained because I've worked for so long, you know, in daycare in a for-profit setting, doing things that are not best practice because they are easy. (interview, 1/19/15)

The researcher also sought out evidence from the other data sources he had collected to see how Julia's self-efficacy to serve diverse students had changed over the fall semester. Julia regularly reported accommodations that she provided in her lessons to students who either had disabilities or were at-risk (see APPENDIX N). Her CT had two students come in from Cannon's Functional Life Skills (FLS) classroom for inclusion for certain periods of the day and Julia included these students in her lesson planning for the lessons when they were present. She also included her bilingual students within her lesson plans under the accommodation section. She wrote that she would feature the following accommodations: (a) provide the students with the option to record their thoughts in the language of their choosing, (b) provide written instructions in English and Spanish, (c) provide the option for the students to write sentences in English or Spanish, and (d) ask students questions in both languages. In this way, she was exemplifying how

she was considering both the process and the product of student learning for her bilingual students.

Curiously, her scores declined in her measure of self-efficacy to capably execute two of the scale items pertaining to CRT actions that were supportive of ELLs (items 18 and 19; see APPENDIX I). The sum of her scores on these two items increased from 377 in June to 306 in December, indicating a 23.3% decline. The researcher did not have the opportunity to explore the reasons why or how this change occurred. It was possible that Julia was considering additional ELLs beyond just Spanish-speaking students similar to the way that Carter had done. Or, it could be that she felt that she did not experience a sufficient amount of *performance accomplishments* or *vicarious experiences* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) to indicate that she felt she was growing in this area. It would be worthwhile to follow up with Julia to see what led to these changes, specially, as she was interning in a bilingual classroom that served students whose first language was Spanish.

Madaline

Madaline's first internship was in an inclusive third grade general education classroom at Sycamore Elementary School. According to her first internship activity assignment, the majority of her students were Caucasian (16/21 students), female (11/21 students), monolingual English speakers (21/21 students). The ethnic and linguistic backgrounds of her students reflected the make up of the other two classrooms at Sycamore that were featured in this study. Madaline's CT was a White female.

Like Julia, Madaline reported on her students with special needs and their accommodations in detail. She taught students whom qualified to receive special education services or were being recommended and monitored for services (4/21 students). Specifically, she served one student who had dyslexia and three others who might qualify, who received one-on-one supports and/or small group re-teaching. In sum, like Carter and Jessica, the lack of certain cultural and linguistic diversity within Madaline's internship diminished the number of opportunities available for her to practice. However, she gained experience over the course of this field experience, working with students with disabilities and giving differentiated instruction.

There is so much room to grow. Madaline took a different approach to assessing her self-efficacy than either Jessica or Alegría. She saw assessing her self-efficacy as an opportunity to be humble and self-reflective: the scale items signifying areas for her to grow and become a stronger teacher. Her scores dropped by the second administration. She assigned herself a cumulative score of 5557 in June and 5324 in December, representing a decline of 4.2% and remaining in the lower quartile of scores amongst Cohort 8. Her post-internship scores ranged from 40 – 94 and she assigned herself a score > 50 a total of 4 times. So, while her scores were relatively "low" it became particularly important to conduct the interview and to examine the other qualitative data sources to seek explanations, patterns, and trends.

The researcher conducted a 38 min long interview with Madaline to discuss her changes in self-efficacy to serve CLD students with and without disabilities. When Madaline discovered that her cumulative scores declined, she shared "because after

actually being in a classroom for a semester, I realized how hard it is." Looking at the experience teaching in general education more broadly, she offered:

> I feel like overall, the experience taught me to reflect more and, like, humble myself as a teacher. There is so much room to grow and to be stronger. I have this idea of being a strong teacher when in reality that it is so hard and this semester just showed me how hard it is and how overwhelming it can be. (interview, 1/23/15)

The themes and overall tone offered in her explanations, however, did not suggest defeat or resignation. He found that Madaline: highly valued her relationships (and the process of relationship-building) with her students; remained very curious as to how to become a more culturally responsive teacher; and, actively assessed her sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) in order to become quite grounded, even comfortable, with the professional learning curve that was ahead of her.

Many of my students were vegetarians. For her final reflection paper for EDC 331, Madaline began by indicating the importance she placed on creating relationships with her students. She offered that teachers needed to know whom the students were in order to effectively teach them. She included herself amongst the teachers, often using "we" in her writing. She credited her university coursework for informing her cohort that teachers need to know their students in order to "give them what they need" and by being in the field experience every week it helped her "understand what that actually meant" (final reflection paper, 12/8/14).

Some of her reflections were evocative of the vignette assigned to the PSTs to read for one of their reflective journal entries (Kalyanpur & Harry, 2012; see APPENDIX O) that featured the story of a special educator who came from a different cultural

background than her student, and had to rely on her student to "teach" her how to order a meal at a fast food restaurant. Similarly, Madaline shared that teaching was a two-way street. For example, she wrote: "I learned that they [her students] were vegetarian, so I let them teach me what vegetarians eat." She indicated that as her conversations with her students continued, their trust in her as a teacher did as well and as a result her students saw her as knowledgeable and as a teacher who cared for each of them as a person. Similar to other members of the sample, her self-efficacy scores on items that pertained to building trust and relationships with her students were the highest. Specifically, her cumulative scores on item 20 and 32 (see APPENDIX I) went from 366 to 370. Madaline felt that these qualities of being an effective teacher were something that "came more naturally [to her] than the other stuff" (interview, 1/23/15).

For further evidence as to how Madaline valued her relationships with her students, she recalculated her self-efficacy scores on item 18 (*teach students about their cultures' contribution to science*) from a 34/35 for diverse students with and without disabilities to a 70/70. She took a different approach to estimating her post-scores than Julia who declined her score on this item. Madaline mentioned that her students essentially helped her believe that she could teach them science content. Regarding the increase, she shared:

> Well, I think one event [that influenced the increase] was when the students wrote me their *Goodbye Book*. Almost all of them said something about science and how they'd love science and how they saw that I loved science. So I thought that was really funny and that made my confidence in science with them [sic] higher and made me love it even more and [be] even more excited to teach it! (interview, 1/23/15)

The response she provided did not address how she understood adding diverse cultural contributions to science. Instead, the link was understood in the following ways: When Madaline felt more confident teaching a particular subject, she felt it would have an influence on her readiness to pull in different cultural contributions to the content. Conversely, she explained: "I feel like when I am not confident in a subject, I feel like I would be more timid and not [think] outside of box of the lesson." So, in this sense, her students' affect and positive feedback also increased her self-efficacy beliefs about her capability to implement certain items on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). Students' feedback became a *verbal persuasion* and *performance experience* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) source of information, strengthening her self-efficacy.

For her items where her scores dropped, Madaline offered explanations that all originated to the fact that she had not had much practice yet. For example, she shared that she was still actively working with what it meant to be an authority figure in her classroom. Her CT certainly led by example when it came to classroom management; an observation also shared by the researcher when he served as her university supervisor. Nonetheless, Madaline reported that she struggled a bit with being firm with her students while not being "mean". She wanted to continue to be a "happy intern-teacher", which seemed in conflict with how she projected being a firm teacher. Alegría and Carter shared a bit of their growth as teacher-as-a-classroom-managers during the interview stage of the study, but Madaline was the only one to address it in such clear terms. Prior research has found that PSTs often over-focus on student behaviors and behavior management as a result of the practice shock they might be experiencing when teaching

for the first time (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005; Achinstein & Barrett, 2004). And, if paired with a particularly strong CT, PSTs' tacit images of "good teaching" often emerge from the field experience practice (Koerner et al., 2002). Madaline offered an activity that could have completed over the course of her field experience that would have helped her strengthen her self-efficacy beliefs. It will be shared in Chapter 5.

I have no idea how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics. Another pattern that emerged in the interview was that Madaline had a well-articulated grasp on what she would still like to see and do in order to become more familiar with CRT. For example, she indicated that she would like to set aside "weeks" to study a certain culture "even if it's not the students' cultures" in order to build a "positive classroom culture in the classroom" (interview, 1/23/15). Interestingly, she was switching among different definitions of culture around this point in the interview, including her students' cultural groups and backgrounds, as well as *classroom culture* to refer to a certain pattern of interactions and behaviors within the classroom that are supportive of student learning and relationship building. It was also a switch that the university supervisor made with Madaline and few other PSTs, particularly the Intern Is who were teaching at Sycamore Elementary, in order to support them to move away from "associating culture with being non-White to understanding culture as the context in which we [all] operate (García & Guerra, 2006)" (García, 2012, p. 157).

Regarding item 25 on the scale (*structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents*), Madaline offered that she would like to see what that would actually look like because, as an Intern I, she felt intimidated by parents.

Accordingly, her self-efficacy dropped from a 74 for diverse parents of students with and without disabilities to a 60. Feelings of intimidation are also an example of Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *physiological states* sources of information that impact an assessment of one's self-efficacy. It also was not clear if her CT was giving her opportunities to observe or interact with parents, although attending parent-teacher conferences was listed among the expectations for the field experience according to the syllabus for EDC 331 (see APPENDIX H). Other participants, such as Jessica, also cited this item as an area where they remained relatively low scoring on the scales.

Madaline's explanations of her changes to her self-efficacy scores on several other scale items suggested specific areas where she still felt underprepared as an Intern I. In a manner that was unique compared to the other participants in the sample, Madaline was able to articulate what she needed and what she remained curious about in order to grow professionally into a more self-efficacious culturally responsive educator. To explain her drop on item 29 (*design a lesson about how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics*) she offered that the drop occurred because she "had no idea how other cultural groups *have* [italics added] made use of mathematics."

Another item that Madaline shared that she would like more clarity was on effectively educating ELLs and other linguistically diverse students. In the background interview, she identified as being a monolingual English speaker and in her final reflection paper for EDC 331, she shared that she believed she would be a more successful teacher if she spoke the native language of her students, which suggests that she might be feeling some conflict. It was not clear where she developed the idea that a

linguistically responsive teacher must also speak the diverse languages of his or her students. Her CT was also a monolingual English speaker, so it likely did not come from her, nor was this a practice shared to her by her university supervisor or faculty members from her TPP. Nonetheless, a question lingered with her: "If it is not necessary [to speak the languages of the English language learners in the classroom], then how do I teach a student English if I cannot understand what they are [*sic*] saying?" (final reflection paper, 12/8/14). She was particularly interested in addressing this question because she shared that she would like to earn her English as a Second Language (ESL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) certifications and was considering teaching in the U.S. and abroad. In short, Madaline completed the semester with many new questions and through the interview implied a careful and nuanced consideration of each scale item. In this way, it was not entirely surprising that her self-efficacy scores also declined.

It would certainly be of value to not only follow up with Madaline about her questions in order to support her in the short-term and long-term, but also for the members of the TPP to consider providing her feedback as a way to refine some assignments, supports, and training to support PSTs like her more broadly. More on these topics will be covered in Chapter 5. For now, the focus of Chapter 4 shifts to the summary of findings for each research question and emerging themes from this dissertation study.

SUMMARY

This summary section provides the findings of the dissertation's two research questions and synthesizes the information to develop new, emerging themes. To review, the study used a non-experimental, mixed methods research design. To answer his two research questions, the researcher gathered data from the following sources from his stratified random sample (n = 5) of preservice special education teachers: (a) two administrations of a modified version of Siwatu's (2007) CRTSE, (b) supervisor debriefing prompts, (c) lesson plans, (d) reflective journal entries, (e) internship activity assignments, (f) final reflection papers, and (g) individual, semi-structured interviews. Descriptive statistics, paired t-tests for statistical significance, and qualitative data were featured to analyze the participants' responses.

Research Question 1

The study's first research question was: *Do preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach CLD learners with and without disabilities change after they have completed their first field experience, as measured by the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007)?* The short answer to the question was, yes: indeed, the members of Cohort 8 indicated that their self-efficacy beliefs changed. However, none of the changes between the two administrations were statistically significant at the $p < .05$.

Across the 80-item scale (40 teacher activities with two separate answers: one to consider CLD students with disabilities, the other without disabilities), the cohort (N = 24) began with a mean cumulative score of 6417.42 (M = 6417.42, SD = 825.99, Mdn = 6377.00). The respondents' scores ranged from 4905 to 7776. By the end of the

semester, the cohort (N = 23)[23] recorded a mean cumulative score of 6757.78 (M = 6757.78, SD = 950.53, Mdn = 6931.00). The cumulative scores reported by the members of Cohort 8 increased, on average, by 5.3%, and reached statistics significance at the p = .2025 level. Per respondent, the percent changes of their scores ranged from -30.9% to +36.2% (M = 6.56, SD = 16.85). So, while the participants expressed a net increase in their self-efficacy scores, on average, on the individual participant level there was a range of different perceptions about these first internship experiences. Some PSTs expressed an increase in their self-efficacy scores to serve CLD students with and without disabilities (n = 13), some declined (n = 10). Nonetheless, to answer the researcher's first question: Yes, most likely the PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs in serving CLD students with and without disabilities changed by the end of the first semester. No single participant reported the same cumulative score over the two administrations of the scale. Illustration of the changes are displayed in Figure 4.6:

[23] One member of Cohort 8 changed majors early into the fall semester and therefore did not complete the field experience and the post-internship scale.

