

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
ON TEACHER EFFICACY AND CULTURAL COMPETENCY IN WORKING WITH
LATINO ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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Abstract

Latino English Language Learner (ELL) students comprise of a large portion of students in the United States (Capps, Fix, Muray, Ost, Passel, Herwantoro, 2005; Suarez-Orozco, Rhodes & Milburn, 2009). Many Latino students have lower levels of academic attainment when compared to other ethnic groups (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2010; Swail, Cabrera, & Lee, 2004). Teachers however do not feel fully prepared to teach students from diverse backgrounds (Tucker, Porter, Reinke, Herman, Ivery, Mack, & Johnson, 2005). Two constructs that have been found to be related to student success with diverse populations are teacher efficacy and cultural competency. Utilizing a quasi-experimental, one-group, pre-test, post-test design, this study sought to understand the effect of a monthly, 45 minute, four-part professional development series on both teacher efficacy and cultural competency on participants. Twenty participants from a suburban high school (grades 9-12) located in the mid-Atlantic region completed two scales both pre-test and post-test, and provided demographic data. Quantitative data found both insignificant and significant results. Teacher efficacy was evaluated based on Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE) and General Teaching Efficacy (GTE). There were no statistically significant findings for PTE in participants based on gender, exposure to previous training, and ethnicity. For GTE there were no statistically significant results for participants with previous training or based on ethnicity. There was however an impact for female participants as a result of the four-part professional development series. For the construct of cultural competency there was an increase, specifically in White participants. These results suggest that that four-part professional development series has an impact on this construct.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Allan for his never-ending support and love. To my children, Gustavo and Devin for being the lights of my life and for making every day better. Lastly, to my mother for never giving up on me.

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Executive Summary

According to the 2010 United States census there are 37 million people in the United States who are foreign born (U.S. Census, 2010). Adolescent English Language Learners (ELL) comprise of a large number of this population and are students in their local school districts (Suarez-Orozco, Bang, O’Conner, Gaytan, Pakes, & Rhodes, 2010). The National Clearinghouse for English Acquisition reports (2017a) that in the 2014-2015 school year there were close to five million ELL students in the United States comprising of 9.6% of students. In the same year, it was also reported by 11 states including the District of Colombia that Spanish speaking ELL students specifically accounted for over 80% of the ELL population (National Clearinghouse for English Acquisition, 2017b). Spanish is the primary language for many Latino ELL students (Capps, et al., 2005).

There are various academic factors that can impact these students such as: limitations with the English language (DeCapua, 2016), navigating new educational environments (Suarez- Orozco et al., 2010), and teachers’ abilities to nurture academic attainment while building relationships with students (Bustos Flores, Claeys, Gist, Riojas Clark, & Villarreal, 2015). Two constructs that have been linked to student success, particularly with diverse populations of learners are teacher efficacy and cultural competency. Teacher efficacy refers to a teacher’s belief that they can impact learning in students (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Bruce, Esmonde, Ross, Dookie, & Beatty, 2010) and cultural competency is an awareness of one’s own culture (Purnell, 2005) the cultures of their student’s (Ogbu, 1992;Purnell, 2005), and how it impacts learning (Ogbu, 1992; Siwatu, 2011).

School counselors routinely work with students, families, and school staff. This collaborative role allows them to understand the various perspectives of the multiple stakeholders. A collaboration method that can be implemented is that of counselor led professional development focused on assisting teachers by increasing their teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with diverse populations, specifically Latino ELL students. Research demonstrates that professional development focusing on both teacher efficacy and cultural competency is effective (Busto et al, 2015).

Chapter I

Understanding the Problem of Practice

The Hispanic population increased by 43% between the years 2000 and 2010, due to an increase in immigration (Humes, Jones, & Ramirez, 2011). Specifically, Latinos consist of the largest group of immigrant children (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2009). Immigrant students are enrolling in schools in the United States in record numbers and school districts that serve areas with a large immigrant population must be able to provide academic support (Suarez-Orozco, et al., 2009; Williams & Butler, 2003). Adolescent newcomer immigrant students face various hurdles when they enter the educational system in the United States. These students are expected to learn academic language and both implicit (hidden) and explicit (overt) curricula to which native born peers have been exposed to their entire academic careers (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2009). In addition to the aforementioned academic hurdles, other difficulties sometimes present themselves while Latino immigrant students are adjusting to the United States. Individual factors such as depression due to acculturation (Katsiaficas, Suarez-Orozco, Sirin, & Taveeshi, 2013) and reunification (Suarez-Orozco, Todorova, & Louie, 2002) have been found in newly arrived Latino English Language Learners (ELL) students. Reunification refers to the stepwise migration process in which one or both parents migrate and leave their child in the care of someone else; the child is sent for once the parents are financially able (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2002). Additionally, there are school factors such as staff preparedness when working with this population that can impact the student.

School staff must be ready to assist these students during this difficult transition period. Many times, high school counselors are called upon by teachers, administrators, and parents to help students who are experiencing academic and behavioral difficulties in school. When assisting students, school counselors collaborate with parents and staff to develop an action plan to best support the student. School counselors can intervene, but teachers are on the front lines of the classrooms. Collaboration between school counselors and teachers is necessary when assisting students, particularly ELL students. More specifically, school counselors can assist teachers who work with the Latino ELL population by increasing their efficacy in working with this population. This is imperative because teacher efficacy impacts motivation in teachers, classroom practices, and consequently, achievement in students (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Moreover, when teachers have low efficacy beliefs, they avoid tasks that they do not feel equipped for, and they doubt their ability to impact their students' learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986). In sum, "Teachers' sense of efficacy is one of the few teacher characteristics consistently related to student achievement" (Tucker et al., 2005, p. 29).

In addition to impacting teacher efficacy, school counselors can advocate for their students and engage in dialogue and trainings with school staff targeting their cultural competency. Educators who work with diverse students are tasked with providing top quality, challenging instruction that nurtures academic attainment in all students (McAllister & Irvin, 2000). In order for teachers to work successfully with their diverse students, they must understand their own worldviews and the worldviews of their students' which includes their cultures (McAllister & Irvin, 2000). This can be accomplished by making teachers aware of the cultural differences and difficulties that

the Latino ELL population experiences. In order to best support Latino ELL students, school counselors need to assist teachers by preparing them to be efficacious and culturally competent educators.

Theoretical Framework

Albert Bandura introduced the concept of self-efficacy as a major factor that impacts the activities that one chooses based on the expected success. Efficacy expectations affect a person's level of persistence and the effort that is put forth in the activity; a stronger sense of efficacy will yield more active efforts (Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977). This concept of efficacy has been applied to the educational setting; specifically, teacher efficacy is defined as the condition specific belief that an educator holds on the degree to which they can help their students to learn (Ashton & Webb, 1986). This is important because when comparing classrooms taught by teachers with low efficacy with teachers with strong efficacy beliefs, the high efficacy classrooms are: more supportive, students feel secure, and have higher test scores (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Teacher efficacy is connected to student academic achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986., Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Many factors have been found to influence teacher efficacy. These factors include: teacher characteristics (such as gender), teacher ideology (such as political beliefs), class size, school size, school norms which includes school culture, relationships with colleagues, and student characteristics (Ashton & Webb, 1986). When evaluating teacher efficacy and student characteristics, factors such as race, socioeconomic status, classroom conduct, and attractiveness have all been found to impact teachers' expectations (Dusek & Joseph, 1983).

In addition to teacher efficacy, cultural competence also influences teacher and student interactions. To be culturally competent, one must be aware that developing cultural competence is a process that is not always linear (Purnell, 2005). Cultural competence has various characteristics which include abilities and understanding in: one's own culture, the culture of others, valuing and accepting differences in cultures, resisting critical attitudes, an openness and comfort in various cultural encounters, not assuming that your beliefs are the same as the beliefs of others, and adapting interactions so they are compatible with the culture of others (Purnell, 2005). This is a multistep process which progresses from: not being aware that your knowledge is deficient about other cultures, becoming cognizant that your knowledge about other cultures is lacking, acquiring knowledge about the culture of others, to habitually providing culturally compatible services (Purnell, 2005).

Cultural competence in education is necessary because teachers need to be aware of the various cultures and worldviews of their students (Ogbu, 1992). When educators are unprepared to work with diverse students, they are not always able to provide a learning environment with high standards that encourages educational attainment (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). Cultural competence in educators is key because they are able to acknowledge and reflect on their biases, learn about their students' cultures, and understand their students' worldviews (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). Furthermore, when teachers are not culturally competent they may unfairly cast-off their students' culture, and be unaware of the differences between the students' culture and the school culture (Molina, 2012). However, when students are in an environment where they feel that their voices are heard and that their backgrounds are important to their classrooms, society,

and the world, they are more likely to see themselves as appreciated members of these communities (Molina, 2012). The aforementioned factors linked to cultural competence are similar to those discussed by Ashton & Webb (1986) as they relate to teacher efficacy (i.e. student characteristics). Therefore, it is conceivable to suggest that both of these constructs can have an impact on student academic attainment. The hypothesized relationship between the two constructs is depicted in Figure 1.

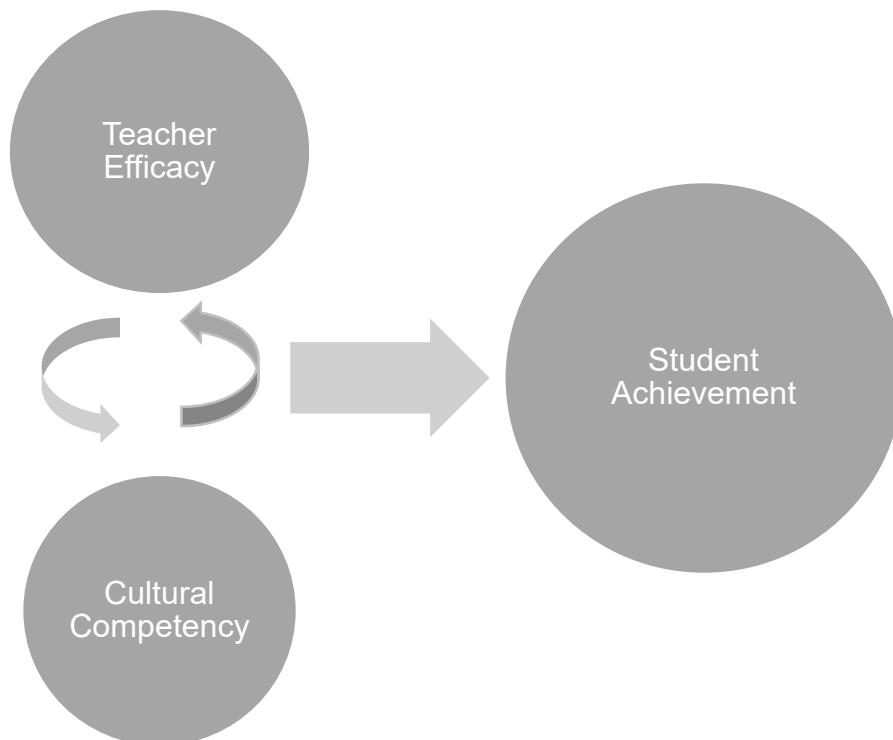


Figure 1. Hypothesized relationship between teacher efficacy, cultural competency, and student achievement.