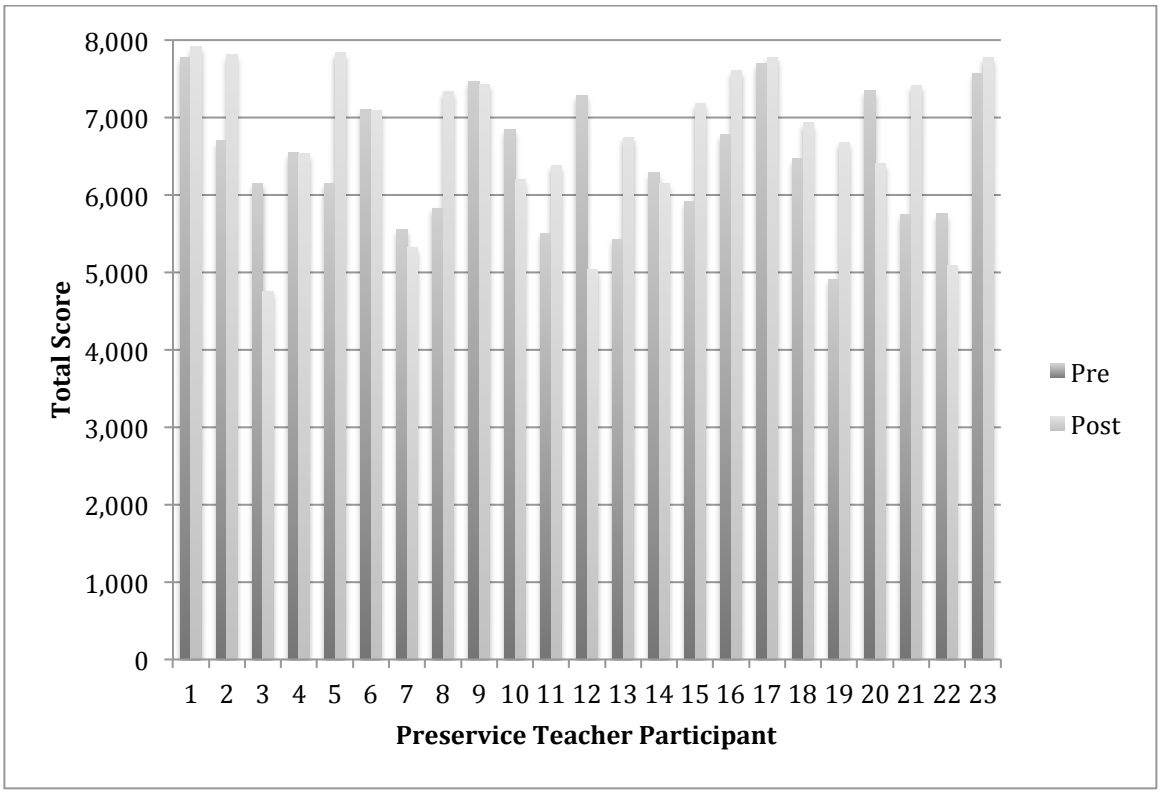


Figure 4.6: Cumulative Self-Efficacy Scores Reported by Intern Is, Cohort 8

Pertaining to the researcher's sample, after the first administration of the scale, the researcher selected his stratified random sample (n = 5) to address his second research question. Two participants were selected from the upper and lower quartiles, while one was selected near the mean and median. One additional PST from each quartile (n = 3) was also selected to over-sample in the event that any original participant withdrew from the study. However, each initially chosen participant completed the study so the members of the over-sample were no longer needed to answer the researcher's second research question. Each of these participants (n = 5) also expressed that they changed in their self-efficacy beliefs after they had completed their first field experience. Three

participants from the sample expressed an increase in their self-efficacy beliefs; two expressed a decline. More will be explored in the next subsection of the chapter.

Research Question 2

The study's second research question was: *How do preservice special education teachers describe their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience?* To answer this question, the researcher conducted interviews with each participant from the sample (n = 5) and analyzed a variety of qualitative sources of data from the university course most closely affiliated with the field experience component of the semester (EDC 331). Given the nature of this research question, each participant explained his or her different trajectory over the semester in his or her own way. The answer to this second research question will be explored in two ways: (a) how an increase in self-efficacy scores was explained, and (b) how a decrease in self-efficacy scores was explained.

Increasing self-efficacy descriptions. More than half of the Intern Is (n = 13) and the stratified random sample (n = 3) expressed a cumulative increase in their self-efficacy by the end of their first field experience. The most common reason given for the increase fits under Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *performance accomplishmen*t source of information. Each of the five participants offered evidence that suggested that through practicing the act of teaching in a realistic setting (the CT's classroom) that, essentially, they were better able to calculate their self-efficacy to accomplish a variety of teaching tasks. Carter and Alegría, for example, discussed the nerves and anxiety associated with

encountering a new task, but through the practice, they recalculated their beliefs to confidently perform CRT items higher than when they started. In Bandura's (1977a) examples of performance accomplishments discussed in Chapter 2, overcoming taxing emotions and physiological states were connected to *performance desensitization* and *performance exposure*. Through practice (exposure), combined with support and perceived success, the effects of failure were diminished and self-efficacy was generalized to other new situations. The evidence of this outcome was clearly illustrated by Carter's marked increased in his score (+24.1%) as well as the outlooks explained by Alegría and Jessica.

Even if the success was not necessarily substantiated by other sources of data, such as students' grades, some participants used the scale, itself, as a way to exude, project, or express confidence in their abilities to apply CRT. Alegría and Jessica provided clear evidence of this pattern in the way that the expressed their mindsets as completed the scale. Both participants wanted to set the bar high for themselves and not underestimate what they could do at the time when they completed the scales. Jessica said that she saw each item on the scale as an opportunity to be "a cheerleader for her students" (interview, 1/23/15) and anything less than 100% would cause her to question her intent for teaching or majoring in special education. Alegría was able to more lucidly connect her self-efficacy increase to actual experiences (performance accomplishments) that she perceived as successes, in particular with her work with ELLs and students who were identified as GT. Curiously, when Jessica began to describe some of the specific examples from her classroom setting, she expressed a handful of instances that could

have suggested lowered self-efficacy. An example of this would be when she expressed a *vicarious experience* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) she had from observing her CT have some difficulty establishing positive home-school relations with some parents/caregivers. But, some of the challenges she experienced in her first field experience were not indicated by any substantial decreased on her self-ratings on the two administrations of the modified CRTSE.

Relationship building. Many participants also expressed that because they felt successful at building relationships with students in their internships, their self-efficacy on certain items on the scale increased. This pattern related to Bandura's (1977a, 1991) *verbal persuasion* source of information that influences self-efficacy. For example, Carter and Madaline expressed that through getting to know their learners individually and building meaningful personal connections with each of them, it helped their students: (a) see them as teachers and (b) see that they cared and valued them. As a result, Carter and Madaline illustrated how they were actually sought out by their students to teach lessons. The students expressed enjoying the unique qualities that Carter and Madaline featured when they taught their lessons, such as Carter's use of dramatic voices when he was reading a story or Madaline's passion for science content when she felt that she could think outside of the box and deviate away from her lesson plan. In this manner, Madaline and Carter's students verbally (socially) persuaded each of them into fulfilling the teacher role necessary for them to complete their field experience requirements. Because of the positive feedback they were receiving from their students, their own self-efficacy to accomplish certain aspects of teaching also increased.

Julia expressed aspects of relationship building with her students' parents/caregivers. Her relative ease in communicating with the parents/caregivers set her apart from the other four participants. At least two of the participants (Madaline and Jessica) expressed certain reservations to capably collaborate with parents/caregivers, in part because they might not have had sufficient modeling and practice to this aspect of teaching. Given Julia's background experiences of working for at least 6 years in other educational settings, it was likely that Julia started the semester with well-developed schemata (Piaget, 1923/1926) as to what collaboration with parents/caregivers would look like, in particular in CLD settings. Therefore, her scores on the items pertaining to partnering with parents/caregivers on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) increased over the course of the fall semester and were likely well-grounded by her clinical practice.

Decreasing self-efficacy descriptions. In December, some members of Cohort 8 (n = 10) and of the stratified random sample (n = 2) expressing decreasing cumulative self-efficacy beliefs about their ability to capably serve CLD learners with and without disabilities. Certain patterns emerged to explain this trend. They included: (a) an awareness of the amount of work involved in teaching; (b) a perception that many of the scale items would be considered above and beyond what was expected to fulfill any of the university courses' expectations; and, (c) an opportunity to use the scale as a chance to express the desire for future learning and professional development. Each of these patterns will be explored next.

Although all members of the sample expressed an understanding of the complex work that goes into teaching, the researcher thought that perhaps only some of their

scores reflected it. Madaline and Julia both expressed some doubt as to why they scored their self-efficacy the way that they did in June, both often suggested that they could not remember why because they took it such a long time ago. They also indicated that their scores in December were more informed and grounded by a more complete understanding of the amount of work and planning that is involved in being an effective teacher. The complexity of teaching and the uniqueness of the students, individually, seemed to also be a reason why Carter refrained from scoring himself a 100 (*completely certain*) on most items. It was also possible that certain *physiological states* (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) could be implied in their responses, which included "how hard it is" to execute certain teaching tasks and how potentially "overwhelming" it can be. More on this topic will be saved for the next chapter.

In Julia's explanations why her self-efficacy beliefs decreased to capably teach students about their cultures' contributions to science, she provided information that could be used for possible retuning of the TPP itself. She saw value to teaching her students about their cultures' contribution to science, but thought it was something additional she could include in her teaching repertoire only after she had gained more practice. Due to the nature of the feedback she had been receiving to improve her lesson plans in science and the amount of time she had to make revisions to her lesson plans before she implemented them, she did not see this particular item as something that should be front and center, so she interpreted it as something extra she could add to her repertoire at a future date. She also expressed that she knew it was something that she should do, but determined that the item represented something that would take a lot of

extra work to develop given her current stage as an Intern I. Accordingly, her self-efficacy on this item and a few others similar to it dropped.

Madaline, Julia, and Carter each expressed how they viewed many of the items on the scale as areas where they would like to continue to grow. Madaline, in particular, expressed that she assigned herself some lower ratings because while she could see the utility in implementing many of the items she knew that she was not currently featuring all of them. For a few of the items (such as item 22: *Praise English language learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language*) she expressed how she would like to create a whole unit in her curriculum that explores these types of phrases across a variety of different languages and cultures, essentially using the item as a spring board for ideas in her future teaching. Some of the participants (Jessica and Madaline, for example) also changed the scores they assigned to their teaching abilities for a few items because they either did not have a clear model of what the practice would look like (such as *establishing positive home-school relations*) or they expressed a need for some support to more fully illustrate a practice (*designing lessons that show how other cultural groups have made use of math*). Clearly, this information is helpful for members of the teacher preparation program (TPP) in order to identify areas to support their PSTs.

Emerging Themes

It was clear that each participant from the cohort assumed a slightly different approach to assessing his or her self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with and without

disabilities. As a cohort, the PSTs expressed a modest increase in their cumulative self-efficacy scores ($t = 1.3137, p = .2025$) with the mean score increasing by 5.3%. Amongst the cohort ($N = 23$), there were PSTs who: (a) increased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities ($n = 12$); (b) only increased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with disabilities ($n = 1$); (c) only increased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners without disabilities ($n = 3$); and, (d) decreased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities ($n = 7$). The researcher's engagement with his sample from the cohort helped illuminate these changes more clearly.

Increase in self-efficacy. Bandura's (1977a, 1991) sources of information that influence changes in self-efficacy also emerged amongst the stratified random sample that participated in the researcher's investigation to answer his second research question. Performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) were cited by each of the participants as the main reasons why they felt a change occur in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners. In particular, at least two members of the sample reported performance desensitization and performance exposure (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) as specific indicators of successful performance accomplishments. Performance exposure occurs when the individual is exposed to a particular activity that he or she is uncertain about, while performance desensitization is a process where the individual becomes increasing capable to complete a task that he or she once determined was exceptionally difficult or challenging.

Most of the participants who felt that they had successfully established positive, working relationships with their students and/or their students' parents or caregivers also increased in the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) items that related to this aspect of teaching. However, there were two notable exceptions of participants who reported that they did not receive sufficient modeling to feel an increase in their confidence to support parents or caregivers. Nearly all of the participants could cite examples of when their students or their CTs gave them positive feedback, mostly affective in nature, that, in turn, enhanced their beliefs that they were more likely to capably execute CRT activities listed as items on the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007).

Decrease in self-efficacy. For members of the sample who reported a decrease in their self-efficacy, both in sum and by item, several themes emerged from their answers. Typically, the respondents reported a general awareness of the complexities and work that is involved in teaching in general education settings. For the respondents who reported less self-efficacy, they repeatedly indicated that they felt they were more accurately measuring their self-efficacy *after* the first field experiences, rather than before it.

Some Intern Is, such as Julia, thought that certain scale items would have been extra work, beyond what was typically expected for them to do. Julia offered that she understood the importance of teaching her students about diverse cultural contributions to a content area, yet, felt that it was still beyond where she could currently perform as an Intern I. Madaline shared a similar sentiment when she said that in content areas where she felt the strongest, she could "think outside of the box" and include diverse cultural

contributions, but with content areas that were relatively unfamiliar, she did not think she could capably do some of the CRT items yet.

Different mindsets and approaches to self-reflecting. Relatedly, there were notable differences among the participants in terms of their mindsets approaching a self-efficacy scale that were likely indicative of differing approaches to self-reflecting. Some expressed how the scale represented a challenge to which they wanted to put their best foot forward and express confidence in their capability, whether or not it was reflected in their interning practice. Others approached the scale with characteristics of a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006, 2008) suggesting that the items represent areas for future learning and development. Dweck (2008) defines a growth mindset as an attribute to an individual who applies a malleable self-theory, believing "that their most basic qualities can be developed through their efforts and education" (p. 392). Some respondents from the sample were specific as to what led them to re-estimate their changes; others described their changes by expressing generalities and took a more holistic approach to summarizing their perceptions (e.g., "I've practiced it, I've tried it, I saw it, I lived it, and I loved it," Jessica, interview, 1/23/15).

A relevant message for TPP educators who are charged with preparing their students to become culturally responsive general and special education professionals, is to be aware of different mindsets, perceptions, and dispositions expressed by their teacher candidates. In fact, this insight and awareness are imperative for supervisors to understand, as they apply the clinical supervision model (Cognan, 1973) to fulfill their professional responsibilities, preparing PSTs to become effective educators. These

recommendations, as well as other implications for practice, are provided in the next, final chapter: Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Teacher educators are charged with preparing preservice teachers (PSTs) to meet the learning needs of an increasingly complex, diverse student population in the U.S. public schools. Special education teacher educators, in particular, must also prepare PSTs to tailor their instruction to meet the unique educational needs of their students with, or at-risk of having, disabilities. Furthermore, special education teacher educators need to be cognizant of teaching standards within both general and special education in order for their teacher candidates to achieve highly qualified status under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002). To create equal educational opportunities, many educators have developed methods for classroom teachers to use and teacher educators to support, including culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2002a, 2010; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Special education teacher educators and scholars have also examined, outlined, and recommended culturally responsive teaching (CRT) pedagogies and practices for educators to feature within special education settings (e.g., Cartledge & Kourea, 2008; Obiakor, 2006).

Prior research has found that effective teachers often begin their teaching trajectories in the preservice teaching stage (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). It has also been found that over an extended period of time, effective teachers tend to possess higher levels of teacher-efficacy (Brophy & Evertson, 1977; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and student learning increases (Armor et al., 1976; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Self-efficacy is understood as the belief in one's capabilities to "organize and execute the courses of

action required to manage prospective situations" (Bandura, 1995, p. 2). Research has also found that, over time, teachers who consistently doubt their capabilities to teach, and therefore possess low teacher efficacy, are more likely to leave the profession entirely (Fives et al., 2007; Schawarzer & Hallum, 2008).

This dissertation study was conducted under the imperative that special education teacher educators prepare their PSTs to be on track to effectively serve *all* of their students that this dissertation study was conducted. One of the indicators of whether this imperative is being met is to gauge the PSTs' self-efficacy to capably implement CRT strategies. Prior research has looked at PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs to serve culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students (Siwatu, 2005, 2007, 2011a, 2011b; Sorrells et al., 2004) and CLD students with disabilities (Kea et al., 2002). By modifying Siwatu's (2007) Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scale, this dissertation examined the PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD students with *and* without disabilities. It also extended this line of research by looking at changes longitudinally, over the duration of their first field experience. Now that the study has been completed, discussion about the researcher's key findings and working hypotheses is needed.

WORKING HYPOTHESES

This section of the chapter briefly revisits the key findings from the dissertation's two research questions. Then the researcher uses his key findings to formulate his working hypotheses to ascribe meaning to what self-efficacy in this study meant to his

participants, and how self-efficacy applies to their first internship and their future work, serving diverse students with and without disabilities.

Research Question 1 Key Findings

The answer to the dissertation's first research question was not surprising; yes, preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities most likely changed after they completed their first field experience. As a cohort, the PSTs' self-efficacy grew by 5.3%. The complexity lies, however, at the individual PST level because the changes were far from uniform or consistent across the cohort. As addressed in Chapter 4, only 13 participants expressed an increase in self-efficacy to serve CLD students with *and* without disabilities. Equally intriguing were the participants (n = 3) who grew in their self-efficacy to serve CLD students without disabilities, but declined in the beliefs of their capabilities to serve CLD students with disabilities.

After completing the study, the researcher proceeded to formulate hypotheses regarding his first research question. In order to more completely formulate his hypotheses, the researcher revisited Bandura's (1977a, 1991) scholarship for explanations as to what leads one to change his or her estimation of his or her capability, to which Bandura offered his four sources of information which influence self-efficacy beliefs: performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. With Bandura's four sources of information notes, the researcher found that these sources of information could either strengthen or weaken one's self-

efficacy beliefs. The researcher identified a *positive* source of information as one that was used to stimulate expectations of success at teaching. It was positive because Bandura found that the stronger the individual's self-efficacy, the higher the goals that the individual sets up for him or herself and the more committed the individual would be to accomplish them. In this manner, the *positive* sources of information become an upwardly moving recursive cycle.

On the opposite end of the spectrum were *negative* sources of information. These sources of information helped influence the PST to conclude a lower estimation of his or her capability to execute a particular teaching competency. As illustrated from the perspectives of at least two participants, Julia and Madaline, a *negative* source of information was not necessarily worrisome for the respondent in the sense of it causing him or her to feel burdened, debilitated, or even unprepared for the opportunities for long-term growth and setting more grounded, realistic professional goals. It was "negative" only in the sense that something within the context of internship experience caused the PST to increase his or her ratings on the self-efficacy measure, thereby resulting in a weakening of his or her self-efficacy beliefs. Now, prior research has found that a teacher who possesses low self-efficacy beliefs about his or her capability to teach has been more likely to burnout or leave the teaching profession entirely (Fives et al., 2007; Schawarzer & Hallum, 2008). However, given that the PSTs participants in the study were in the early stages of their professional development, gains and losses in self-efficacy over the course of this study must be taken in context.

The researcher shares his working hypotheses as to why PST self-efficacy changed over the first field experience, as well as his key findings pertaining to the changes in the list below:

1. *For the participants who increased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities*. At least one of three scenarios likely happened. These participants (n = 13) likely: (a) encountered a sufficient amount of positive sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that made their re-estimations of their scores feel justified; (b) interpreted the scale as an opportunity to project confidence and readiness, even if it was unsubstantiated; and/or, (c) misunderstood the intent of the scale (construct validity issues).
2. *For the participants who increased in their self-efficacy to serve only CLD students without disabilities or only CLD students with disabilities*. At least one of three scenarios likely happened. These participants (n = 4) likely: (a) encountered a sufficient amount of positive sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) regarding their practice with one group (e.g., students with disabilities) that made their re-estimations of their scores feel justified; (b) encountered an insufficient amount of positive sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) or insufficient amount of practice teaching one group of students (e.g., students with disabilities); and/or (c) encountered negative sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that led them

to feel less capable specifically with one group of students (e.g., students with disabilities).

3. *For the participants who decreased in their self-efficacy to serve CLD students with and without disabilities*. At least one of three scenarios likely happened. These participants (n = 6) likely: (a) encountered a sufficient amount of negative sources of information (Bandura 1977a, 1991) that made their re-estimations of their scores feel justified; (b) interpreted the scale as an opportunity to assess areas for growth and improvement; and/or, (c) used the scale as an opportunity to illustrate the *practice shock* (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005) felt from first time teaching or working in an unfamiliar environment.

The researcher includes as a construct validity issue, the possibility of participants having misunderstood the intent of the scale. Construct validity refers to whether the scale actually measures the construct it is tended to measure (Crozby, 2007). This misunderstanding was tricky to capture and evaluate in the study because the respondents' ratings on the scale were intended to be subjective and personal. Another person beside the respondent cannot evaluate the respondent's self-efficacy; only the individual can assess it for him or herself. So, without evidence provided by the individuals to suggest how or why they assigned themselves the rating that they did, the researcher would have to do a great deal of inferring about their meaning. To work through this potential challenge and limit the amount of researcher inferences, the

researcher relied heavily on his stratified random sample to explain changes at the end of the first field experience.

Research Question 2 Key Findings

The respondents' answers to the dissertation's second research question helped the researcher understand changes in self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD students with and without disabilities through the eyes of the participants. The researcher will frame the discussion about his key findings for his second research question. This part of Chapter 5 is presented in two sections: the first reports trends pertaining to the participants who reported an overall increase in self-efficacy, the second reports trends evidenced by the participants who reported an overall decrease in their self-efficacy beliefs.

Increase in self-efficacy. Three key findings emerged from the researcher's qualitative analysis. Overwhelmingly, the participants reported an increase in their self-efficacy ratings because of: (a) positive performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) in particular, through successfully working through performance desensitization and performance exposure that helped ameliorate any difficult, taxing emotions (e.g., anxiety); (b) different understandings for the purpose of the scale, for example when Jessica used the scale as an opportunity to project confidence and push back any doubt about something that could be difficult; and, (c) relationships and personal connections developed with the students, cooperating teachers (CTs), and the parents/caregivers. As the PSTs began to contextualize their internship and got better acquainted with their students and CTs individually, many reported feeling more at ease and open to the new

interning and teaching experiences. Those three key findings do not surprise the researcher; he is surprised, however, to discover another trend which emerged from his respondents' reflections about their first field experience.

Researcher surprise. There were few examples when the PSTs from the sample referenced anything specific (i.e., content knowledge) that they developed from their coursework, feedback, or supervision over the fall semester that influenced their CRT self-efficacy beliefs. At one point during the interview, Carter mentioned that he had been receiving "good feedback" but was not more specific about what this meant to him. Also, several of the participants cited some of the course requirements from SED 332 or ALD 322 where they were to observe or volunteer in special education settings, but this was prior to the fall semester in focus during the study. None of the students cited anything specific that they had learned from ALD 327: Sociocultural Influences on Teaching and Learning or how it had been applicable to them as Intern Is as they were preparing and teaching their lessons. Therefore, this dissertation did not find the coursework (e.g., assignments or readings) to have a positive (or negative) impact on the self-efficacy beliefs of PSTs, nor was the researcher able to document PSTs' recognition of how they were applying their university coursework to their teaching practice. The researcher was surprised to discover that this was the case.

Decrease in self-efficacy. This study's qualitative research analyses had three key findings that emerged from the participants' perspectives. Overwhelmingly, the participants who expressed less confidence in their self-efficacy beliefs to implement the CRT strategies on the modified CRTSE scale indicated these sentiments because of their:

(a) increasing awareness of the complexities and difficulties of teaching in general education settings; (b) growing realization that the CRT examples on the scale were extra work beyond what was typically expected for an Intern I; and/or (c) lacking modeling of certain CRT practices listed on the scale.

Researcher conclusion. The researcher noted that none of his five participants expressed any indication of burnout or possible attrition. Quite the opposite, he found that each of the participants demonstrated qualities of an individual who possessed a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006, 2008) in his or her approaches to teaching diverse learners in general education settings, especially among the participants whose ratings decreased globally, or increased modestly at the end of the fall semester. It was shared earlier in the dissertation that Dweck defines a "growth mindset" as a characteristic of an individual who beliefs that his or her "most basic qualities can be developed through [his or her] efforts and education" (2008, p. 392). Dweck also cited research which indicates that individuals who have a growth mindset and a malleable self-theory are "more open to learning, willing to confront challenges, able to stick to difficult tasks, and capable of bouncing back from failures" (p. 392). None of the participants from the researcher's sample questioned their intent to major in special education and, overall, seemed highly optimistic about the new semester that was ahead of them. So regardless of the changes reported on their self-efficacy scores, the qualitative research and analysis were clearly necessary to answer the study's second research question and to see the field experiences from the participants' perspectives. The qualitative research and analysis were also

essential pursuits the researcher needed to complete in order to fully understand this phenomenon within teacher education.

Future Directions

The researcher developed several future directions as a result of this dissertation's key findings. One was to continue this study longitudinally in order to track the participants' changes in self-efficacy to teach CLD students with and without disabilities over the remaining three semesters in this university's teacher preparation program (TPP). Over the spring semester that immediately followed the time frame of this dissertation, the Intern Is became Intern IIs and completed a second field experience setting in Preschool Programs for Children with Disabilities (PPCD) and Functional Life Skills (FLS) special education classrooms. Undoubtedly, the participants encountered many new contextual features within their second field experience setting (e.g., new students, new CTs, new school). It was the researcher's hope that the participants would secure more practice successfully teaching *all* of their students with disabilities, and that each of them would be paired with self-efficacious CTs who would model CRT practices similar to the items on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) and recommended in the literature (e.g., Villegas & Lucas, 2002). These PSTs may have experienced more of a leveling of the changes reflected in their self-efficacy scores since they were adding to their teaching repertoires across these different internships settings. An Intern I whose scores placed him or her within the upper quartile may have encountered more *negative*

sources of information (Bandura, 1977a, 1991) that caused him or her to re-estimate his or her self-efficacy ratings lower.