Statement of the Problem

On average, Latino students have lower levels of academic achievement when compared to other ethnic groups (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2009). They are more likely to be retained, dropout of school, earn less than a C in a class, take lower level math classes, and earn a GED (Swail, et al., 2004). When compared to their White peers,

Latino students have more risk factors (such as siblings who did not compete high school) that may impact their formal education (Swail et al, 2004). School counselors who work with this population hear firsthand accounts of the academic difficulties thus it is their responsibility to advocate for these students. Professional school counselors however have historically been seen as vocational guidance counselors rather than counseling professionals who can provide assistance with various issues (Bemak, 2000). Many of the issues in education are multifaceted and require the assistance of numerous professionals including school counselors. A current problem in education is that many teachers do not feel prepared to teach students from different cultural backgrounds (Tucker, et al., 2005). Specifically, one of the difficulties in preparing teachers stems from developing teachers' capabilities to develop relationships with their students while promoting their educational potential. This is particularly important when working with ELL students (Bustos Flores et al., 2015). Teacher preparation programs do not always offer courses that target diversity and many times these courses are optional which means that a teacher can graduate from a program without any coursework in this field (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). This is significant because: teachers with low teacher efficacy make less positive predictions about student academic success (Tournaki & Podell, 2005), a student's cultural background can affect a teachers' efficacy (Sosa & Gomez, 2012), and teacher efficacy is related to perceived capability when working with culturally diverse students and racial attitudes towards those students (Tucker et al., 2005).

School professionals need to examine the extent to which they are prepared to work with this diverse population (Burnham, Mantero & Hooper, 2009) and school counselors can provide assistance with this process. School counselors should have

collaborative relationships with school staff and take on leadership roles in which they can offer in depth understanding of ELL Latino students. This is a significant deviation from the belief that school counselor's primarily work in isolation (Bemak, 2000). ELL students need to have positive exchanges at school if they are to improve academically and become proficient in English (Burnham et al., 2009). Consequently, preparing teachers with methods to instruct children from diverse backgrounds is of vital importance (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Therefore, the goal of the researcher is to take on the position of a school counselor leader and to prepare teachers by increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with Latino ELL students.

Review of the Literature

This research study explored educator perceptions of their teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with Latino ELL students. This was evaluated after the teachers participated in a school counselor led professional development series. As previously mentioned, Latino ELL students are having a difficult time achieving academic success upon arrival to the United States. In order to examine this problem this literature review will focus on the following: factors associated with academic success, social and emotional factors that impact this population, the role of the school counselor, teacher efficacy, cultural competency, and the benefits of caring educators.

Factors Associated with Academic Success

There are numerous factors that have been linked to academic achievement in students. Researchers Balkis, Arslan, & Duru (2016) conducted a study that sought to examine absenteeism specifically. They were interested in the correlation between personal factors (such as attitudes concerning teachers), the characteristics of the family,

academic attainment, and absenteeism. Participants in study (n=423) were all public high school students. Both demographic and survey data were collected from the participants. There were three major findings in the area of personal factors and absenteeism. First, results indicated that absenteeism was negatively related to a student's belief about their academic capabilities. Secondly, absenteeism was also found to be negatively related to student academic drive. Lastly, there was also a negative relationship between absenteeism and attitudes concerning school and teachers. The researchers also found two family characteristics associated with absenteeism. Both parental educational levels and socioeconomic status were negatively related to absenteeism. In regards to academic attainment and absenteeism, these results indicated that absenteeism directly impacts academic attainment, there is a negative relationship. It is suggested that focus be placed on increasing academic self-perception, and attitudes directed towards school and teachers. Specifically, it is suggested that counselors and school psychologists develop interventions targeting these factors.

In addition to absenteeism, non-promotion is also related to academic attainment. Martin (2011) conducted a study that focused at the consequences of grade retention on both educational (i.e. academic motivation and engagement) and non-educational effects (i.e. self-perception). A total of 3261 students between 7th and 12th grades from six comprehensive schools participated in this study. Of the sample, 186 students reported being retained at some point during their academic careers. Data was collected for four different educational measures: motivation, engagement, self-concept, and self-esteem and relationships with peers. Questionnaires were used for each educational measures. The results demonstrated that grade retention was positively related to absenteeism, and

not conducive to motivation. Additionally, grade retention was negatively related to homework completion and beliefs in one's academic abilities. In regards to non-educational factors, grade retention was negatively related to self-esteem. Due to the negative implications of grade retention, the researchers advocate for social promotion.

As mentioned, both of the aforementioned factors are related to student academic engagement. This academic disengagement can lead to a complete departure from academics (Bradley & Renzulli, 2011). In order to study the factors that led to Latino and Black student drop out, Bradley & Renzulli (2011) conducted an evaluation of data. Specifically, the researchers were interested in why the student dropped out. They categorized drop out into two categories: push-out which refers to schools discouraging students to continue enrolled in school and pull-out which refers to responsibilities that prevent the student from continuing their education. The researchers used data from 5,130 participants from the educational longitudinal study. The findings suggest that: academic failure was a primary reason for dropping out, males were more likely to dropout due to suspensions, minority girls were more likely than White girls to drop out due to pregnancy, Latina girls were more likely to drop out to get married, Black males were more likely to be pushed out of school, Latino students (male and female) are more likely to be pulled out when compared to Black and White students, and Latino students who are pushed out are typically of low socioeconomic status. The researchers concluded that there are various reasons for student drop out. Additionally, it was recommended that the educational system needs to find a way to adjust to the social and cultural changes in the United States.

In addition to drop out trends, high school graduation is an indicator of educational success. Gándara & Mordechay (2017) discussed factors associated with low Latino graduation rates when compared to their Asian American and European American peers. According to the authors, a primary reason for the low academic attainment is poverty. Over 60% of Latino children live in poverty or near poverty, are likely to attend failing schools, and have families who are unsure of how to support their children academically. Programs such as bilingual schools and wraparound services, in addition to counselors trained to assist this population, have all been found to be effective. Moreover, Latino educators are in short supply. This is a relevant because students of color who have teachers of the same ethnicity are more likely to experience positive academic results. Gándara, & Mordechay (2007) recommend that school systems look to their communities to find individuals (i.e. someone who has been educated in their home country) and employ them as classroom assistants while assisting them financially with a teaching program. This is important because having a teacher with a comparable background seems to have a positive effect on students. Additionally, it is recommended that districts create a caring school culture by providing parent engagement and dual language programs to newcomer parents.

As discussed, absenteeism, non-promotion, drop-out rates, and graduation are all factors typically associated with academic success. There are various reasons as to why some Latino students have difficulty achieving academic success. Reasons can include: self-perception and attitudes towards education (Balkis, 2016), motivation (Martin, 2011), socio-economic status (Bradley & Renzulli, 2011; Gándara, & Mordechay, 2017).

These reasons can all be categorized as social and emotional factors that have the potential to impact Latino ELL students.

Social and Emotional Factors impacting Latino ELL students

Social and emotional factors refer to issues that can impact a student emotionally, the care they demonstrate towards themselves and others, ethical decision making, and the ability to develop positive relationships with adults and peers alike (Van Velsor, 2009). Latinos are exposed to social contexts such as the development of bicultural identity and discrimination during the acculturation process; this can adversely affect their psychological functioning (Driscoll & Torres, 2013). Upon arriving to the United States, immigrant students must adjust to a new culture, learn a new language, and form new friendships, all while navigating the teenage experience. Many of these experiences occur in the educational setting which is a central part of their life. In schools, however, Latino students encounter many negative experiences and barriers such as poor teacher relationships and difficulty acquiring the English language, which may lead to academic disengagement (Moreno & Gaytan, 2013). Balancing different cultural norms and standards can create acculturative stress for the immigrant student (Katsiaficas, et al., 2013), and acculturative stress is directly linked to depression (Driscoll & Torres, 2013).

A sense of belonging and the ability to adjust to the school environment are important aspects of the overall adjustment process (Kia-Keating & Heidi Ellis, 2007). Seventy-six immigrant refugee students between the ages of twelve and nineteen were interviewed through verbal questionnaires about experiences of adversities in their home county and in the United States, and school belonging. The findings indicated that lower levels of depression, lower levels of post-traumatic stress, and higher self-efficacy were

associated with higher levels of sense of belonging at school (Kia-Keating & Heidi Ellis, 2007). Furthermore, the students that experienced more of a connection, immersion, and commitment to school, had higher levels of self-efficacy. This study highlights the importance of a positive school culture and positive relationships in school. Teachers can have a positive and impactful role in this process.

Katsiaficas et al. (2013) studied the relationship between acculturative stress and internalized symptoms (i.e. depression and anxiety) among first and second generation immigrant youth. Three hundred and four urban first and second generation Latino adolescents were a part of this study which evaluated the generational differences between internalizing symptoms and acculturative stress. The participants were all from New York City public schools and averaged 15.7 years of age. Data was collected both in tenth and eleventh grades in 2008 and 2009 respectively. Five scales were used as measures: acculturative stress, demographic data, English self-efficiency, perceptions of social support, and internalizing symptoms. The researchers found that students who experienced more acculturative stress described higher levels of internalizing symptoms such as depression and anxiety. Generationally there was also a difference in levels of stress; first generation immigrant students reported higher levels of acculturative stress and internal symptoms when compared to second generation immigrants. Additionally, there was a relationship between perceptions of academic and emotional support and fewer internalizing symptoms. An example of academic support was someone they could talk to about their college aspirations whereas emotional support was someone they could talk to about their emotions. The researcher suggests that educators put supports in place for first generation immigrant students that are having a difficult time with acculturative

stress in order to reduce internalizing symptoms. The results of this study demonstrate the importance of monitoring Latino immigrant students, and supporting them both emotionally and academically in schools. Educators can play a vital and supportive role in the school setting.

In addition to acculturative stress and internalized symptoms, there is another factor that has the potential to academically effect Latino ELL students. This social and emotional factor is the separation from their parent or guardian. This is of particular importance because the relationship between a child and their parent during the early childhood years can impact a wide array of behaviors (Gindling & Poggio, 2012). It is common (particularly for Central American and Mexican families) for one or both parents to migrate to the United States and to leave their children behind with relatives (Gindling & Poggio, 2012). A three-part study that looked at the relationship between reunification and academic achievement was conducted. The first part was qualitative and consisted of interviews with psychologists, school counselors, and focus groups with parents in order to study the effects of separation and migration on the lives of the children. The results of part one indicated that psychologists, school counselors, and parents all agreed that separation and reunification had negatively impacted academics, and the mental health of both parents and their children. The second part of the study was a quantitative analysis of the New Immigrant Survey (NIS) and it confirmed that children of undocumented parents who migrated at older ages were negatively impacted academically (e.g. dropping out of school). Lastly, the third part consisted of an additional focus group and a survey of teachers. The results of part three demonstrated that students separated from parents during migration have negative psychological effects

due to the separation and they also might be less academically successful because they are not assigned to the same grade level as in their country of origin.