Conversely, perhaps some of the participants, who became more aware of the complexities of teaching and identified specific areas where they wished to improve, gained more practice developing those competencies over the three semesters that were remaining for them to complete in the TPP. Indeed, the questions that came to these participants' minds as a result of reflecting on their Intern I experience might have resolved over the course of another internship. Or, perhaps, their questions became more complex and deepened as their initial optimism faded, suggested in other research (e.g., Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Spector, 1990). Either way, with extended interning and practicing, the researcher of this dissertation hypothesizes that the PSTs in this cohort will form more realistic appraisals of their teacher self-efficacy throughout the course of each semester before they graduate and become certified teachers. So, it was clear that in order to positively influence the professional trajectories of PSTs and support them to confidentially and successfully address the educational needs of all of their students with and without disabilities, the time teacher educators spend with their candidates, in their programs and field experiences, is invaluable.

LIMITATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS

As with any study, this dissertation contained certain limitations and constraints. To begin, the study featured a relatively small cohort of PSTs and a small sample amongst the cohort. For this reason, the researcher performed paired *t*-tests for changes

from the pre- to post-internship scores and did not find that the changes were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level; A larger sample size would have helped strengthen the statistical significance of the changes. Also, clearly, generalizability is limited and the study needs to be only understood within its context. There were also other constraints outside of the control (external) of the researcher and well as within the control of the researcher (internal), which will be explored next.

External Constraints

Several external constraints were beyond the control of the researcher. For example, besides selecting the stratified random sample through the procedures already described, the researcher did not select the schools or the CTs with whom his five PSTs worked. Three of his participants (Carter, Jessica, and Madaline) interned at Sycamore Elementary, which served a majority of students who were White monolingual English speakers. This limited the number of opportunities available to the participants who interned at Sycamore to teach racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse students; opportunities that would have been more readily available to them if they had interned at any number of other school campuses within Sweetbriar Independent School District.

Also, despite the well-documented impact that the CTs have on PSTs (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Hamman et al., 2007) and, specifically, PSTs' models of *good teaching* (Koerner et al., 2002), the researcher/supervisor was not familiar with three of the five CTs prior to the start of the fall semester. The CTs' role in shaping the PSTs' perceptions of teaching and their self-efficacy beliefs to capably teach diverse students, cannot be

emphasized enough. Prior research has found that the PSTs' CT's efficacy to capably teach is also a predictor variable of the PSTs' efficacy, correlating positively (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to measure the teaching efficacy of the CTs or to measure the CTs' self-efficacy to capably feature any of the CRT practices on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). However, it certainly could be a direction for future research.

On a different note, while certainly *not* being a constraint, it was with great optimism that the researcher noted that over the fall semester, the Cohort 8 Intern Is bucked a national demographic trend. It has been well documented that the racial and/or ethnic composition of teachers too often does not reflect the student diversity in schools (Banks, 2008; Utley et al., 2011; Sorrells et al., 2010), leading to a cultural gap of experiences between the teachers and their students (Boutte, 2012; Renzulli et al., 2010). However, the Intern Is over that fall semester did not feature a majority of White PSTs. White PSTs made up only 45.8% of the cohort, followed by 37.5% who came from two or more racial and/or ethnic backgrounds (see Table 3.1). Furthermore, at least two of the participants from the researcher's sample (Jessica and Alegría) shared in-group racial and/or ethnic membership with the majority of their students and all five of the participants were proficient or fluent in the languages spoken by the majority of the students in their classroom settings. Again, these features are not constraints, but further contextual information that makes this dissertation study unique.

Internal Constraints

The internal constraints and limitations represented moments when the researcher had to make certain decisions that would potentially limit some of the study's findings. The internal constraints and limitations were mostly centered on the researcher's decision to feature the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007) as a research instrument in the study. It has been found in previous research that many PSTs make unrealistic and overly optimistic appraisals of their self-efficacy beliefs (Ross, 1998). This dissertation study might also be in accord with Ross's finding, but it is difficult to deduce whether the reported ratings of self-efficacy beliefs were overly optimistic. For example, in the post-internship evaluation, Jessica gave herself 100 (the highest possible rating) expressing full certainty in her capability to execute 64 items, representing 80% of all of the items on the scale. Siwatu (2007) reported having one participant score on the upper tiers of the range of scores as well. His highest scoring participant scored him or herself 3970 out of a possible 4000 on the original CRTSE. So, other research that featured the CRTSE measure (e.g., Siwatu, 2007; Siwatu & Starker, 2010) also substantiated this researcher's concern about PSTs who make potentially unrealistic self-evaluations.

To add to the complexity, however, was the finding from this dissertation that the scale might have served a different purpose for some of the participants than what it was intended to do. Specifically, some participants could have approached the scale as just a measure of their general confidence, or general confidence to teach, overall, without considering the subtle differences between scale items and Siwatu's attention to culturally responsive practices when he designed the original measure. Since the directions on the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007) stated: *Rate how confident you are that*

*you can achieve each of the following **as of now** by indicating a probability of success from 0 (no chance) to 100 (completely certain)*, some participants might have believed the scale to be a measure of their confidence more globally, not their efficacy to implement CRT items, individually, for diverse students. Therefore, the study could have suffered from a few construct validity issues (Crozby, 2007) that were shared and reported in other research using the same scale or a variation of the original scale (e.g., Siwatu, 2007; Siwatu & Starker, 2010).

The other internal constraint was that the researcher also served the university supervisor for the five participants who were featured in great depth in this study. The researcher was comfortable straddling the line between these two roles and functions, and made the time to establish trust and rapport with each of his PST-participants. While wanting his participants to feel free to express him or herself, the researcher also recognized that engaging in conversations about cultural and linguistic diversity could be challenging and difficult (Adams et al., 2005; Fitchett et al., 2012; Seidl & Pugach, 2009). In general, to openly and candidly share challenges and mistakes requires participants to reveal a certain degree of vulnerability and is inherently not easy. Also, it was quite possible that by the interview stage of the study in January 2015, the participants could have intuited some of the purposes for the study and, therefore, could have been slightly biased with their answers in order to put their best foot forward. With these limitations clearly identified, there remained several practical implications as a result of this study.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

It is the researcher's hope that the findings from this dissertation can provide special education TPP educators with meaningful insight into the effects of their practice. This section explores the study's practical usages and is organized by short-term implications, referring to effects that can take place within the span of a semester, and long-term implications, referring to repercussions over a much longer span of time.

Short-Term Implications

First, and foremost, the special education PSTs should have the opportunity to gain experience using evidence-based teaching practices that are research-based and effective for students with and without disabilities from diverse backgrounds. The PSTs should intern with exemplary CTs who are well versed and efficacious in delivering evidence-based practices so that the PSTs have a clear model upon which to draw as they are learning to teach. The PSTs should also have the opportunity to experience teaching students who come from backgrounds other than their own. As Bandura (1977a, 1991) theorized well over two decades ago, an individual's sense of *performance accomplishment* is the most influential source of information that impacts the individual's sense of being capable of meeting the demands of a given task. The findings from this dissertation strongly support at least one of Bandura's theories with the discovery that many of the participants from the sample cited their own successful *performance accomplishments* during actual teaching experiences, and that these accomplishments

positively influenced their beliefs regarding their capacity to teach CLD students with and without disabilities. Carter and Alegría were two of the participants who illustrated this pattern most cogently, despite the fact that Carter worked with far fewer CLD students than Alegría did over that semester.

Issues related to the field experience setting. There are caveats to address, however. It is clear that the PSTs self-efficacy beliefs will play an even greater role in improving the quality of their future teaching if those beliefs are grounded by the PSTs' use of objective measures and feedback from colleagues. Ultimately, it would not be helpful for the PSTs' students (and future students) to be served by a teacher who was not substantiating his or her beliefs and opinions with more objective data, or with confirmation from other professionals who are familiar with the PST (e.g., the CT, university faculty, or university supervisor).

The selection of the setting for the internship is crucial for a variety of different reasons, as offered by this dissertation. For example, the PSTs in this study often cited the positive relationship building with their students, parents/caregivers, and CTs as one of the leading factors that caused them to re-estimate their self-efficacy belief ratings higher. Clearly, positive relationship building can lead to a supportive classroom environment and facilitates the students' learning. Positive relationship building with the students can help the teacher incorporate the students' and their families' knowledge and expertise into the instruction in meaningful ways (Murry, 2012). However, there were instances when the PSTs did not feel that they became more capable at developing positive relationships with the students' families/caregivers: both Jessica and Madaline

expressed some reservations about their ability to build positive relationships with their students' families because of events that unfolded during their field experience. Teacher educators who oversee the placement logistics for the field experience should select the setting very carefully. Other members of the TPP, and the university supervisor in particular, should monitor whether the PST is receiving effective modeling in his or her internship setting, and provide support for the PST's practice within the internship context, being cognizant of how key the field experience is to the PST's development.

The researcher also conjectured that since successful, meaningful relationships with students and their families kept emerging from the data sources of several other PSTs, the respondents in this study may have been applying the principles of CRT in unintentional ways (i.e., they were acting on characteristics of CRT without intentionally knowing that they were doing it). For example, Carter and Julia both shared that the relationship building aspects of teaching felt natural to them – in fact, each participant in the sample provided examples from over the course of their field experience when they learned about their students, individually, and these encounters became part of the sources of information that led the respondents to reassign themselves with higher self-efficacy belief ratings.

This PSTs' focus on fostering supportive relationships with individual students and attempting to understand each of their differences might have been intensified because of their choice to major in special education. In the background interviews, with animation, each participant described working with particular individuals with disabilities or differences and how these experiences impacted him or her personally: even

influencing his or her choice to become a special education major. Therefore, supporting these PSTs to add other aspects of diversity (race, culture, ethnicity, language, socioeconomic status, gender, immigration status, sexual orientation) to their knowledgebase about their students, individually, could be a logical extension to their awareness of differences that related to disabilities. Just as Carter shared in his background interview, explaining how his perception changed about what having a disability meant and who was included, he said: "It's this wide range of humans and we all, I mean, even us who aren't necessarily diagnosed have some sort of something. There is no normal" (interview, 1/16/15). Clearly appreciation for, and differentiation based on, other aspects of student diversity were well within the reaches of the Cohort 8 Intern Is.

Results from the post-scale. Based on this dissertation's findings the Intern Is needed more support with ways that they could include diverse cultural contributions to certain content areas. As a whole, Intern Is scored themselves the lowest on scale items 17 and 29, which asked them to assess their current capability to *teach students about their cultures' contributions to science* and *design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics*. Julia may have spoken for other members of the cohort when she shared that while she thought these teaching tasks were valuable, they would take quite a bit of time and effort. It is not surprising she expressed this sentiment because these items *are* highly complex. For context, members of Cohort 8 will not enroll in a math methods course until their senior year and do not have the opportunity to complete a stand-alone science methods course. Nonetheless, the data are useful for

more fully understanding the PSTs' changes in their self-efficacy beliefs to serve diverse learners.

Self-efficacy building activities. Jessica and Madaline each offered examples from their first field experience of situations within which they would have benefitted from better practice and modeling of certain items featured on the modified CRTSE scale. Madaline explained how she felt that she could have gained more self-efficacy on one of the scale items related to classroom management. She also proposed an activity that she would have liked to practice:

> Maybe having a situation where an argument came up [among the students] and that me and the CT were side by side in approaching the situation and me being able to be there - like right there -and seeing how she handles it and, you know, the next time it happens, I'd still have her right by my side, but me going into it more and trying to figure out and fix the problem. (interview, 1/23/15)

Indeed, the Intern Is were afforded many opportunities to rehearse new skills during their coursework at the university (see APPENDIX H, M, O) and at least one course every semester was directly associated with the field experience (e.g., EDC 331). However, the participants rarely cited their coursework or in-class activities among their sources of information that influenced their self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977a, 1991). So, one practical implication of the study is for teacher educators to develop new self-efficacy building activities for the PSTs to try *within the field experience setting*. Ideally, there would also be some flexibility so that the CT, university supervisor, and the teacher educators could tailor the self-efficacy building activity to meet the unique needs for the PST's professional development. Other research that looks at changes in self-efficacy beliefs among teacher candidates (e.g., Siwatu, 2011b) also suggests that teacher

educators include self-efficacy building activities within the preparation coursework. However, the findings from this dissertation indicate that self-efficacy building activities, such as the activity that Madaline suggested, should be built into the field experience setting, too, as it would add even greater authenticity.

Long-Term Implications

It is important to highlight that the university TPP in the dissertation study featured many components already supported in the research and literature. For example, the program featured: a cohort structure for its teacher candidates (Tyler et al., 2004), multiple semesters of field experience (Leko et al., 2012; Wiggins et al., 2007), and (the opportunity for) interning in culturally and linguistically diverse settings (Correa et al., 2004; Pappamihiel, 2004). The members of the cohort are even provided with opportunities to observe educators serve individuals with disabilities across a variety of classroom settings as part of the program's coursework requirements during the foundation block of their special education major.

Disconnections between coursework, practice, and efficacy. Based on the findings from the study, however, it was not clear that all of the members of the cohort were fully integrating approaches they were studying in their coursework into practice. In particular, the researcher was hoping to hear how his participants were applying the content knowledge they had developed from ALD 327 into their internships. This course was designed to provide the foundations for: (a) an appreciation for diversity, (b) an ability to apply the principles of intercultural communication to teaching contexts, and (c)

an increased awareness of the sociocultural influences of (their own) worldviews (see APPENDIX M). Jessica may have spoken for other members of the cohort when she described ALD 327 as the "diversity course" and that she found it to be "difficult" (interview, 1/23/15). Nonetheless, she was the highest scorer on both administrations of the modified CRTSE (Siwatu, 2007). Accepting that the scale had both construct validity and face validity (Crozby, 2007) that would mean that certain coursework content, practice in the field experience, and self-assessment of one's capability to implement aspects of teaching (e.g., CRT) were disconnected.

The PSTs' disconnection between coursework, practice, and efficacy, should be within the purview of the university supervisor and this can be an area within which the university supervisor can help to remediate for the preparation program. If the disconnection is not something the university supervisor is aware of, the preparation program coordinator can help highlight what the PSTs are learning or have learned so that the supervisors can actively look for it. Returning to the mediated learning theories (Feuerstein et al., 1999) and Cognitive Coaching practices (Costa & Garmston, 2002) which informed the researcher when he was performing his supervisory roles, both of these frameworks emphasize that the coach should have in-depth knowledge about his or her students/PSTs. In the case with the Intern Is, not only should the university supervisor be knowledgeable about what the Intern Is are learning, he or she should also be looking for it in practice and, as appropriate, coaching or assessing the Intern Is on the knowledge that they are acquiring. So, the university supervisor can and should help the PST identify what comes naturally to him or her, as well as what still might be beneath

the surface as unlocked potential, and the university supervisor should cogently link the skills, attributes, and competencies back to the university coursework to support the PST to bridge any gaps in his or her newly emerging teaching practice.

Unresolved questions. In order to more fully understand how the participants described rating their self-efficacy beliefs to serve CLD learners with and without disabilities, the researcher had to analyze the data sources very carefully. What he noticed as a result of doing the study, which also has long-term implications for TPPs, was that the PSTs' self-awareness, dispositions, and mindsets matter. If a participant already views him or herself as a highly capable PST, does that translate into becoming a highly capable teacher? If a participant expresses, more modestly, what he or she feels capable of as an Intern I, does that translate into becoming a highly capable teacher? To date, the researcher has not been able to locate any research that tracks changes in the PSTs' self-efficacy belief changes over the span of time required for the PSTs to complete all of their coursework and field experience requirements for their preparation program. However, he speculates that the answers to these lingering questions lie within the individual's self-awareness and the mindset (e.g., Dweck, 2006, 2008) that he or she adopts when confronting something new. Dweck (2008) defines a growth mindset as an attribute of an individual who applies a malleable self-theory, believing "that their most basic qualities can be developed through their efforts and education" (p. 392). The answers to these questions matter to TPPs educators whose outcomes are to produce well-prepared beginning teachers.

Reflective practice. In the meantime, TPP educators must continue to provide PSTs with copious amounts of feedback, opportunities for self-reflection, and time to rehearse CRT practices as itemized on the CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007). The participants in this study who appeared to demonstrate greater self-reflection were also: (a) explaining their changes on the scale with evidence (anecdotes, key moments) from their first field experience; (b) articulating what they still needed to do and/or learn in order to improve their teaching practice; (c) offering specific scenarios that could have helped them increase their rating; (d) justifying why some of the scale items were not yet quite applicable for them; and/or, (e) rating themselves carefully, item-by-item, and expressing a wide range of both strengths and weaknesses to more fully illustrate their current levels of performance as a teaching intern.

Purposeful, reflective practice in order to strengthen one's teaching practice is a characteristic of an effective teacher; reflective teachers create "personal solutions to problems" (Larrivee, 2000, p. 294). However, as a result of this study, the researcher would also add that developing a reflective teaching practice requires a substantial amount of time and maturity: not to mention an impetus to initiate any reflection. Therefore, while reflecting on practice should begin at the preservice teaching level, it should also be understood with the context that PSTs are typically only at the formative stages of their journeys to become special education teachers. With time and practice, both at the PST stage and beyond, each PST will likely develop more fully formed interpretations, judgments, and expectations. The researcher hopes that all PSTs engage in critical reflection (Larrivee, 2000) so that they also do not get stuck in their own

interpretations. Instead, he hopes that they continue to learn about the unique attributes and characteristics of their diverse learners, as well as their families and communities, and use that knowledge to teach in meaningful ways.

CONCLUSION

This dissertation study investigating preservice special education teachers' self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities represented a complex, but worthwhile research endeavor. This topic was multidisciplinary, requiring the researcher to examine the literature from a variety of fields, including: psychology, general education, special education, and multicultural education, and specifically, examining how these disciplines intersect within special education teacher preparation programs, whose educators are charged with equipping their teacher candidates to become qualified, capable teachers for the twenty-first century.

One major impetus for the researcher to complete this study was the fact that in less than two years from that first internship, the Cohort 8 PSTs would begin their first year teaching. These PSTs will certainly encounter many unforeseen challenges in spite of the time spent in their preparation programs and their field experiences, but they will not be entering the teaching force inexperienced. In addition to relying on the skills, practices, and techniques acquired from coursework and the practicum, research shows that these first year teachers will also rely on their self-efficacy beliefs (Siwatu, 2011a; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Research has suggested that self-efficacy may predict future-teaching behaviors long after the PST becomes certified (Pajares,

1996). This self-efficacy research, combined with the implications of an increased cultural and linguistic diverse student population in the U.S. public schools, (Colby & Ortman, 2014; Hussar & Bailey, 2011) strongly suggest that self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities matter.

The findings from this dissertation study suggest that it was likely that Cohort 8's preservice special education teachers had changed their self-efficacy beliefs to teach CLD learners with and without disabilities after they had completed their first field experience. They modestly grew (+5.3%) in the strength of their beliefs; meaning that as a cohort, they felt slightly more capable of implementing elements of CRT. With the descriptions provided by Alegría, Carter, Jessica, Julia, and Madaline, the dissertation study offered a wide variety of reasons for the changes – some, like background experiences, were clearly not within the control of teacher educators. It bears repeating, however, that Cohort 8 PSTs and the researcher's sample were notably more male and racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse compared to the national teacher profile that has remained predominantly White, monolingual English speaking, middle class, and female (Boutte, 2012; Renzulli et al., 2011; Utley et al., 2011).

The researcher has noted positive and negative sources of information that influence self-efficacy and these sources of information can provide valuable feedback for educators who plan and/or oversee the field experience aspect of preparation programs. All of the findings from the study need to be contextualized as having been generated within this one cohort from one particular special education TPP at a large research university in Central Texas. So generalizability is limited. Nonetheless, it is the

researcher's hope that he has shed some light onto a highly complex phenomenon and that his findings have useful implications for professionals charged with preparing future special educators.

APPENDIX A

COUNCIL FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN (CEC) *WHAT EVERY SPECIAL EDUCATION MUST KNOW (2009)* – STANDARDS FOR MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE

ICC1K5 Issues in definition and identification of individuals with exceptional learning needs, including those from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds

ICC1K8 Historical points of view and contribution of culturally diverse groups

ICC1K9 Impact of the dominant culture on shaping schools and the individuals who study and work in them

ICC1K10 Potential impact of differences in values, languages, and customs that can exist between the home and school

ICC2K3 Characteristics and effects of the cultural and environmental milieu of the individual with exceptional learning needs and the family

ICC3K2 Impact of learners' academic and social abilities, attitudes, interests, and values on instruction and career development

ICC3K3 Variations in beliefs, traditions, and values across and within cultures and their effects on relationships among individuals with exceptional learning needs, family, and schooling

ICC3K4 Cultural perspectives influencing the relationships among families, schools, and communities as related to instruction

ICC3K5 Differing ways of learning of individuals with exceptional learning needs including those from culturally diverse backgrounds and strategies for addressing these differences

ICC5K4 Teacher attitudes and behaviors that influence behavior of individuals with exceptional learning needs

ICC5K7 Strategies for preparing individuals to live harmoniously and productively in a culturally diverse world

ICC5K8 Ways to create learning environments that allow individuals to retain and appreciate their own and each other's respective language and cultural heritage

ICC5K9 Ways specific cultures are negatively stereotyped

ICC5K10 Strategies used by diverse populations to cope with a legacy of former and continuing racism

ICC5S1 Create a safe, equitable, positive, and supportive learning environment in which diversities are valued

ICC5S13 Organize, develop, and sustain learning environments that support positive intracultural and intercultural experiences

ICC5S14 Mediate controversial intercultural issues among students within the learning environments in ways that enhance any culture, group, or person

ICC6K1 Effects of cultural and linguistic differences on growth and development

ICC6K2 Characteristics of one's own culture and use of language and the ways in which these can differ from other cultures and uses of languages

ICC6K3 Ways of behaving and communicating among cultures that can lead to misinterpretation and misunderstanding

ICC6S2 Use communication strategies and resources to facilitate understanding of subject matter for students whose primary language is not the dominant language

ICC7S8 Develop and select instructional content, resources, and strategies that respond to cultural, linguistic, and gender differences

ICC7S14 Prepare individuals to exhibit self-enhancing behavior in response to societal attitudes and actions

ICC8S2 Administer nonbiased formal and informal assessments

ICC8S6 Use assessment information in making eligibility, program, and placement decisions for individuals with exceptional learning needs, including those from culturally and/or linguistically diverse backgrounds

ICC9K1 Personal cultural biases and differences that affect one's teaching

ICC9S6 Demonstrate sensitivity for the culture, language, religion, gender, disability, socio-economic status, and sexual orientation of individuals

ICC10K4 Culturally responsive factors that promote effective communication and collaboration with individuals with exceptional learning needs, families, school personnel, and community members

ICC10S10 Communicate effectively with families of individuals with exceptional

learning needs from diverse backgrounds

APPENDIX B

INTASC MODEL CORE TEACHING STANDARDS (2011) – STANDARDS FOR CULTURAL COMPETENCE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Theme	Knowledge	Disposition	Performance
Cultural competence	1(g), 2(g), 2(j), 2(k), 3(i), 4(k), 4(m), 7(i), 8(k), 9(i)	4(o), 9(m)	2(d), 3(f), 5(h), 7(c), 9(e)
English language learners	1(g), 2(i), 2(j), 6(p), 7(m), 8(m)	2(o), 6(u)	2(d), 2(e), 4(i), 6(h), 7(e)

1(g) The teacher understands the role of language and culture in learning and knows how to modify instruction to make language comprehensible and instruction relevant, accessible, and challenging.

2(d) The teacher brings multiple perspectives to the discussion of content, including attention to learners' personal, family, and community experiences and cultural norms.

2(e) The teacher incorporates tools of language development into planning and instruction, including strategies for making content accessible to English language learners and for evaluating and supporting their development of English proficiency.

2(g) The teacher understands and identifies differences in approaches to learning and performance and knows how to design instruction that uses each learner's strengths to promote growth.

2(i) The teacher knows about second language acquisition processes and knows how to incorporate instructional strategies and resources to support language acquisition.

2(j) The teacher understands that learners bring assets for learning based on their individual experiences, abilities, talents, prior learning, and peer and social group interactions, as well as language, culture, family, and community values.

2(k) The teacher knows how to access information about the values of diverse cultures and communities and how to incorporate learners' experiences, cultures, and community resources into instruction.

2(o) The teacher believes that all learners can achieve at high levels and persists in helping each learner reach his/her full potential.

3(f) The teacher communicates verbally and nonverbally in ways that demonstrate respect for and responsiveness to the cultural backgrounds and differing perspectives learners bring to the learning environment.

3(i) The teacher understands the relationship between motivation and engagement and knows how to design learning experiences using strategies that build learner self-direction and ownership of learning.

4(i) The teacher accesses school and/or district-based resources to evaluate the learner's content knowledge in their primary language

4(k) The teacher understands common misconceptions in learning the discipline and how to guide learners to accurate conceptual understanding.

4(m) The teacher knows how to integrate culturally relevant content to build on learners' background knowledge.

4(o) The teacher realizes that content knowledge is not a fixed body of facts but is complex, culturally situated, and ever evolving. S/he keeps abreast of new ideas and understandings in the field.

5(h) The teacher develops and implements supports for learner literacy development across content areas.

6(h) The teacher prepares all learners for the demands of particular assessment formats and makes appropriate accommodations in assessments or testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(p) The teacher understands how to prepare learners for assessments and how to make accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(u) The teacher is committed to making accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

7(c) The teacher develops appropriate sequencing of learning experiences and provides multiple ways to demonstrate knowledge and skill.

7(e) The teacher plans collaboratively with professionals who have specialized expertise (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learning specialists, librarians, media specialists) to design and jointly deliver as appropriate learning experiences to meet unique learning needs.

7(i) The teacher understands learning theory, human development, cultural diversity, and individual differences and how these impact ongoing planning.

7(m) The teacher knows when and how to access resources and collaborate with others to support student learning (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learner specialists, librarians, media specialists, community organizations).

8(k) The teacher knows how to apply a range of developmentally, culturally, and linguistically appropriate instructional strategies to achieve learning goals.

8(m) The teacher understands how multiple forms of communication (oral, written, nonverbal, digital, visual) convey ideas, foster self-expression, and build relationships.