In some cases, the child will move to the United States after a separation and reunification and view the caretaker in their home country as the important adult in their life; they are therefore unable to identify with their biological parent because of the lengthy separation. (Smith, Lalonde, & Johnson, 2004; Suarez-Orozco, et al., 2002). In a few instances, the caretaker and the parent do not have a positive relationship and the child has been exposed to negative dialogue regarding their parent (Suarez-Orozco, et al., 2002). This could potentially pose a problem for educators who are dealing with behavioral issues (i.e. acting out, defiance, poor attendance) with this population. If these students do not consider their parent to be an authority figure and the educator reaches out to the parent for assistance, the child may not respond to the parent. In cases such as these, the teacher's role may be important in the life of the student.

Sometimes, due to the separation, the child may be affected psychologically. Children who were separated from their parents have higher incidences of depression (Suarez-Orozco, et al., 2002) and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Santa-Maria & Cornille (2007) studied the degree of traumatic stress and attachment interruption on immigrants that were separated from their family during the immigration process. The study consisted of 82 participants from Washington D.C and New Mexico; 30 of the participants were separated from their families while the rest were not. The researchers implemented a survey research design and two scales were used to measure post-traumatic stress disorder and relationships. The results indicated that the separated group had a higher level of post-traumatic stress disorder in comparison to the general

population. More specifically, children separated from their parents as minors, had an even higher occurrence of post-traumatic stress disorder. It is suggested that professionals who work with this population be aware that they may have traumatic stress or PTSD.

Academically, male students that experienced separation were more academically vulnerable than their female counterparts. Male students reported more academic hardships and less school support (Wright & Levitt, 2014). Researchers Wright and Levitt (2014) studied academic capability and expectations of immigrant adolescents that experienced parental absence. The participants were adolescents who migrated from Colombia, Cuba, and Argentina. These children were interviewed and the parents filled out questionnaires once a year for three years. Data was also collected by means of school records and teacher ratings. There were 268 Latino immigrant students in total; 78 were in high school, 99 in middle school, and 91 were in elementary school. The researchers found that students had lower academic expectations if they had experienced parental absence due to migration. Lastly, lower academic capability was found in boys that experienced parental separation, thus it is believed that there is a relationship between male educational vulnerability and parental absence. All of these factors should be considered by educators and can be found out through building relationships with students.

All of these aforementioned factors impact the student academically. In the classroom, challenges can occur when students are not emotionally well and feeling anxious, sad, or angry (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). As discussed, Latino ELL students in particular face various social and emotional factors that affect them academically. Educators should be able to identify these students and provide support when necessary.

Supportive educators that display sensitive reactions to difficult behaviors have positive effects on students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). School counselors are able to assist educators with this particular population due to their distinctive skill set which includes the ability to target school needs through a comprehensive professional school counseling program that targets: college and career planning, academics, and social and emotional competencies (American School Counselor Association, n.d.).

School Counselor Role

Professional school counselors are qualified to address educational needs by, “...designing, implementing, evaluating and enhancing a comprehensive school counseling program that promotes and enhances student success” (American School Counselor Association, n.d., p.1). Counselors can help teachers in the development of interventions which can include relationship building (Atici, 2014). Additionally, counselors can also provide social-emotional support by giving teachers’ advice, information, and organizing seminars about specific topics (Atici, 2014). More specifically, counselors can create professional developments sessions aimed at increasing teacher comfort level when working with the Latino ELL population by increasing efficacy and cultural competency. By informing teachers of the aforementioned potential academic concerns and the possible implications, cultural competency and efficacy can potentially be increased. When educators are prepared to work with all types of students, their classroom management style and teacher-student relationships may change. Teachers who are socially and emotionally competent have been found to possess effective classroom management skills and are able to identify and better understand the emotions of others (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Counselors can

assist teachers that are experiencing difficulties in these areas by sharing strategies and interventions. Collaboration among counselors and teachers, is therefore important.

Collaboration is an important aspect of school culture, teacher learning, efficiency, and satisfaction by educators and researchers (Bruce, et al., 2010). School personnel are aware of the problems facing students, their families and the community, and are in a position to provide assistance (Keys & Bemak, 1997). There is a need to improve collaboration among counselors and teachers in the classrooms (Marlow, Bloss & Gloss, 2000), so school staff must work together in order to ensure academic success for their students. Comprehensive school counseling programs specify that collaboration in schools must consist of partnerships between school professionals in order to best serve students (Galassi & Akos, 2004). School counselors can step forward to facilitate collaboration among stakeholders in the public education sector (Bemak, 2000).

Given their understanding of human behavior and development, counselors must take a leadership stance in social-emotional development and are encouraged to provide consultation aimed at prevention rather than a reactive approach (Van Velsor, 2009). Social and emotional competency encourages counselors and teachers to collaborate in teaching, planning, and counseling (Marlow et al, 2000). Collaboration can include counselor led trainings in which teachers learn about social and emotional competencies, school specific interventions and professional development trainings.

Teachers instruct students in their content area while school counselors assist students with academic, social, and emotional support. Despite the differences in specializations, these two areas can join together in order to provide students with a well-rounded academic support system. Teachers surveyed on their perceptions and

preferences on the types of services provided by the school counselor, specified that they highly valued collaborating with school counselors (Clark & Amatea, 2004). Marlow et al. (2000) surveyed 500 teachers and counselors on social and emotional collaboration. They found that social emotional teaching collaboration transpired in various areas including: decision making, developing positive attitudes, understanding perspectives of others, and developing verbal communication skills. Results also indicated that elementary school teachers and counselors collaborate often (53%) while middle school teachers and counselors collaborate less (24%). These results suggest that collaboration between teachers and counselors decrease once students enter middle school. Additionally, the type of collaboration was also evaluated. These findings suggest that the participants from the elementary schools agreed as to the areas in which they collaborate 53% of the time versus the middle school participants who only agreed 41% of the time. This may be due to decrease in communication in the middle school setting.

School counselors in many settings, are still assigned various administrative duties instead of assignments with an educational focus. This deters collaboration among teachers and counselors (Bemak, 2000). Collaboration among staff on the other hand encourages various perspectives which add to a valuable knowledge base. Counselors can assist teachers in understanding different cultural learning styles (Bemak, 2000). While working together, counselors and teachers may find that there is a need for specific professional development or in-house trainings to address staff concerns. This is why counselors should inform teachers of the factors impacting their students and assist teachers in becoming prepared to work with the Latino ELL population. This can be

accomplished by a counselor led professional development designed to increase teacher efficacy and cultural competency.

Teacher Efficacy

Efficacy impacts a person's perception of their performance, knowledge, motivation, and is future-oriented in that judgment is related to perceptions of ability rather than capability (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). This difference is imperative because of the underestimation and overestimation of abilities and how the estimation impacts the effort and the plan a person chooses to follow (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005).

Self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy is based in the socio-cognitive theories of learning (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). According to social cognitive theory, "persons are neither autonomous agents nor simply mechanical conveyers of animating environmental influences. Rather, they make causal contribution to their own motivation and action within a system of triadic reciprocal causation" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). Specifically, cognition, action, environmental occurrences, and emotional and personal dynamics all function as intermingling determinates (Bandura, 1989).

Social learning theory classifies self-efficacy as the cognitive process where people create opinions about their ability to perform tasks (Moseley, Bilica, Wandless, & Gdovin, 2014). Furthermore, these beliefs serve as direct factors in a person's drive, actions, and affect (Bandura, 1989). Social learning theory specifies between two types of beliefs: self-efficacy, and outcome expectancy. Efficacy expectations are the beliefs an individual has about their ability to attain or impact a preferred outcome (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). An outcome expectation is the approximation that an action will result

with a specific end result (Bandura et al., 1977). These two expectancies differ in that although a person can begin to understand that if a certain action is taken it will lead to specific outcomes, they may still have doubts that they are able to execute the actions themselves (Bandura et al., 1977).

In addition to the two types of beliefs, Bandura (1989) also delineated the four ways in which expectations of efficacy were acquired. According to social learning theory, an individual obtains their expectations from: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1989). Performance accomplishments is the manner in which an individual acquires their largest source of efficacy because it is constructed based on personal mastery experiences. A vicarious experience is when a person sees others manage difficult situations and succeed (similar to modeling). Verbal persuasion refers to when a person is persuaded that they can deal with the situation. Lastly, emotional arousal denotes the physiological response to a situation (Bandura, 1989). According to Bandura (1977) there are specific methods in which these efficacy expectations can be induced. Performance accomplishments can be generated by: participant modeling, performance exposure, self-instructed performance, and performance desensitization. Vicarious experiences can be induced by representational modeling or live modeling. Verbal persuasion occurs through: suggestion, self-teaching, instructive treatments, and encouragement. Lastly, emotional arousal can be encouraged by means of: relaxation, acknowledgement, representative desensitization, and symbolic experience. It is important to note that these factors are all significant because they impact a person's choice of activities, their expectations, and the level of persistence (Bandura, 1989).

Teacher efficacy theory. The theory of efficacy and outcome expectations is also applicable to the educational setting. Ashton & Webb (1982) developed the framework for teacher efficacy based on two proportions: general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. General teaching efficacy refers to a teacher's belief that teaching can impact learning (Ashton & Webb, 1982). General teaching efficacy is different for each teacher in that their beliefs vary as to how they think teaching can impact student academic attainment regardless of outside impediments (Ashton & Webb, 1982). Personal teaching efficacy on the other hand refers to a person's judgement of their competence as a teacher (Ashton & Webb, 1982). This assessment of competence impacts both pedagogical strategies and classroom administration (Ashton & Webb, 1982).

Ashton & Webb (1982) also discuss the hierarchical relationships that encompass the theory and is depicted in Figure 2. At the top hierarchy are the overall beliefs about response-outcome possibilities. This denotes the teachers' belief in the degree to which an action produces an outcome. From this stems a teacher's general teaching efficacy and a teachers' overall belief in their effectiveness as a person (perceived self-efficacy). Both general teaching efficacy and perceived self-efficacy effect their personal teaching efficacy. This hierarchy is reciprocal and the researchers provide the following example,

...if teachers are successful in getting across a difficult concept to students they believed could not learn it, they may modify both their personal assessment of their ability to teach such students (sense of personal teaching efficacy) and also their belief that such students cannot be taught (sense of teaching efficacy). This

experience might also increase their generalized belief regarding the relationship between action and outcome and their sense of self-efficacy (p.5)

Conversely, if a teacher's general teaching efficacy is low, the teacher may believe that student success did not come from their teaching and their efficacy will remain the same.

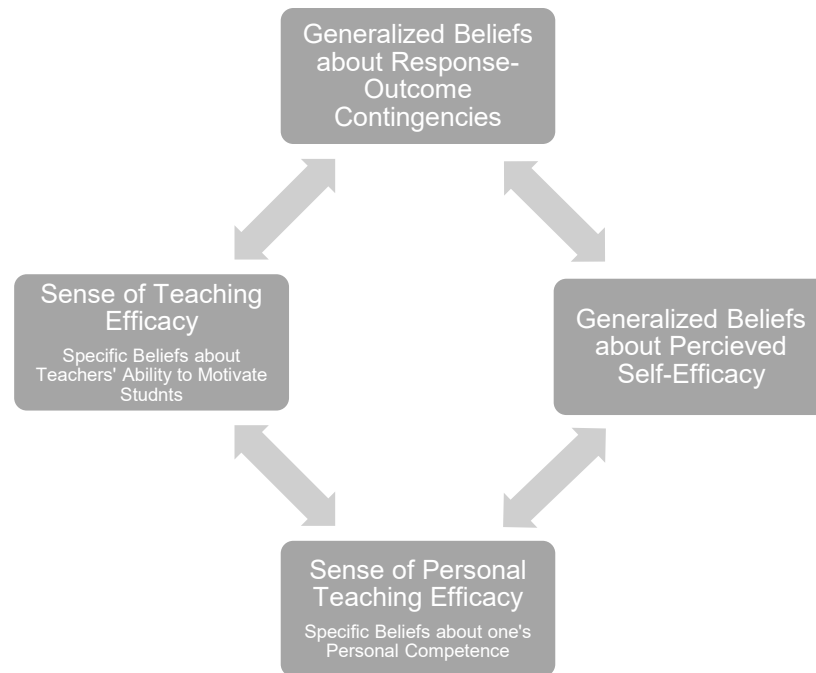


Figure 2. The reciprocal nature of a teachers' sense of efficacy. Adapted from *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and Student Achievement*, by P. T. Ashton and R. B. Webb, 1986, p. 5. Copyright 1986 by Longman

Teacher efficacy is the teacher's belief in his ability to support learning in students (Bruce et al., 2010) and is evident in instructional and curriculum methods (Shidler, 2009). Teacher efficacy also impacts the effort that is placed in teaching, the desires of the teacher, and the goals that are set (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). When compared to teachers with high efficacy, teachers with low efficacy make less positive predictions about student academic success (Tournaki & Podell, 2005) because they do not believe that they can impact student achievement and learning (Bruce et al., 2010). Teacher's beliefs about their student's competences impacts confidence in their

capabilities of teaching (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Payne (1994) states that this may be because teachers with low efficacy are unsure of their strengths and weaknesses, and express insecurities that are evident in classroom management practices (i.e. responding angrily to students). Additionally, while a teacher may feel efficacious in their content area, they may feel a low sense of efficacy when working with students that seem unmotivated or are having difficulty with the material (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). Moreover, unless a failed teaching attempt is viewed as an opportunity to learn effective strategies, efficacy beliefs are lowered which can lead to the expectation that upcoming attempts will also be ineffectual (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005).

There are numerous factors that have the ability to impact a teacher's sense of efficacy. Ashton & Webb (1986) identified 16 context-specific factors that may impact teacher efficacy. The researchers utilized the ecological framework and organized these factors into the ecological levels in which they are situated. The factors and ecological level are shown in Table 1

Table 1

Ecological Levels and Context-Specific Factors

Ecological Level	Context-Specific Factors
Macrosystem	Perception of the learner Perception of the role of education
Exosystem	Proclivities of the school system Judicial and legislative mandates
Mesosystem	School norms School size and demographic characteristics Principal and teacher relationships Collegial relationships Decision-making process Home-school relationships
Microsystem	Student characteristics Teacher characteristics Role definitions Teacher ideology Class structure Structure of the activity

Adapted from *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and Student Achievement*, by P. T. Ashton and R. B. Webb, 1986, p. 14-24. Copyright 1986 by Longman.

In order to study the past history and outcomes of teacher efficacy, Ross (1994) conducted an investigation of 88 studies. The researcher found that teacher characteristics including gender, experience, training, and causal attributions each impact teacher efficacy. Specifically, female teachers reported higher levels of personal teaching efficacy. This was found in all classrooms including: high schools, special education classrooms, and elementary schools. Secondly, the researcher found that elementary school teachers report higher levels of teacher efficacy than high school and middle school teachers. Teacher efficacy was also higher in classes in which teacher's felt

prepared to teach and had classes of students who are of higher ability and well behaved. The school variables were also consistent. Teacher efficacy was found to be higher in schools with the following characteristics: the student population meets school goals, the staff rated themselves as satisfied, the school culture is collaborative, the leadership is receptive to its teachers, and the school considered to be low stress.

The outcomes of teacher efficacy were addressed in the Ross (1994) study. The researcher established that teachers with high efficacy used teaching practices that were considered powerful, but difficult for teachers to learn (e.g. small groups, activity methods, cooperative learning). Furthermore, student cognitive achievement was also associated with higher teacher efficacy. Specifically, student mastery of milestones was enhanced by higher teacher efficacy. When broken down between personal and general teaching efficacy, personal teaching efficacy contributed to student academic attainment in the curriculum which involved reading, social studies, and language arts. General teaching efficacy also contributed to math academic success.

In order to study teacher efficacy in novice teachers specifically, Woolfolk Hoy & Spero (2005) conducted a study with 53 prospective teachers that were enrolled in a master's teaching program. These teachers were evaluated three times throughout the longitudinal study: at the start of their program, the end of their student teaching experience, and at the conclusion of their first year of teaching. This was conducted by means of three questionnaires measuring efficacy. The results showed that there was an increase in efficacy while in teacher preparation and student teaching, but there was a decline in efficacy during the first year of teaching. The researchers point out that this group of teachers had a lot of support during their student teaching and once the support

was no longer there, the efficacy levels dropped. This finding is important because it demonstrates that if supports are put in place, efficacy can be maintained or even perhaps increased.

As previously stated, a teacher's efficacy is a teacher characteristic that is related to student academic attainment (Tucker et al., 2005). This is likely due to a difference in teacher behavior (Tucker et al., 2005). There are many advantages to increasing teacher efficacy. First, teacher and students interactions are more positive (Sosa & Gomez, 2012; Tucker et al., 2005). Teachers with high efficacy expose their students to an interactive and encouraging classroom environment (Bolshakova, Johnshon, & Czernick, 2011; Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Second, teachers become culturally competent (Irizrry & Raible, 2011; McCollough & Ramirez, 2012; Tucker et al., 2005). Teachers that understand the cultural differences that impact a student's social and academic behaviors believe that they can teach students regardless of the conditions (Tucker et al., 2005). Lastly, teachers with high efficacy dedicate more effort and time to their instruction (Shidler, 2009). Essentially, teachers with high efficacy believe that student achievement can be impacted regardless of difficult circumstances (Bruce et al., 2010).

Many teachers do not feel prepared to teach students from different cultural backgrounds (Tucker et al., 2005). This may be due to perceptions about minority communities and racial beliefs (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). More specifically, teacher efficacy is related to perceived capability when working with culturally diverse students and racial attitudes towards those students (Tucker et al., 2005). Schools with large populations of low income minority students however have been found to have teachers that are the least prepared (Bolshakova, et al., 2011; Gardner, 2006). As previously

mentioned, Ashton & Webb (1986) found that student characteristics can impact a teachers sense of efficacy. It is therefore important to not only focus on teacher efficacy, but cultural competency as well.

Cultural Competency

School counselors recognize that education is not just about teaching academics, but also about developing social emotional competencies (Van Velsor, 2009). Social intelligence is the ability to comprehend people and to act thoughtfully (Van Velsor, 2009). To possess social intelligence is to be culturally understanding. Socially and emotionally competent educators are socially aware, they recognize that everyone has a different perspective, and this is taken into account when working with students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). This is important because of the increase in diversity in schools.

According to population data, the arrival of minority students is on the rise in the United States (Burham et al., 2009). Changes in demographics have demonstrated a need for educators to assess their capability and preparedness in providing services to diverse populations (Burnham et al., 2009; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Hispanic and African American students disproportionately experience academic failure and researchers have determined that the teaching that occurs is not continuously culturally relevant or responsive (Siwatu, 2011). While on the other hand, effective educators have been found to include their students' cultures in the classroom (Siwatu, 2011). Multiculturally competent individuals recognize their own beliefs and attitudes (they are self-aware), have cultural understanding and knowledge of other groups, and possess the skills to implement culturally relevant interventions (Jones, Sander, & Booker, 2013). Teachers in

diverse classrooms must provide a learning environment that nurtures academic attainment and delivers high levels of instruction (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). When working with students of diverse backgrounds, educators need to have an understanding of their students' cultures.

Cultural competence has been defined in various ways. When discussing cultural competency at the system level, Cross, Bazron, Dennis, & Isaacs (1989) defined cultural competence as "...a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals and enable that system, agency, or those professionals, to work together in cross-cultural situations" (p. 13). In the nursing field cultural competence is taught to nursing students, but primarily focuses on ethnicity and values, rather than gender, class, sexual orientation, or race (Abrums & Leppa, 2001). Harrison, Carson, & Buden (2010) discuss cultural competence from an education perspective and they define cultural competence, "...is an ongoing process which may not have an endpoint, but through significant exposure and sincere effort, teachers can acquire a degree of cultural competency that will allow them to successfully engage students in learning." (p. 186). For this study, the working definition of cultural competence that will be utilized is as follows (Bennett, 1995):

Interculturally competent teachers are comfortable with their students' cultural styles. They understand their students' verbal communication and body language, preferred modes of discussion and participation, time and space orientations, social values and religious beliefs, and preferred styles of learning. Interculturally competent teachers are aware of diversity within racial and cultural groups, know that culture is ever changing, and are aware of the dangers of stereotyping. At the

same time, they know that if they ignore their students' cultural attributes, they are likely to be guided by their own cultural lens, unaware of how their culturally conditioned expectations might cause learning difficulties for some children. (p. 263)

This definition was selected because it incorporates both overt and covert factors in the definition and is applicable to the educational setting.

An important aspect of cultural competence is the knowledge and understanding of both explicit and implicit bias. Explicit bias refers to biases that are changeable because they are conscious, while implicit bias are behaviors or judgements occur without the conscious awareness of the person (Boysen, 2010). A type of behavior that may occur without a person's awareness is microaggression. Microaggression refers to everyday interactions such as insults, snubs, contemptuous looks and gestures that are geared toward people of color (Sue, Capodilupo, Torino, Bucceri, Holder, Nadal, & Esquilin, 2007). These behaviors can be detrimental to people of color because of their ability to impact performance (Sue et al., 2007). This implies that in the educational setting, student performance can be impacted.

Prior to discussing the specific cultural competency literature, culturally responsive teaching (CRT) should be defined. CRT is a strategy that can be utilized in order to increase the academic success of minority students (Gay, 2002). More specifically, "Culturally responsive teaching is defined as using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse as conduits for teaching them more effectively (Gay, 2002, p. 106). There are five key components in CRT and they are: increasing your cultural diversity knowledge, ensure that the

curriculum includes ethnic and cultural content, interacting with culturally diverse students, utilizing content delivery in order to respond to ethnic diversity, and by creating learning communities and displaying care to student (Gay, 2002). The following studies discuss culture in the educational setting.