9(e) The teacher reflects on his/her personal biases and accesses resources to deepen his/her own understanding of cultural, ethnic, gender, and learning differences to build stronger relationships and create more relevant learning experiences.

9(i) The teacher understands how personal identity, worldview, and prior experience affect perceptions and expectations, and recognizes how they may bias behaviors and interactions with others.

9(m) The teacher is committed to deepening understanding of his/her own frames of reference (e.g., culture, gender, language, abilities, ways of knowing), the potential biases in these frames, and their impact on expectations for and relationships with learners and their families.

APPENDIX C

NAEYC PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION STANDARDS (2012) -- RUBRIC STANDARD 2: BUILDING FAMILY AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

RUBRIC STANDARD 2. BUILDING FAMILY AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Candidates know about, understand, and value the importance and complex characteristics of children's families and communities. They use this understanding to create respectful, reciprocal relationships that support and empower families, and to involve all families in their children's development and learning.

2a: Knowing about and understanding diverse family and community characteristics

2b: Supporting and engaging families and communities through respectful, reciprocal relationships

2c: Involving families and communities in their children's development and learning

Does Not Meet Expectations	Meets Expectations	Exceeds Expectations
Program evidence *does not show* that candidates' performance meets the Initial level expectations described in the Key Elements and Supporting Explanation. *Assessment tools* are not aligned with the Initial Standard, Key Elements and Supporting Explanation. The categories of content are not the same or consistent; the span or range of knowledge is not equivalent or, the cognitive demands and skill	Program evidence shows that, in general, candidates' performance meets the expectations described for the standard with the breadth and depth indicated in the key elements and supporting explanation with competence appropriate for an Initial, beginning early childhood teacher. *Assessment tools* are aligned with the Initial Standard, Key Elements and Supporting Explanation. The categories of content are the same or consistent;	Program evidence shows that: 1) The program *meets* all expectations for this standard at the Initial level *and* 2) Demonstrates *specific strengths* that are innovative, transformative, responsive to critical issues in the field, or indicate sustained and meaningful use of data to inform program improvements over a period of time. Using the column at left:

requirements are not congruent with those described in the standard.	The span or range of knowledge is equivalent, and the cognitive demands and skill requirements are congruent with those described in the standard. Scoring guides or rubrics generally provide qualitative distinctions between levels of performance. *Performance data* is disaggregated by standard and program, indicating that candidate work reflects current, evidence-based knowledge of diverse families and communities in most respects: *Understands, applies and can cite the essentials of family theory, research and principles* used to understand families and communities. Knows significant characteristics of the families and communities in which they practice. Is developing *a repertoire of approaches* to support respectful, reciprocal communication and relationship building with diverse families and communities. *Uses knowledge of families' goals, language, culture,*	Assessment tools meet expectations; Performance data meets expectations and, program is *using data* to improve teaching and learning and to inform program planning. Program report indicates specific unique or innovative strengths in relation to this standard that respond to needs of candidates, to community or state context, or to critical issues in field including: Participation in innovative or transformative initiatives, partnerships or research projects *or* sustained and meaningful use of data to inform program planning over time, that support candidate learning and performance on the standard.

	and individual characteristics to build relationships and engage families in children's learning from birth through age 8 with competence appropriate for an Initial / beginning early childhood teacher. Program is *using data* to improve teaching and learning and to inform program planning	

APPENDIX D

NCATE UNIT STANDARDS (2008) – STANDARD 4: DIVERSITY

Standard 4: *Diversity*

The unit designs, implements, and evaluates curriculum and provides experiences for candidates to acquire and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students learn. Assessments indicate that candidates can demonstrate and apply proficiencies related to diversity. Experiences provided for candidates include working with diverse populations, including higher education and P–12 school faculty, candidates, and students in P–12 schools.

4a. DESIGN, IMPLEMENTATION, AND EVALUATION OF CURRICULUM AND EXPERIENCES

UNACCEPTABLE

The unit has not articulated candidate proficiencies related to diversity identified in the unit's conceptual framework. The curriculum and field experiences for the preparation of educators do not prepare candidates to work effectively with diverse populations, including English language learners and students with exceptionalities. Candidates do not understand the importance of diversity in teaching and learning. They are not developing skills for incorporating diversity into their teaching and are not able to establish a classroom and school climate that values diversity. Assessments of candidate proficiencies do not include data on candidates' ability to incorporate multiple perspectives into their teaching or service, develop lessons or services for students with different learning styles, accommodate linguistically and culturally diverse students and students with exceptionalities, and communicate effectively with diverse populations.

ACCEPTABLE

The unit clearly articulates proficiencies related to diversity identified in the unit's conceptual framework that candidates are expected to develop during their professional programs. Curriculum and field experiences provide a well-grounded framework for understanding diversity, including English language learners and students with exceptionalities. Candidates are aware of different learning styles and adapt instruction or services appropriately for all students, including linguistically and culturally diverse students and students with exceptionalities. Candidates connect lessons, instruction, or services to students' experiences and cultures. They communicate with students and families in ways that demonstrate sensitivity to cultural and gender differences. Candidates incorporate multiple perspectives in the subject matter being taught or services being provided. They develop a classroom and school climate that values diversity. Candidates demonstrate classroom behaviors that are consistent with the ideas of fairness and the belief that all students can learn. Candidate proficiencies related to diversity are assessed, and the data are used to provide feedback to candidates for improving their

knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions for helping students from diverse populations learn.

TARGET

Curriculum, field experiences, and clinical practice promote candidates' development of knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions related to diversity identified in the unit's conceptual framework. They are based on well-developed knowledge bases for, and conceptualizations of, diversity and inclusion so that candidates can apply them effectively in schools. Candidates learn to contextualize teaching and draw effectively on representations from the students' own experiences and cultures. They challenge students toward cognitive complexity and engage all students, including English language learners and students with exceptionalities, through instructional conversation. Candidates and faculty regularly review candidate assessment data on candidates' ability to work with all students and develop a plan for improving their practice and the institution's programs.

4b. EXPERIENCES WORKING WITH DIVERSE FACULTY

UNACCEPTABLE

Candidates in conventional or distance learning programs interact with professional education faculty, faculty from other units, and/or school faculty who are from one gender group or are members of only one ethnic/racial group. Professional education and school faculty have limited knowledge and experiences related to diversity. The unit has not demonstrated good-faith efforts to recruit and maintain male and female faculty from diverse ethnic/racial groups.

ACCEPTABLE

Candidates in conventional and distance learning programs interact with professional education faculty, faculty from other units, and/or school faculty, both male and female, from at least two ethnic/racial groups. Faculty with whom candidates work in professional education classes and clinical practice have knowledge and experiences related to preparing candidates to work with diverse student populations, including English language learners and students with exceptionalities. Affirmation of the value of diversity is shown through good-faith efforts to increase or maintain faculty diversity.

TARGET

Candidates in conventional and distance learning programs interact with professional education faculty, faculty in other units, and school faculty from a broad range of diverse groups. Higher education and school faculty with whom candidates work throughout their preparation program are knowledgeable about and sensitive to preparing candidates to work with diverse students, including students with exceptionalities.

4c. EXPERIENCES WORKING WITH DIVERSE CANDIDATES

UNACCEPTABLE

Candidates engage in professional education experiences in conventional or distance learning programs with candidates who are from one gender group or from the same socioeconomic group or ethnic/racial group. Unit activities for candidates do not encourage or support the involvement of candidates from diverse populations. The unit has not demonstrated good-faith efforts to increase or maintain a pool of candidates, both male and female, from diverse socioeconomic and ethnic/racial groups.

ACCEPTABLE

Candidates engage in professional education experiences in conventional and distance learning programs with male and female candidates from different socioeconomic groups, and at least two ethnic/racial groups. They work together on committees and education projects related to education and the content areas. Affirmation of the value of diversity is shown through good-faith efforts the unit makes to increase or maintain a pool of candidates, both male and female, from diverse socioeconomic and ethnic/racial groups.

TARGET

Candidates engage in professional education experiences in conventional and distance learning programs with candidates from the broad range of diverse groups. The active participation of candidates from diverse cultures and with different experiences is solicited, valued, and promoted in classes, field experiences, and clinical practice. Candidates reflect on and analyze these experiences in ways that enhance their development and growth as professionals.

4d. EXPERIENCES WORKING WITH DIVERSE STUDENTS IN P–12 SCHOOLS

UNACCEPTABLE

In conventional or distance learning programs, not all candidates participate in field experiences or clinical practices with exceptional students and students from diverse ethnic/racial, gender, language, and socioeconomic groups. The experiences do not help candidates reflect on diversity or develop skills for having a positive effect on student learning for all students.

ACCEPTABLE

Field experiences or clinical practice for both conventional and distance learning programs provide experiences with male and female P–12 students from different socioeconomic groups and at least two ethnic/racial groups. Candidates also work with English language learners and students with disabilities during some of their field experiences and/or clinical practice to develop and practice their knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions for working with all students.

Feedback from peers and supervisors helps candidates reflect on their ability to help all students learn.

TARGET

Extensive and substantive field experiences and clinical practices for both conventional and distance learning programs are designed to encourage candidates to interact with exceptional students and students from a broad range of diverse groups. The experiences help candidates confront issues of diversity that affect teaching and student learning and develop strategies for improving student learning and candidates' effectiveness as teachers.

APPENDIX E

DISTINCTIONS OF FOUR SUPPORT SERVICES (COSTA & GARMSTON, 2002)

Attribute	Cognitive Coaching	Collaborating	Consulting	Evaluating
Conversations focus on:	Metacognition, decision-making processes, perceptions, values, mental models.	Generating information, co-planning, co-teaching, problem solving, and action research.	Policies, procedures, behaviors, strategies, techniques, and events.	Professional criteria, expectations, standards, and rubrics.
The intention is:	To transform the effectiveness of decision-making, mental models, thoughts, perceptions, and habituate reflection.	To form ideas, approaches, solutions, and focus for inquiry.	To inform regarding student needs, pedagogy, curriculum, policies, and procedures and to provide technical assistance. To apply teaching standards.	To conform to a set of standards and criteria adopted by the organization.
The purposes are:	To enhance and habituate self-directed learning: self-managing, self-monitoring, self-modifying.	To solve instructional problems, to apply and test shared ideas, to learn together.	To increase pedagogical and content knowledge and skills. To institutionalize, accepted practices and policies.	To judge and rate performance according to understood externally produced standards.
The conversations are characterized by:	Mediating, listening, questioning, pausing, paraphrasing, probing, withholding advice, judgments, or	Mutual brainstorming, clarifying, advocating, deciding, testing, assessing. "How should we approach	Rationale, advice, suggestions, demonstrations. "Here are several ways to approach this."	Judgments, encouragements, advice, direction, goal setting. "Your approach to this was good. Here is why."

	interpretations. "What might be some ways to approach this?"	this?"		
The support person's identity in relation to the teacher is:	Mediator of thinking.	Colleague.	Expert.	Boss.
The source of empowerment to perform this function stems from:	Trust. Competence in the maps, and values of Cognitive Coaching.	Trust. Competence in forming partnerships. Knowledge and skill sin the areas being explored.	Trust. Competence in consulting skills. Expertise in relevant areas.	Policy. Authority is by position, licensed, authorized by law, or a negotiated agreement to evaluate. Evaluators are held accountable for judgments and actions regarding work quality.
The source(s) of criteria and judgments about performance is (are):	The teacher. "How will you know that you are successful?"	The teacher and colleague. "How will we know that we are successful?"	The consultant. "Here's how you'll know that you are successful."	The evaluator in reference to established criteria. "Here's how I'll know that you are successful."

APPENDIX F

LITERATURE REVIEW ON COGNITIVE COACHING WITH PSTS AND/OR NOVICE TEACHERS, 2004-2014

Source	Journal	Participants and Methods	Results
Bates, Ramirez, & Drits (2009)	*The Teacher Educator*	3 supervisors and 12 teacher education students. Collective case studies.	Findings include: (a) an understanding of critical reflection is something that builds over time; (b) modeling, guiding, and communicating the importance of critical reflection in teaching practice through supervisory stance helps teacher candidates develop critically reflective practices; (c) developing critical reflection in their individual and shared practices takes time for both parties.
Bullough & Draper (2004)	*Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*	9 secondary school mentor teachers and 14 secondary education interns representing math, English, history, social studies, and biology. Qualitative research methods.	The authors found that to maximize the value of mentoring new teachers of mentoring should be given a glimpse into its difficulty as part of engaging in rich conversations about teaching and learning.
McGatha (2008)	*Teacher Development*	2 coaches, 2 (in-service) teachers. Case studies approach.	The data was analyzed using a framework from CC. The results of this study support Costa and Garmston's findings that these support functions serve different intention and are not equally useful in moving teachers towards becoming reflective, self-directed practitioners. They found: (a) clearly defining

			the role of the coach and the goal of the coaching experiences was imperative, and (b) both coaches in the study felt that model teaching was not the best vehicle for supporting their teachers' professional growth.
Schmidt (2008)	*Teaching and Teacher Education*	1 coach/novice music teacher/supervisor and 2 preservice teachers Qualitative study, using multiple data sources.	The participant's progress seemed related to the quality of his relationship with different mentors. An unanticipated factor in his success was his participating as s supervisor/mentor for two PSTs. It became a mutually beneficial relationship. Reciprocal relationships developed.
Schwille (2008)	*American Journal of Education*	26 pairs of mentors and novices from the United States, England, and China. Of the 12 U.S. mentor-novice pairs, four were in an induction program and eight were in preservice programs. Qualitative study, using multiple data sources.	After drawing on data from a cross-national study of PST and beginning teachers and their mentors to examine questions, it concludes that, much like teaching, mentoring that is aimed at helping novices learn to teach is a professional practice with a repertoire of skill sets that must be learned over time.
Strong & Baron (2004)	*Teaching and Teacher Education*	16 veteran teacher mentors and their beginning teacher protégés. Qualitative methods: Sixty-four conversations between the veteran teacher mentors and their mentees were examined and	The analysis reveals the efforts of mentors to avoid giving direct advice, and a corpus that includes many indirect suggestions, about one-third of which produce elaborated responses from the novice teachers. It is suggested that the observed conversational patterns may be largely explained by the philosophy of the program (based on the CC model) of which mentors and beginning teachers are

		analyzed.	a part.
Varrati, Lavine, & Turner (2009)	*Teachers College Record*	10 principals Interpretive qualitative research project that attempted a measure of self-reporting through in-depth interviews.	A new conceptual model of collaboration (three supports for PST: mentor, supervisor, and principal) was presented to include the principal with the PST, university supervisor, and CT in a community of practice for teacher preparation.
Zozakiewicz (2010)	*The Teacher Educator*	2 preservice teachers and 1 mentor/researcher Collective case study, which works to examine several cases simultaneously in order to investigate a phenomenon.	The study defines and describes the practices of culturally responsive mentoring and examines the impact it has on two student teachers in the field.

APPENDIX G

ALL-LEVEL (EC-12) GENERIC SPECIAL EDUCATION CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

All-Level (EC-12) Generic Special Education Certification

127 Semester Hours Required

The course listings below are to be used as guides to assist you with selecting a schedule, and should be used in conjunction with the degree plan. These courses can be taken during the fall, spring, and in some cases, summer terms. Twelve to 15 hours are recommended during the fall and spring semesters. **You are encouraged to consult with your academic advisor when finalizing your schedule each semester.**

First Year (Suggested Courses)	**Second Year (Suggested Courses)**
UGS 302 or 303 RHE 306 (Enrollment is based on birth month - Even months can take it in fall; and Odd in spring) PSY 301 *M 301, 302, M 303D, M 305G, M 316 or calculus (check for prerequisites) Visual and Performing Arts (Art History, Art, Music, Theatre & Dance, Studio Art) NSC 306J NSC 306K (prereq: NSC 306J with grade of C- or better) US HIS, 3 hours required (HIS 315G, HIS 315K, HIS 315L, HIS 314K, or class that fulfills US requirement, check headnote) ***M 316K (prerequisite: M 302, M 303D, M 305G, or M 316 with grade of C- or better) GOV 310L (prereq: 12 hrs of college credit) Cultural Diversity Flag Course (identified w/"CD" in course schedule) ***ALD 320 or 321 ***HDF 313/113 or PSY 304 (prereq: PSY 301 with grade of C or better) INF 322T 42-43 hours	E 316K (prerequisite: at least 30 hours completed, including RHE 306) M 316L (prerequisite: M316K with grade of C or better) NSC 306L or NSC 306M (prerequisite: NSC 306J, and NSC 306K) US HIS, 3 hours required (HIS 315G, HIS 315K, HIS 315L, HIS 314K, or class that fulfills US requirement, check headnote) "Language Other Than English" (2 semesters required, or proficiency up through the 2nd semester) GOV 312L (prerequisite GOV 310L and 24 hours of college credit) **Elective(s) *****Foundations Semester (12 hours)** ALD 322 – Reading Methods (1-8) ALD 327 – Socio. Infl. On Learning (Wr.) SED 376 – Trends and Issues In SED SED 332 – Field Exp. In SED 36 -37 hours
Third Year **Intern I (12 hours)** EDC 670EA – Reading Methods (1-8) EDC 670EB – Lang. Arts Meth (1-8) (Wr.) EDC 331E – School Org. & Class. Mgmt. ALD 328 – Applied Human Learning (Wr.) **Intern II (12 hours)** ALD 326 – Lang. of Children With and Without Disab (Wr.) SED 378E – Adv. Early Child Interv. SED 378D – Assmnt. Pract. in Autism & Dev. Disabilities SED 378S – Teach. Indiv. W/Autism & Dev. Disabilities 24 hours	**Fourth Year** **Intern III (12 hours):** SED 375C – Teach. Indiv. With Mild/Moderate Disabilities SED 378R – Reading Difficulties With Diverse Populations EDC 370E – Math Methods (1-8) SED 372 – Assmnt. Of Indiv. With Mild/Moderate Disabilities **Student Teaching (12 hours):** SED 337 – Intercultural Comm. And Collaboration SED 960 – Apprenticeship: Research To Practice 24 hours

*M 301 is only countable if taken at a Texas Public Institution and counts as a Core Requirement at that school
**Elective hours may be required to reach 127 hours.
***Grade of C or better must be made in these courses to enter the PDS.

APPENDIX H

OVERVIEW OF INTERN I FIELD EXPERIENCE

Cohort 8 ✧ Department of Special Education ✧ Fall 2014

"Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I remember. Involve me and I learn." – Benjamin Franklin

Website: http://tinyurl.com/cohort8-CT

Observation forms; policies and procedures regarding student placements, language proficiency, attendance, etc.; and course syllabi are all available on this website. Please bookmark it.

OVERVIEW OF INTERNSHIP SEMESTER (INTERN IIS)

- Courses: Reading Methods, Language Arts Methods, Foundations of Positive Behavior Support, School Organization and Classroom Management*

  *Course associated with the internship

EXPECTATIONS FOR INTERNS

- Perfect attendance and on time
  - Any missed days will be made up in December or on Fridays (if agreed upon by you and the facilitator in advance)
- Designing and delivering at least 15 whole class lessons in a variety of subjects
- Other internship activities can and should include: working with small groups and individuals, attending IEP meetings, grading, preparing progress reports or report cards, attending parent/teacher conferences, assisting in parent communication, assisting with behavior management, observations of CT and other teachers on campus, preparing materials, lunch duty, recess duty, going to specials with students, designing bulletin boards/learning centers, going to grade-level team meetings, etc.

APPENDIX I

SIWATU'S (2007) CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

The Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale

Appraisal Inventory

How confident are you that you can do each of the following tasks described below? Rate how confident you are that you can achieve each of the following by indicating a probability of success from 0 (no chance) 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 probability.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
No Chance	**Very Little Chance**		**Little Chance**		**50/50 Chance**	**Good Chance**		**Very Good Chance**		**Completely Certain**

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 others.

___ 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 effect 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 backgrounds 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 using their native language.

___ 19. Design a classroom environment using displays that reflects a variety of cultures.

___ 20. Develop a personal relationship with my students.

___ 21. Obtain information about my students' academic weaknesses.

___ 22. Praise English Language Learners for their accomplishments using a phrase in their native language.

___ 23. Identify ways that standardized tests may be biased towards linguistically diverse students.

___ 24. Communicate with parents regarding their child's educational progress.

___ 25. Structure parent-teacher conferences so that the meeting is not intimidating for parents.

___ 26. Help students to develop positive relationships with their classmates.

___ 27. Revise instructional materials to include a better representation of cultural groups.

___ 28. Critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it reinforces negative cultural stereotypes.

___ 29. Design a lesson that shows how other cultural groups have made use of mathematics.

___ 30. Model classroom tasks to enhance English Language Learners' understanding of classroom tasks.

___ 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 makes my students' developmental needs.

APPENDIX J

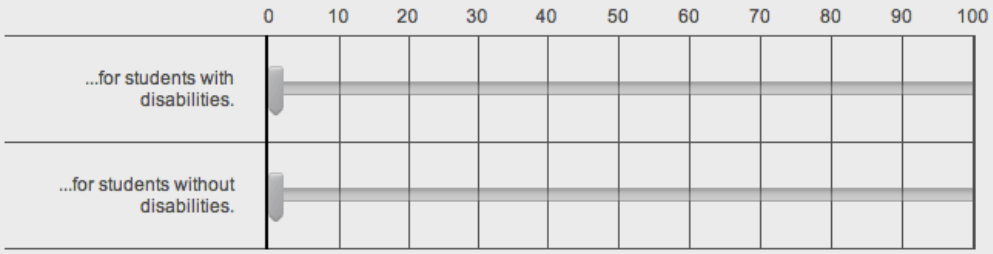
MODIFIED CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE TEACHING SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

SAMPLE ITEM

For each of the 40 items, how confident are you that you can do each of the following related to teaching students with and without disabilities? Rate how confident you are that you can achieve each of the following **as of now** by indicating a probability of success from 0 (no chance) 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 probability.

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
very little chance little chance 50/50 chance very good chance completely certain

1. Adapt instruction to meet the needs of my students...



APPENDIX K

Consent for Participation in Research

Title

Special education preservice teachers' changes in self-efficacy to serve culturally and linguistically diverse students while completing their first field experience.

Introduction

The purpose of this form is to provide you information that may affect your decision as to whether or not to participate in this research study. The person performing the research will answer any of your questions. Read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to be involved in this study, this form will be used to record your consent.

Purpose of the Study

You have been asked to participate in a research study about special education preservice teachers' changes in self-efficacy to serve culturally and linguistically diverse students while completing the first field experience. The first purpose of the study is to explore whether preservice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs change after completing the first field experience. The second purpose is to explore how preservice special education teachers describe changes in their self-efficacy beliefs to teach diverse students with and without disabilities during and after they have completed their first field experience.

What will you be asked to do?

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to:

1. Grant permission to one university facilitator (Ray Ostendorf) to access your responses to the two administrations of the *Modified Culturally Responsive Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale*. One administration was completed June 2014 and is existing data and a second administration would be completed in December 2014.

Additionally, approximately 5-7 participants from the cohort will be asked to:

1. Grant permission to one university facilitator (Ray Ostendorf) to access selected EDC 331 related documents during the Fall 2014 semester, to include: (a) facilitator observation forms, (b) lesson plans, (c) reflective journals, (d) internship activity assignments, and (e) final reflection papers.
2. Participate in one individual interview upon completing the first field experience after the end of the Fall 2014 semester, but before February 15, 2015, during a time of your convenience and a location of your preference. This would take approximately 60 minutes.
3. Participate in the researcher's member-check to clarify information and/or verify his perceptions of data. This would take place during the Spring 2015 semester at a day, time, and location of your convenience. This would take approximately 30 minutes.

The first phase of the study will take place over the Fall 2014 semester and will not require any additional work on your part. If you were selected among the 5-7 participants for an

individual interview and member check, they would take approximately 90 minutes of your time in total.

If you are selected to participate in the individual interview and member check, your participation will be recorded for transcription purposes only.

What are the risks involved in this study?

There are no foreseeable risks to participating in this study.

What are the possible benefits of this study?

You will receive no direct benefit from participating in this study; however, the findings and recommendations from the study can be used to develop more effective supervising, coaching, and/or mentoring practices of preservice teachers. Teacher educators and school administrators will also benefit from the dissemination of this study. It is the ultimate goal that this study will benefit diverse students with and without disabilities in the public schools.

Do you have to participate?

No, your participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate at all or, if you start the study, you may withdraw at any time. Withdrawal or refusing to participate will not affect your relationship with the university in any way.

If you would like to participate, please sign this consent form and return it to [name omitted] or Ray Ostendorf personally, or return it to [name omitted] mailbox in [building omitted]. You will receive a copy of this form.

Will there be any compensation?

You will not receive any type of payment for participating in this study. Your grade for any courses taken at the university will not be impacted positively or negatively by your participation.

How will your privacy and confidentiality be protected if you participate in this research study?

Your privacy and the confidentiality of your data will be protected. The researcher will assign pseudonyms to participants and the elementary schools that host the field experiences, to maintain anonymity. The list linking pseudonyms to participants will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher's home and would only be used by the researcher and possibly the undergraduate adviser [name omitted]. Upon the data collection stage of the study, all data and data sources that are not pertinent to the research questions will be destroyed.

If you choose to participate in this study, you may be selected for an interview and a member check. All interviews and member checks will be audio taped and transcribed. Upon the data analysis stage of the study, all data and data sources that are not pertinent to the research questions will be destroyed to maintain confidentiality. Personal names will not be included on the transcripts or data sources; the assigned pseudonyms will be used on all documents. Any audio recordings will be stored securely in the researcher's home and only the researcher and possibly the undergraduate adviser [name omitted] will have access to the recordings and

data sources. They will be saved using the assigned pseudonym and the date of the recording. Recordings will be kept until July 1, 2015 and then erased.

If it becomes necessary for the Institutional Review Board to review the study records, information that can be linked to you will be protected to the extent permitted by law. Your research records will not be released without your consent unless required by law or a court order. The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate it with you, or with your participation in any study.

Whom to contact with questions about the study?

Prior, during or after your participation you can contact the researcher, Ray Ostendorf, at [phone number omitted] or send an email to [email address omitted].

Whom to contact with questions concerning your rights as a research participant?