In a study conducted by Parks and Kennedy (2007) teacher perceptions of their students based on race were explored. The researchers were specifically interested in investigating whether factors such as race and physical attractiveness were related to the teachers' perception of the students' academic and social competence. The study consisted of 72 participants: 21 undergraduate students working toward a teaching degree and 51 teachers. The participants were 85% White and 15% African American. Participants were shown eight photographs of school aged children and provided with a scenario with each picture. They were then provided a Likert-type scale that asked questions about the child's physical attractiveness, social, and academic competence. The results indicated that Black, unattractive boys were regarded as lower in competence than other groups. The researchers draw attention to the importance of these result because a teachers' assumptions about their students' capabilities can directly impact the students' academic outcomes. Furthermore, the researchers suggest that cultural programs be implemented for school personnel.

While Park and Kennedy (2007) focused specifically on race and physical attractiveness, Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) conducted four meta-analyses to examine teachers' expectations based on student ethnicity. Additionally, the researchers were interested in examining whether the teachers' expectations of their students were evident in their behavior. The results indicated that teachers have higher expectations of

European American students than for minority students; more positive referrals, positive speech, and positive expectations were held by teachers toward European American students than for African American and Latino students; and more negative expectations were directed toward Latino students than toward Asian American and African American students.

Negative expectations towards minority students have the potential to lead to discrimination in the educational setting. Indirect discrimination towards minority students can be found in tracking, teacher expectations, and grade retention (Farkas, 2003). More specifically, a teacher's beliefs, attitudes, and practices towards ELL students can affect the students' academic success and access to resources (Sharkey & Layzer, 2000). Therefore, if ELL students are to be academically successful, teachers must have high expectations and positive beliefs of them. Beliefs include perceptions, knowledge and attitudes (Pettit, 2011). Cultural learning styles and diversity must be addressed. Educators that work with the newly arrived Latino ELL immigrant population need a better understanding of their cultures. Correct cultural understanding allows educators to have the foundational knowledge to best serve their students (Moreno & Gaytan, 2013).

Cultural differences affect how students acquire new material. Students from different cultural backgrounds may have varying cultural assumptions about the world and they may lack concepts that are needed in different content areas (Ogbu, 1992). Additionally, there are students that have large gaps in their education because they did not attend school in their home countries. In some countries, children do not attend school past a certain age in order to assist in child rearing or with a financial income

(Williams & Butler, 2003). In certain situations, children were unable to attend school due to violence in their neighborhoods; it was too dangerous for them to leave their homes. Teachers need to be aware of these factors in order to understand their students' backgrounds.

Moseley et al., (2014) conducted a yearlong qualitative study on five teacher candidates involved in a one-year teacher internship in a high need, largely Latino school. The researchers were interested in the association between their efficacy and cultural competency. One main theme emerged and the researchers stated the following, "...one overarching theme regarding teacher efficacy situated within the context of cultural efficacy - the importance of creating positive teacher-student relationships by having encouraging attitudes towards students and establishing learning environments steeped in multiculturalism" (Moseley et al., 2014, p.319). More specifically, the teachers created relationships with students by creating connections between their cultural backgrounds, social, and home lives. This allowed for an environment of respect, trust, and care between them and their students. This was done by utilizing Spanish translations, utilizing cultural references, and allowing the students to share their personal stories in class. The results also indicated that once the teachers began developing these positive relationships, the teachers also felt more effective.

As demonstrated in the previous study, cultural competency can aid in building relationships with Latino ELL students and in making connections to academic content. Many times, this population experiences both personal and social conflicts, which create academic achievement barriers such as emotional unpreparedness for academic rigor (Keys & Bemak, 1997). A study was conducted in seven New York City high schools

with high Latino immigrant populations and high graduation rates in order to find similarities among these successful schools. Two ninth grade students were selected from each school and the researchers observed the students for a school day, and conducted interviews with staff. Results showed that the successful schools had bilingual school cultures; Latino culture was incorporated into class lessons; and that school wide collaboration was present (Garcia, Woodley, Flores, & Chu, 2012).

Similarly, parallel results have been found in other studies. Irizarry & Raible (2011) conducted a study with ten educators that were labeled as exemplary by Latino students and community members. The teachers all participated in an in-depth interview that was transcribed, and coded using thematic analysis in order to find similarities. These educators were found to share the following similarities. First, all of the educators said that they had to learn about the Latino culture and immerse themselves in it. Secondly, they had to bring this culture into the classroom to make the lessons relatable. Lastly, learning Spanish was very important to these educators and it positively impacted their students because they were able to effectively communicate. Cultural awareness and understanding were of the utmost importance and demonstrated dedication to Latino students.

A lack of cultural understanding may lead to negative perceptions by all parties involved. Becerra (2012) conducted a study with 1,508 young adult Latino participants. The participants were surveyed on their perceived attitudes towards academic barriers such as stereotypes. Participants with higher levels of education stated one of the reasons why Latino students do not perform as well as White students is because teachers label Latino students as having behavior or learning problems. Additionally, participants with

higher incomes believe that white teachers do not know how to deal with Latino students because of their cultural differences. Becerra (2012) stated that parents with higher levels of education and socioeconomic status tended to spend more time at schools and have more interactions with administrators and teachers. Furthermore, Patthey-Chavez (1993) conducted a two-month ethnographic study at a predominantly Latino school with a predominantly all white school staff. It was found that Latino students felt that their teachers underestimated their intelligence and were not able to relate to them. She recommends that educators gain a thorough understanding of intercultural communication. Educators should approach educating diverse students as students who have experiences, languages, and concepts that can be built upon and expanded (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

As noted in the previous section, school counselors can assist in helping to develop cultural competence. School counselors are trained in multicultural competencies (Portman, 2009) providing them a solid foundation in this area. Additionally, learning about the Latino ELL population can benefit both the teacher and the student and creates a caring learning environment.

Caring Educators: Benefits

Socially and emotionally competent educators set the tone in their classrooms that reflects caring. These teachers are encouraging, supportive, and focus on strengths (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). They are also able to create supportive relationships through understanding and can motivate learning in others (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Additionally, teachers that are socially and emotionally competent are also able to display caring by responding to the students' individual needs. For example, if a teacher

has been informed that a specific child is having difficulties at home, he may demonstrate empathy in order to help the student self-regulate in the classroom (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Furthermore, socially-emotionally competent teachers are calm, content, positive, and are better prepared to treat their students with sensitivity (Jones, Bouffard, & Weissbourd, 2013).

Teachers that demonstrate caring to their students have high efficacy (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Research shows that a school culture of caring positively impacts students, and that there is a relationship with school climate and attendance (Benner & Graham, 2011; Sanchez, Colon, & Esparza, 2005). Schools with large populations of Latino students and high graduation rates have been found to have school staff that genuinely care for their students (Garcia et al., 2012). Students that attended schools with a caring school environment reported higher levels of sense of belonging which are predictors of academic motivation and performance. Conversely it was also found that when Latino students do not feel accepted and cared for, there was less motivation to attend school (Sanchez et al., 2005). Counselors are able to provide teachers with information on specific students and help in creating a caring environment. Specific to this study, the researcher will focus on teacher efficacy and cultural competency which are indicative of a social and emotionally competent educators.

Conclusion

Upon entering the United States educational system, Latino ELL students face an uphill battle in their pursuit of academic success. Counselors are aware of the problems impacting these students, but teachers must be made aware, so that they may provide optimal instruction. School counselors can promote an environment of social and

emotional competency and prepare educators. Collaboration among school counselors and teachers allows for dialogue between the two specializations with the goal of increasing academic achievement in the Latino ELL population. This can be done by providing educators with information to assist in growing teacher efficacy by increasing their cultural competency. The next chapter will provide an empirical examination of the problem of practice and discuss the impact of both constructs.

Chapter II

Empirical Examination of the Problem

As the literature review revealed, Latino ELL students sometimes begin their educational journey in the United States at a disadvantage due to both personal and educational factors. The research also demonstrates that educator efficacy, as well as the teacher's cultural competency are common denominators in student success (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; McAllister & Irvine, 2000; Tucker et al., 2005).

The researcher's original intent was to conduct a survey needs assessment with school staff at a public secondary high school. However, due to district regulations, surveying staff and students was not possible. The research in chapter one suggests that low teacher efficacy and teacher cultural competency has the ability to academically impact students. Therefore, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the problem at the local level, the researcher assessed public data on Latino ELL students. To accomplish this, the researcher evaluated Latino ELL student academic trends from a secondary high school in a large suburban public education district located in the mid-Atlantic region. The factors that were selected are typically associated with student academic achievement and are: absenteeism (Balkis et al., 2016), non-promotion rates (Martin, 2011), drop-out rates which may reflect academic disengagement (Bradley & Renzulli, 2011), and graduation rates (Gándara & Mordechay, 2017).

Additionally, to gain an understanding of the student experience in order to prepare for the professional development discussed in chapter four, the researcher interviewed two former Latino ELL students from the selected School. During these interviews, the students shared their perspectives. A summary of these interviews will be

provided following the data presentation. The purpose of the remainder of this chapter is to describe the context of the study, data collection, findings, and the limitations.

Context of the Study

The public secondary school used in this research is located in a large suburban district in the mid-Atlantic region. This particular district has seen an influx of Latino ELL students. As a result, their proposed budget for the 2016 academic year addressed this increase. The office assigned to evaluate student data in the district reports that in 2014, 1,117 unaccompanied minors were placed in this district. During the peak enrollment months (July 1, 2014 through October 31, 2014) the district enrolled 2,352 international students which increased from 1,886 in 2013. The majority of the students were from Central America, specifically, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras. The ELL program enrollment also increased to 21,463 students, which was a 1,525 increase from 2014. The district office also reported that this population experienced a history of violence in their home countries and have had various possibly traumatic experiences on their trip to the United States. Additionally, the report states that this population may experience challenges at home when reuniting with family and in school because their education may have been interrupted (Department of Management, Budget, and Planning, 2015).

According to the 2014-2015 school profile of the selected high school, there were 1,465 students enrolled during the 2014-2015 school year. ELL students accounted for 17.1% of the total student body and of the ELL population, 14.9% were Hispanic. During the 2015-2016 academic year total student enrollment increased to 1,554. Out of the student population, 18.9% were ELL students and 15.3% of those students were

Hispanic. This data indicates an increase in total student enrollment and Hispanic ELL enrollment. This needs assessment study was designed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the absenteeism trend for Latino ELL students at this particular location?

RQ2: What is the non-promotion rate for Latino ELL students at this particular location?

RQ3: What is the high school drop-out trend for Latino ELL students at this particular location?

RQ4: What is the Graduation rate for Latino ELL students at this particular location?

Methodology

Operationalization of Problem

There are four variables being measured in this study. The first variable is absenteeism, specifically 20 or more days of absences during an academic year which ranges from September to June. The state in which this district is located calculates percentage rates of students who are absent 20 or more days by dividing the number of students who are absent more than 20 days and divide that by the number of students enrolled in that particular school for over 90 days. The second variable that will be discussed is the non-promotion rate of Latino ELL students. The non-promotion rate is the number of students who were not promoted to the next grade level at the conclusion of the academic year divided by the total number of student enrolled in the same grade level. The third variable is the drop-out rate for Latino ELL students. The drop-out rate is

the annual percent of Latino ELL students that drop-out in grades 9 through 12 and do not enroll in another school or alternative state approved program. The last variable is the graduation rate. The graduation rate is a cohort rate in which students graduate within four years. (Maryland State Department of Education, 2016).

Setting and Participants

As previously stated, the high school being studied is located in a suburban district located in the mid-Atlantic region. The high school serves grades 9 through 12. Student demographic data for the 2015-2016 school year indicates that 50.7% of the student population were Hispanic (15.3% were English speakers of other languages), followed by 26.4% Black, Asian 12.1%, White 8.4%, and the remaining students were either mixed race or American Indian. The staff demographics however are not reflective of the student population. This however is not uncommon nationwide. Boser (2014) from the Center for American Progress reports that non-White teachers only constitute 18% of the profession and that diversity differences between students and teachers occur in every state.

In order to understand staff demographics at the high school, the public school profile was used. According to the school profile, during the 2014-2015 academic year, this school employed 111.5 professional school staff. The racial demographics are as follows: White 63.9%, Black 19.3%, Hispanic 10.9%, Asian 4.2%, and mixed race .8%. During the 2015-2016 academic year professional school employment increased to 116.9. Staff racial demographics for the 2015-2016 academic year are; White 62%, Black 19%, Hispanic 11.6%, Asian 5%, and mixed race .8%. The professional school staff consisted of 4 administrators, 104.4 teachers (classroom teachers, team leaders, staff development,

athletic director, ELL, and special education teachers) and 8.5 categorized as other (this includes school counselors, media specialist, and special education related services).

Data Collection Methods

Quantitative data was collected from the public records of the State Department of Education (SDE). The SDE publishes state, school system, and school level data so that stakeholders are able to measure student achievement and evaluate it yearly (MSDE, 2016). SDE refers to ELL students as Limited English Proficient (LEP). For the purpose of this study, the specific high school data was collected from the SDE.

Findings

This section discusses the quantitative public data that was collected in order to understand the trend addressed in the three research questions. For comparison, non-LEP Latino data was included.

Attendance Rates

Latino LEP student absenteeism rates have been steadily increasing at the selected school since 2011. The percentage rates of Latino LEP students that have been absent more than 20 days during the school year are as follows: 9.0% in 2011, 21.4% in 2012, 22% in 2013, 25.8% in 2014, 26.9% in 2015, and 31.2% in 2016. These are the percentages for the non-LEP Latino absenteeism rate for the same years: 13%, 26.1%, 21.1%, 21%, 26%, and 22.6%. Figure 3 is a side by side comparison.

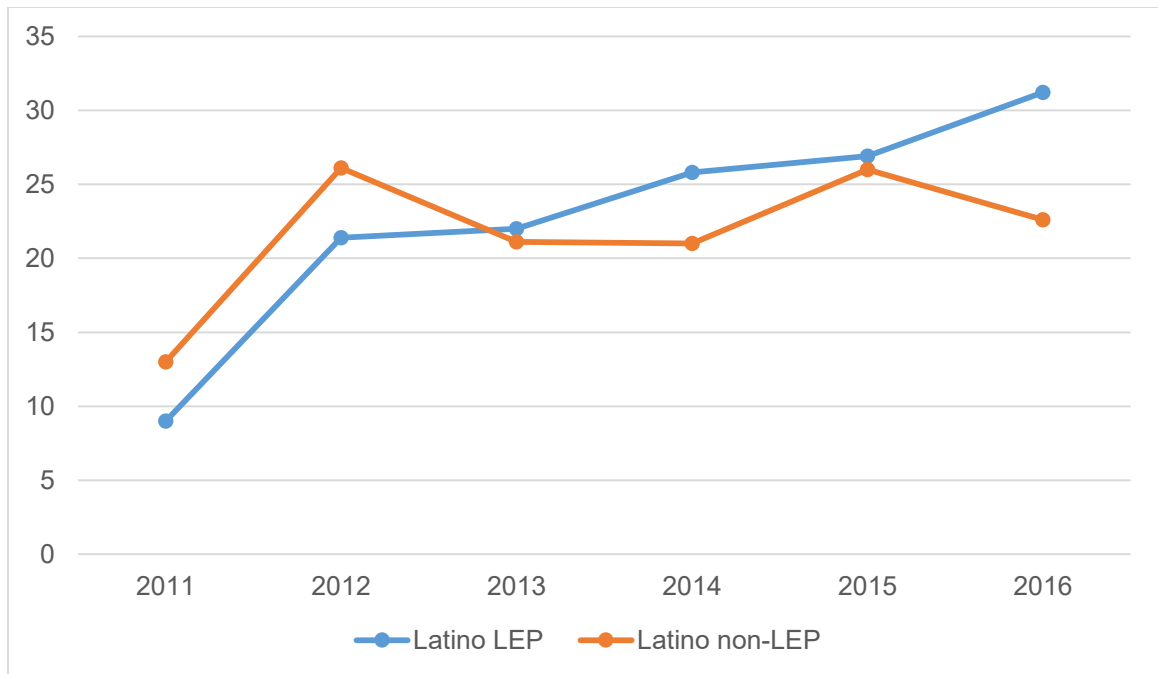


Figure 3. Absent more than 20 days percentage rates for Latino LEP and Latino non-LEP students

Absenteeism percentage rates at this particular school have steadily increased between 2011 and 2016 for Latino LEP students. Percentages for Latino non-LEP students began higher than Latino LEP students in 2011 and 2012, but have since decreased and remained lower than those of the Latino LEP student population.

Grade Promotion

Promotion is when a student moves from one grade level to the next and as previously noted, the non-promotion rate is the number of students who were not promoted to the next grade level at the conclusion of the academic year divided by the total number of student enrolled in the same grade level (MSDE, 2016). Average non-promotion percentage rates across all grade levels can be found in figure 4. To provide comparison, non-LEP non-promotion rates will also be included.

Since 2011 the percentage rate of non-promotion among Latino LEP students in the ninth grade has increased every year with the exception of the 2015 academic school year. This population averages a 36.43% non-promotion rate and is currently at 47.2% for 2016. Latino non-LEP student non-promotion rates on the other hand have fluctuated. These rates are currently 18% which are at their lowest, and average 24% for the same time period.

The tenth grade non-promotion rate of Latino LEP students has fluctuated between 2011 and 2016. Between 2011 and 2016, the Latino LEP tenth grade students averaged a 43% non-promotion rate. Of Latino non-LEP students, the tenth grade non-promotion rate has also fluctuated, but averaged 20.96%. Latino-LEP students have a higher non-promotion rate in the tenth grade when compared to non-LEP students.

During the eleventh grade, Latino LEP student's non-promotion rates decreased from 36.6% in 2011 to 29.7% in 2013, but increased to 32% in 2014 and is currently at 40.9%. On average, 35.59% of eleventh grade Latino-LEP students are not promoted each year. In comparison, the non-promotion rate of non-LEP Latino students began at 30.7%, but decreased every year except for 2014 and is currently at 16.4%. This population averages a 21.73% non-promotion rate in the eleventh grade.

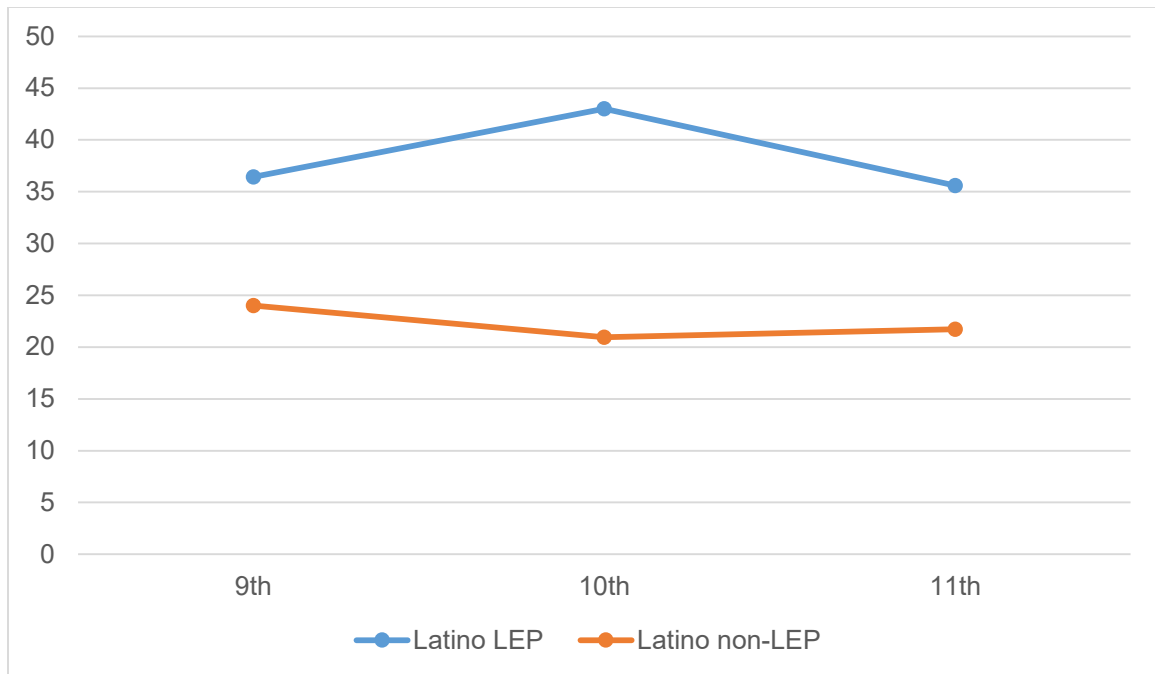


Figure 4. Average non-promotion percentage rates for Latino LEP students and non-LEP students by grade

Dropout Rate

Dropout rates are computed by their adjusted four-year cohort. The adjusted four-year cohort dropout rate is the number of students who leave school (excluding death) within a four-year period divided by the total number of students who are in the adjusted cohort. The school year is defined as the first day of school in the current year to the first day of school of the following year and includes the summer months (MSDE, 2016).

The adjusted four-year cohort dropout percentage rate for Latino LEP students adjusted in the class of 2011 was 37.93%; for the class of 2012 it was 31.25%; for the class of 2013 it was 31.11%; for the class of 2014 it was 33.33%; for the class of 2015 it was 34.48%, and for the class of 2016 it was 58.06%. Conversely, the adjusted four year cohorts for Latino non-LEP students have been steadily decreasing since 2013. A

comparison of Latino LEP and Latino non-LEP students organized by four-year cohort can be found in figure 5.