For questions about your rights or any dissatisfaction with any part of this study, you can contact, anonymously if you wish, the Institutional Review Board by phone at [contact information omitted].

Participation

If you agree to participate please sign this participation consent form and return it to either Ray Ostendorf or [name omitted].

Signature

You have been informed about this study's purpose, procedures, possible benefits and risks, and you have received a copy of this form. You have been given the opportunity to ask questions before you sign, and you have been told that you can ask other questions at any time. You voluntarily agree to participate in this study. By signing this form, you are not waiving any of your legal rights.

NOTE: If you are among the participants selected for an individual interview and member check:

_____ I agree to be audio recorded.

_____ I do not want to be audio recorded.

_____

Printed Name

_____ _____

Signature Date

As a representative of this study, I have explained the purpose, procedures, benefits, and the risks involved in this research study.

_____

Print Name of Person obtaining consent

_____	_____
Signature of Person obtaining consent	Date

APPENDIX L

Facilitator Formal Observation Form

Intern Name: Observer Name: Date:
School: Setting:
Time: Observation #:

Content Area (circle one): Reading Math Social Skills Other:

Instruction
○ Instructions were explained in accessible language ○ Modeling (or think-aloud) was evident ○ Content/concepts (e.g., critical vocabulary) were explained in accessible language ○ Individualized and specific feedback was provided to students for content and process ○ Relevant and appropriate scaffolds were provided to students and/or groups ○ Students given multiple opportunities to practice ○ Checks for understanding were conducted ○ Corrective feedback was given
Classroom/Behavior Management
○ Behavior expectations were clearly stated ○ Behavior expectations appropriate for the group/classroom ○ Pacing was appropriate ○ Student behavior was monitored ○ Positive behavior was reinforced ○ Inappropriate behavior was ignored/redirected ○ Environment was conducive to learning
Notes/Running Record

Debrief:

1. How do you think it went?

2. What would you do the same/differently?

3. What (if anything) changed in what you thought you could do?

4. How was your lesson culturally and/or linguistically responsive?

5. Two action steps for next lesson you teach (determined by facilitator; should be measurable, easy-to-implement actions student intern/teacher can implement):

APPENDIX M

ALD 327: SOCIOCULTURAL INFLUENCES ON LEARNING

SPRING 2014

Course expectations: This course provides an overview of essential concepts related to the understanding of culture, disability, and multicultural education. Topics include the cultural contexts of socialization and human development, school and organizational culture, dimensions of cultural variability, socio-political factors related to difference, and intercultural competence. We will explore application of these concepts to classroom practices to ensure that they are responsive to, and appropriate for children and youth with disabilities from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) communities. In particular, we will analyze the socio-cultural foundations of schooling and society so that we may better understand the complex, dynamic interrelationships between culture, language and disability. In turn, these concepts provide the basis for developing a culturally and linguistically responsive practice. You will have opportunities to identify the potential interface between your personal and professional identities and their influence on future roles you may assume, such as teacher, counselor, researcher, teacher educator, administrator, or policy maker.

Standards-Based Goals and Learning Outcomes

Professional and ethical standards of practice when serving individuals with disabilities emphasize the need for culturally and linguistically responsive practice, making this an important aspect of your graduate education. These standards are published in, *What Every Special Educator Must Know* (Council for Exceptional Children [CEC], 2009). It is in this context that this course has been designed to promote the development of your teaching skills by increasing your knowledge of basic principles of teaching children and youth who are culturally and linguistically diverse, applying these principles to educational and counseling contexts, and experiencing the process in a non-judgmental, non-threatening environment. By the end of the semester you should be able to demonstrate:

1. An increased understanding of the influence of culture on family systems—including socialization of young children—with emphasis on serving individuals with disabilities and their families in educational/counseling settings;
2. Knowledge of the cultural dimensions along which groups and organizations demonstrate differences and similarities, with implications for inter- and intra-group communication;

3. Knowledge of the principles of intercultural communication and implications for general and special education contexts;
4. An understanding of the influence of socio-cultural and linguistic variability on the communication process, including verbal and nonverbal interaction styles, ingroup-outgroup dynamics, and conflict management;
5. Ability to apply the principles of intercultural communication to general and special education contexts, including effective communication with individuals/families, assessment, intervention, and research; and
6. Increased self-awareness of socio-cultural influences on your own worldview and identity, including values, beliefs, communication patterns, teaching/counseling styles and professional ethics. Implications for your professional growth will be a primary focus of this objective.

A variety of approaches––including class lectures, discussions, simulations, group activities, exercises, and written assignments––will be utilized to achieve course objectives.

APPENDIX N

LESSON PLAN TEMPLATE, FALL 2014

PRE-PLANNING	OBJECTIVE. What will your students be able to do?	TEKS	
LESSON CYCLE	ANTICIPATORY SET /FRAMING (__ min.) How will you communicate *what* is about to happen? How will you communicate *how* it will happen? How will you communicate its *importance*? How will you communicate *connections* to previous lessons? How will you engage students and capture their interest? How will you set behavior expectations?		MATERIALS.
	MODELING/GUIDED PRACTICE (__ min.) What key points will you emphasize and reiterate while thinking aloud? How will you demonstrate what you want students to do? How will you vary your approach to make information accessible to all students? How will you allow students to practice? How will you check for understanding? Why will students be engaged/interested?		MATERIALS.

	INDEPENDENT PRACTICE. (__ min.) How will you clearly state and model behavioral expectations? How will you check for understanding? In what ways will students attempt to demonstrate independent mastery of the objective? How will you provide opportunities for extension? Why will students be engaged/interested? How will students seek help? What can early finishers do?	MATERIALS.
	CLOSING. (__ min.) How will you review the lesson objectives? How will students be asked to state the significance of what they learned? How will you tie this to future learning? Why will students be engaged/interested?	MATERIALS.
KEY POINTS. What three to five key points will you emphasize?		
ACCOMMODATIONS What accommodations do you need to make for diverse learners?		

REFLECTION

Did your students meet the objective?

What would you do the same?

What would you do differently?

APPENDIX O

REFLECTIVE JOURNAL ASSIGNMENTS AND INTERNSHIP ACTIVITIES, EDC 331

FALL 2014

Reflective Journal # 11:

Linda teaches as an elementary school located in a low socioeconomic area, and most of the parents are not proficient in English. Her students are culturally diverse and learning English as a second language. Parent participation at the school is generally minimal. During most IEP meetings and student conferences, a translator facilitates the communication between teachers and the parent. All too often, the parents are silent partners in this decision-making process. Linda doesn't know if this is due to a lack of parental education, a language barrier, not knowing their rights, or a lack of concern. Linda wants to change this, but she isn't sure where to begin.

For one of her classes she is taking to earn master's degree, Linda had read about the concept of "personalismo," which she understood to mean making personal connections with families. She had read that for many families, this personal connection was what was most important. Linda wondered how personal the connection was at the IEP meetings. Everything seemed so formal and legalistic, which forms to be signed and reports to be read. How could she apply this notion of "personalismo" in her dealings with parents at IEP meetings? She also had been reading that for some families, teachers are so highly respected that it would be a sign of great disrespect for a parent to "speak up" to a teacher at a meeting. How could she deal with this? She wanted the parents of her students to "speak up" but if their culture didn't value this, should she push the issue?

1. What are some of the cultural and linguistic factors that might lead families to be "silent partners" with the school staff? What suggestions do you have for Linda to make more personal connections with the families of her students?

2. What are the cultural and historical factors that may be contributing to the formal nature of the IEP meetings that Linda has experienced?

Internship Activity #5:

Make a chart with the following information. Use pseudonyms to protect students' confidentiality.

1. How many males? Females?
2. List the ethnicity of your students and the number of each. For some students, you may have to guess their ethnicity. Appropriate categories include (but aren't limited to): African American, Caucasian, Latino, Asian American.
3. Are there students who have a language other than English as their native language? List the students and the languages. How is this accommodated for in their instruction?
4. Are there students who are bilingual? Who and in what languages?
5. What is the cultural diversity of the class? Is everyone the same ethnicity? Do you notice differences between students who may share the same ethnic background? What about you and the teacher? Are you all similar to each other? To the students? One example is that you may have two students who are both bilingual and Latino. However, one was born in Austin, the other moved here from Peru six weeks ago - same ethnicity, but pretty diverse backgrounds.
6. Who are the students with special needs? What are the special needs of each one (name them and any identified special education label or concern for "at-risk")? Discuss the accommodations required/made for each person named.

Internship Activity # 9:

Observe the students during a part of a lesson in which the teacher is leading the instruction. Note the students who are interested, active participants. Note those students who seem to be off-task, daydreaming, or somehow less involved with the lesson. Do this for a second lesson. Is it the same students or different students in each group? Summarize your thoughts as to why some students may not have been paying careful attention. Include any ideas for getting the non-involved students into the lesson. Again, please use pseudonyms to protect students' confidentiality.

Reflective Journal Assignment

Please read the passage below:

"I came to the United States for the first time as a graduate student, after having taught in special schools in India for several years and began working with adults with developmental disabilities who lived in a group home. One of the first tasks I was assigned was to teach them community living skills. My supervisor suggested taking the individual with whom I was working out to eat in a restaurant. I set off confidently to the nearest restaurant with my client, Gary, a young man with moderate intellectual disability; after all, I thought I knew what to expect. To me, a restaurant is a place where you go eat. You wait to be seated, your waiter provides you with a menu, gives you time to choose, takes your order, and brings you your food. Then you eat your meal, pay the bill, leave a tip for the waiter, and leave.

Gary and I entered a fast-food restaurant. It was the first time in my life that I had entered a fast-food restaurant, and I realized, very quickly, that the rules here were very different from what I knew. As I hesitated, Gary sized up the situation. Taking my hand, he led me to where the end of a line of people who, I realized with a start, were not waiters but customers waiting to place their orders. Gary pointed to the bewildering array of choices displayed on a sign above my head—bewildering because the menu did not read from top to bottom in traditional fashion but in blocks across the wall. I looked at the first block and began to make a choice when, as I came to the end of the list, I discovered that this block was for breakfast only and not available after 10 a.m. Then I looked at the second block and started to choose from the list when Gary directed my attention to the third block; I learned later that the second block was for specialty items. It seemed that despite the array of choices, our impecunious circumstances restricted us to a single option—the value meals in the third block.

By the time I had recognized the subtle differences between a Number 1 value meal (i.e., cheeseburger, fries, medium drink) and a Number 2 value meal (i.e., double cheeseburger, fries, medium drink), we had reached the front of the line. But before I could say anything, the lady behind the counter said, "For here-to-go?" I stared absolutely blankly at her. What on earth did that mean? Was she speaking in English? When I did not respond immediately, Gary stepped up and replied, "Here." With obvious relief, the woman turned to him and directed all subsequent questions, including my order, to him. We carried our trays to a small table to which Gary led us; later, he showed me how to "bus" or table." (p. 15-16)*

In your internship in the general education classrooms, have you ever found yourself feeling the same way as the special education professional in this vignette? How might this scenario be helpful for special education teachers to consider?

*Kalyanpur, M. (2012). Legal and epistemological underpinnings of the construction of disability: Maya's story. In M. Kalyanpur and B. Harry, *Culture in special education: Building reciprocal family-professional partnerships* (pp. 33-55). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

APPENDIX P

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Pseudonym:
School: Cannon Elementary OR Sycamore Elementary
District: Sweetbriar ISD
Date and Time:

The interviewer may ask the first three questions and record the participant's response, or ask the participant to complete them, in writing, individually:

1. What is your gender?

2. What is your racial, cultural, and/or ethnic background? Select as many as apply:
   - ___ American Indian (only)
   - ___ Asian or Asian-American (only)
   - ___ Black or African-American (only)
   - ___ Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (only)
   - ___ Hispanic (only)
   - ___ White (only)
   - ___ Other (only)
   - ___ Two or More Races or Ethnicities: Select as many as apply:
     - ___ American Indian
     - ___ Asian or Asian-American
     - ___ Black or African-American
     - ___ Hawaiian/Pacific Islander
     - ___ Hispanic
     - ___ White
     - ___ Other

3. What languages do you speak and at what level of proficiency (e.g., fluent, proficient, or beginning)?

The interviewer should ask the remaining questions and audio record the participant's responses. The interview may use clarifying questions/statements and/or confirming questions/statements (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004) only at this stage of the interview.

4. Prior to the fall semester, what has been your experience (if any) working with students from CLD communities?

5. Prior to the fall semester, what has been your experience (if any) working with students with disabilities from CLD communities?

The interviewer should now provide the participant with his or her scores from the two administrations of the modified CRTSE scale (Siwatu, 2007). The interviewer should give the participant ample time to revisit the items on the scale and consider his or her self-ratings. There is no time limit and the data may be used as much or as little as the participant senses is necessary.

6. Over your first field experience in the general education classroom, did you experience any changes in your perception of what you could do?

    I. (If yes) Please tell me about it. (If an additional prompt is needed) Why was that the case?

    II. (If no) Please tell me about it. (If an additional prompt is needed). Why was that the case?

Clarifying Questions/Statements	Confirming Questions/Statements
So why might that be the case? *To be sure I understand correctly, [INSERT QUESTION HERE].*	*So what is it about the situation that led you to score yourself higher/lower/the same after you completed the internship?*

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