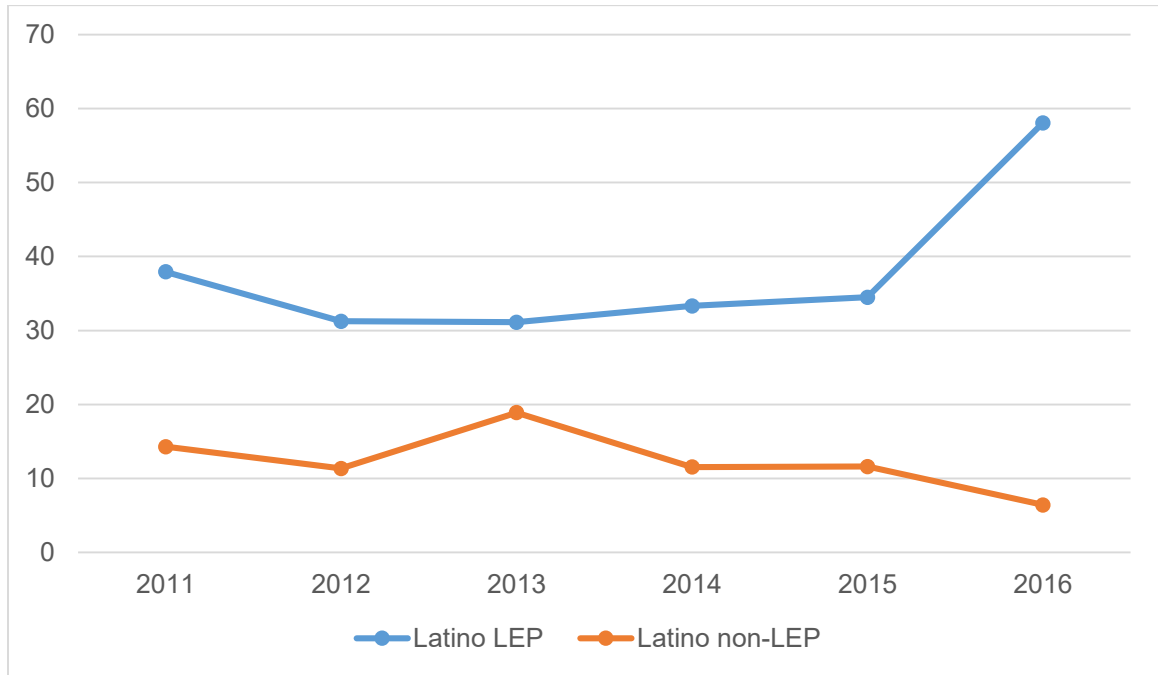


Figure 5. Percentage rates of Latino LEP and Latino non-LEP student dropout by adjusted four-year cohort

Graduation Rate

The graduation rate is calculated by the four-year adjusted cohort. This is calculated by dividing the numbers of diplomas that are received is divided by the number of students in the four-year adjusted cohort (MSDE, 2016). Percentage rates for the four-year adjusted cohort for Latino LEP students has fluctuated and are currently at their lowest since 2011. The rates are as follows: for the class of 2011 it was 37.93%; for the class of 2012 it was 45.83%; for the class of 2013 it was 31.11%; for the class of 2014 it was 36.67%; for the class of 2015 it was 51.72%; and for the class of 2016 it was 25.81%.

Latino non-LEP student graduation percentage rates on the other hand have steadily increased since 2013. The percentage rates for the four-year adjusted cohort are the following: 75.40% for the class of 2011; 80.85% for the class of 2012; 71.65% for the class of 2013; 76.92% for the class of 2014; 81.94% for the class of 2015; and 85.90% for the class of 2016. Figure 6 is a comparison of Latino LEP and Latino non-LEP graduation percentage rates by adjusted four-year cohort.

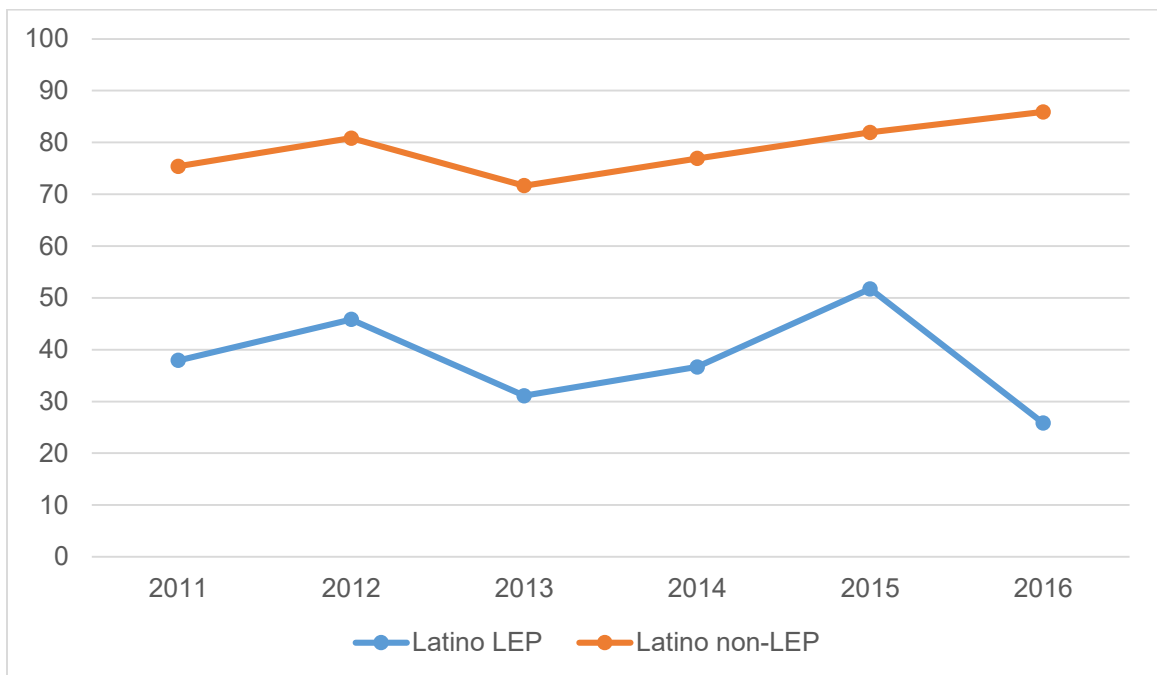


Figure 6. Graduation Percentage rates of Latino LEP and Latino non-LEP students by adjusted four-year cohort

Interviews with Former Students

As will be discussed in chapter four, the researcher conducted interviews with two former Latino ELL students, one male and one female. During the interviews, the students talked about their high school experience as ELL students at the selected school. Due to the nature of the conversation, a few of their comments will be summarized.

The male student began by sharing that when he entered the district and was placed in the ninth grade, as a level one ELL student. Level one in this district is the beginning level for students with no English language skills. When sharing his experience of his first day of school he said, “When I got to the school, I felt lost, I felt like I didn’t belong here” (D.C, personal communication, November, 2016). As mentioned in chapter one, a sense of belonging has been found to be related to student achievement. He goes on to say that after a year of being in the country he found employment six days a week and was attending school full-time, working full-time, and paying rent which was difficult. He was then asked about what he wishes teachers would have asked him. He responded by saying that he would have liked teachers to inquire about his personal life. Specifically, he stated that there were times when he was very tired in school, but that if teachers would have asked, they would have known that he was working the night before. These conversations could have been an opportunity for relationship building between staff and the student. Lastly, he was asked to share his favorite school memories. He stated that his favorite memories were with teachers that were friendly and understanding. When asked to clarify what he meant by understanding, he shared that when he had difficulty expressing himself in English, they would not only listen to his words, but make eye-contact and read his body language.

The female student entered the district and was placed in the eighth grade at a local middle school. When she arrived at the selected high school, she understood some English. When the female student discussed her high school experience she mentioned receiving support from Spanish speaking classroom assistants. These assistants would assist in facilitating

Communication between her and the classroom teacher. She was then asked about teaching styles that she preferred, the student responded by stating that she enjoyed interactive and discussion based lessons. Specifically, she mentioned lessons that involved game play. These are forms of culturally responsive teaching that were also discussed in chapter one and will be discussed further in chapter three. The student was also asked about what she wished teachers would have asked. She stated that she had friends that worked and were unable to complete assignments on time or had childcare responsibilities. She believes that it is important for teachers to inquire about a student's home life. If a teacher does not have knowledge about a student's home life, they may not realize that the student is not completing assignments on-time for reasons out of their control, not due to a lack of ability. As mentioned in chapter one, a teacher's belief in a student's abilities can impact their belief in their own competencies (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Lastly, she was asked to share her favorite high school memories. She became emotional and shared that a specific teacher always said to the class, "you are the reason I get up in the morning and come to work" (K.M, personal communication, November 2016). The student shared that this was incredibly impactful.

Discussion

SDE quantitative data was collected in order to evaluate absenteeism, non-promotion, dropout, and graduation trends. The SDE data demonstrates that absenteeism rates within the Latino LEP population have been steadily increasing since 2011. The average non-promotion rates for Latino LEP students on the other hand have fluctuated over the years. Dropout rates for Latino LEP students by adjusted four year cohort was steady between 2011 and 2015, but increased in 2016. Graduation rates for Latino LEP

students on the other hand are currently at their lowest since 2011. In conclusion, SDE quantitative data demonstrates that Latino LEP students at the selected high school have higher absenteeism rates, higher non-promotion rates, higher four-year adjusted cohort dropout rates, and lower four-year adjusted cohort graduation rates when compared to Latino non LEP students.

The interviews provided another layer of understanding of the problem. As mentioned by these two former students, various factors have the ability to impact Latino ELL students including: language barriers, staff-student relationship, employment schedules, and home life responsibilities. All of these social and emotional factors have the potential to effect a student academically. If teachers do not have an understanding of these underlying social and emotional factors, teaching methods may not be adjusted to fit the needs of the students. These are all context-factors (student characteristics, home-school relationships and perceptions) which can impact teacher efficacy in Table 1.

Unfortunately, this data does not provide the “why”. The literature review provided in chapter one has provided evidence that various factors (including social and emotional factors) have the ability to impact academic achievement in the Latino ELL population including teacher efficacy and a teacher’s cultural competency. Given this information, the researcher will narrow the focus to teacher efficacy and cultural competency.

Constraints and Implications

As previously noted, the researcher was unable to conduct a needs assessment to study school staff at the research site due to district research policies and procedures. Therefore, the researcher was unable to directly assess teacher efficacy and cultural

competency in educators that work with the Latino ELL population. This is a major limitation to the needs assessment and the reason why the researcher had to evaluate public data and current research. Additionally, the two interviews discussed also had limitations. First, both of these students graduated high school. These students therefore are not representative of the students that are not finding academic success as defined by the four variables. It may have been beneficial to hear the perspective of a student who did not graduate. Secondly, the male student graduated five years ago and the female graduated three years ago. These students may not have accurately recalled their high school experience due to the length of time. Lastly, only two interviews were conducted and therefore not generalizable.

Although there were limitations to this needs assessment, public SDE data however clearly demonstrates that the Latino ELL students at this location are experiencing academic difficulties. The literature demonstrates that the Latino ELL population experiences various obstacles that may hinder them from achieving academic success (Gindling & Poggio, 2012; Moreno & Gaytan, 2013; Katsiaticas et al., 2013; Santa-Maria & Cornille, 2007; Suarez-Orozco, et al., 2002; Wright & Levitt, 2014). Therefore, school counselors should take an active role in preparing teachers to work with the Latino ELL population. More specifically, school counselors should focus on increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competency in educators that work with the Latino ELL population. As demonstrated in the literature review, teacher efficacy has been found to impact a teacher's ability to impact student achievement (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Sosa & Gomez, 2012) and is seen in instruction and effort by the teacher

(Bruce et al., 2010; Shidler, 2009; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005), particularly with racially diverse student's (Dusek & Joseph, 1983; Tucker et al., 2005).

Similarly, cultural competency has also been found to impact educators and their interactions with racially diverse students (Becerra, 2012; Farkas, 2003; Garcia et al., 2012; Irizarry & Raible, 2011; Parks and Kennedy, 2007; Sharkey & Layzer, 2000; Tenenbaum and Ruck, 2007). Increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competence in educators has many benefits including creating a caring environment for the student (Benner & Graham, 2011; Garcia et al, 2012; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; J. Jones et al., 2013; Sanchez, et al., 2005; Sosa & Gomez, 2012).

Therefore, based on the needs assessment data and the literature review, the researcher developed a professional development series aimed at increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competency in teachers when working with Latino ELL students. The following chapter is the literature review that informed the creation of the professional development series.

Chapter III

Intervention Literature Review

The evaluation of state public data and the literature review on the Latino ELL school population demonstrated that this group of students have lower levels of academic success when compared to other ethnicities (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2009). Many of these factors are not school related, but educators are in a position to create change in the educational setting. The research demonstrates that educators are able to positively impact this population by reflecting on themselves as educators and creating change in themselves. The goal of this chapter is to provide an overview of the literature as it pertains to interventions targeted at creating change. The following intervention strategies will be discussed: the school counselor's role at creating change as leaders and professional development as an effective intervention strategy. The school counselor's role will include a portion on social and emotional competency while the professional development literature includes research on teacher efficacy, cultural competency, and cultural efficacy in the context of professional development.

School Counselor Role

School counselors are leaders that are involved in system wide change to ensure student success (American School Counselor Association, 2005), and are distinctively educated in awareness, knowledge, and skills that other school professionals may lack (Wingfield, Reese, & West-Olatunji, 2010). As staff members that work with stakeholders including: students, teachers, administrators, support staff, and outside agencies, school counselors are ideal leaders in the education field (Van Velsor, 2009). Additionally, they also play a global part in leading schools in the development of career,

academic, personal, and social growth in addition to educational and social justice reforms (Curry & DeVoss, 2009).

School counselors use their advocacy and leadership skills to promote change by contributing to professional development, consultation, collaboration, and program management (ASCA, 2005). As leaders and consultants, school counselors assist teachers as pedagogical partners by connecting student lives to the curriculum, participating as the cultural connection between students and teachers, and by assisting in creating a family friendly school environment (Amatea & West-Olatunji, 2007). This can be accomplished because counselors communicate with parents, students, and teachers and are privy to both formal and informal anecdotal information, in addition to their unique skill set (Janson, Stone, & Clark 2009). Their unique set of skills include social and emotional competencies such as supporting student's with personal, academic, and career development (Van Velsor, 2009).

Social and Emotional Leaders

School counselor are trained in social and emotional skills (Van Velsor, 2009). As social and emotional leaders, counselors must take a stance in social and emotional development and are encouraged to provide consultation aimed at prevention rather than a reactive approach (Van Velsor, 2009). School counselors recognize that education is not just about teaching academics, but also about social emotional competencies (Van Velsor, 2009). The social and emotional competency framework encourages counselors and teachers to collaborate in teaching, planning, and counseling (Marlow, et al., 2000). Counselors should take an active role in staff development organization and planning by collaborating with other leaders to prepare in-service training for staff (Janson et al.,

2009). As knowledgeable leaders, counselors should inform teachers of the factors impacting their students during in-service trainings. Specific to this study, counselors need to inform teachers of the particular cultural challenges that Latino ELL students, and assist teachers by increasing their teaching efficacy and cultural competencies when working with this population. This can be done in the form of a professional development series. It is suggested that in order for a professional development to be found effective, participants should have contact with someone who can be supportive and a source of reassurance (Shidler, 2009). In this particular case, this would be the school counselor.

Professional Development: A Framework

Educators should be provided professional development opportunities that aim at increasing staff abilities and knowledge (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). When implementing an effective professional development program, various factors need to be taken into consideration. Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin (1995), both professors of education, discussed these factors. In order for professional development to be effective there must be collaboration among educators, engagement in the process of development and learning, direct connection to teaching practices, sustainability and support, connection to school policy, and opportunities for reflection. When these factors are incorporated in professional development, teaching capacity increases and teachers can be apply their new knowledge to their individual context (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).

A more recent study by Hough (2011), echoes the Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin (1995) paper. The purpose of the Hough (2011) study was to identify the components of effective professional development. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected from 2,300 teachers from twenty-five states, all of whom participated in a

professional development on character education classroom management. Once data was collected and coded for themes on effective professional development, five themes emerged. In order for a professional development to be deemed effective by teachers, the person presenting must be an expert in the subject, the professional development must be attended by teams of educators and/or administrators and counselors, the topic must be aligned to a school goal, the practical application must be clear, and the strategies must be suited to teachers based on their experience.

The Hough (2011) study highlights the importance of creating a professional development that is multifaceted. It should be supported and attended by administration and the leadership team as well as presented by a person who is an expert on the topic of Latino ELL students and cultural factors (in this case, the school counselor).

Additionally, the professional development should provide techniques that educators can utilize in the classroom along with clear goals and the objectives aligned with school wide initiatives. Involving multiple participants such as administrators and counselors demonstrates collaboration which is important in an effective professional development.

Collaboration in a professional development was specifically studied by researchers Jao & McDougall (2015). In this study 11 schools from four different school districts in Canada participated in a three semester long study on improving student achievement in mathematics. During the first semester, the participants were introduced to the program and its dimensions, completed surveys, collaborated with peers, and reflected on the project. During the second semester, they participated in dimension specific professional developments (such as school growth and student tasks), collaborated and co-planned with peers, and were interviewed by researchers.

Throughout the third and final semester of the study, they participated in dimension specific professional developments, collaborated with peers, reflected on their own and with their peers, and participated in a panel discussion with the researchers. Data was collected by means of interviews and written reflections. The findings revealed that in order for a professional development to be deemed as useful, the participants should be able to choose the professional development topic, and the participants should be given the opportunity for collaboration.

Professional development and instructional meetings are commonly utilized as a method to increase teacher competencies (Shidler, 2009). Specific to this study, the researcher will focus the professional development on teacher efficacy and cultural competency in working with Latino ELL students.

Professional Development and Teacher Efficacy

When teachers are confident that they can positively affect their students learning, their interactions reflect those beliefs (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Teachers with high efficacy promote student self-efficacy, see themselves as strong and effective, are confident, and believe in the capabilities of their students (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Highly efficacious teachers have positive supportive relationships with their students (Tucker et al., 2005), and have high expectations of their students (Sosa & Gomez, 2012). Although teacher efficacy does not automatically increase student achievement, it influences the goals and persistence of the teacher (Bruce, et al., 2010). Utilizing professional development to impact teacher efficacy is an intricate process and should engage educators in critical thinking and in actively altering their behaviors (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). Allowing

educators an opportunity to consult when students are not present allows teachers an opportunity to engage in reflection (Shidler, 2009).

Studies that focused on professional development and teacher efficacy have yielded interesting results. Bruce, et al. (2010) studied two school districts, one with no history of professional learning and one with a history of professional learning. This study was conducted throughout a school year and participants engaged in six, two-day sessions. The goal of the study was to increase teacher efficacy and student achievement. Data was collected through surveys, individual case studies, and student data. Results indicated that the district with previous professional learning opportunities changed in the following manner. First, the teachers modified their teaching practices. Second, the modified practices caused an increase in student knowledge. Third, the emphasis on the student thinking process led the participants to realize that their actions directly benefit students. Fourth, the mastery experiences led to increased efficacy. Lastly, the increase in efficacy produced greater effort in the classroom.

The second district however did not have the same experience. It is believed that the lack of prior continued professional learning opportunities may have been the cause. The researchers suspect that this occurred because this group of teachers did not realize that their professional practice was at a low level. Whereas the other group of teachers (the ones with previous professional learning) knew that they had a need to improve due to previous trainings. The results of this study demonstrate the importance of on-going, supportive, and a collaborative environment among educators involved in professional development.

Guskey (1987) found that teacher efficacy has the ability to impact professional development. The researcher found that teacher characteristics including efficacy were linked to the teachers' belief about congruence, significance of recommended techniques, and difficulty of implementation when exposed to day long staff professional development program. The results indicated that the teachers with higher levels of teacher efficacy rated the learning strategies as congruent with their practices, easier to implement, and as more important than those educators with lower efficacy. This study highlights the importance of increasing teacher efficacy in order to change teacher perspectives and practices.

The previous study focused on increasing teacher efficacy in order to ensure that staff fully engage in the professional development and utilize the practices taught. Cantrell and Hughes (2008) went a step further and investigated the impact of professional development on staff in a specific content area. The professional development series focused on content literacy and educators participated voluntarily. Therefore, the researchers hypothesized that only the content specific educators would see an increase in personal efficacy. The results of this study however demonstrated that the educators involved in the professional development grew in efficacy in three areas general, personal, and collective. General teacher efficacy is the belief that teachers as a whole can influence student learning, personal efficacy is one's belief in their own ability to impact student knowledge, and collective efficacy is the common opinion among the school of their ability to impact student achievement. These results are relevant to this particular study because not all educators work directly with Latino ELL students and therefore this training may not be deemed as relevant. This study however demonstrates

that a professional development series can be successful in increasing teacher efficacy, especially when there is a collaborative component.

Professional Development and Cultural Competence

Teachers begin their careers with varying cultural beliefs, values and experiences that define who they are (Moseley et al., 2014). These can be a challenge when they interact with students with diverse life experiences and cultural backgrounds (Moseley et al., 2014). In order to develop cultural competence and to be able to function in a cultural system different from their own, educators must obtain a sociocultural context knowledge (Bustos Flores et al., 2015). Therefore, professional development should focus on increasing teacher cultural competency.

Professional development that addresses cultural issues and cultural understanding have an increased chance of success if they are spread out into multiple sessions. Beck, Scheel, De Oliveira, and Hopp (2013), utilized quantitative methods to study cultural competencies in first year physician assistants. Although the participants in this study were physician assistants, it was completed in an academic setting making it relevant to this particular study and to teachers. This study spanned five academic terms and had a total of twenty-two participants. Each term focused on different aspects of cultural competency such as: perceptions, beliefs, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and religion. The participants completed four questionnaires that measured their cultural competency over the course of the five terms. The results indicated that the participants' cultural competency scores increased over the course of each term. These results suggest that professional development that focuses on cultural competency should be spread out throughout the year and address a different component during each session.

While Beck, et al. (2013) focused on the spacing of the professional development, researchers Lund and Lee (2015) went a step further and directly exposed education students to cultural learning by working with immigrant students and their families in the community instead of the school. The goal of this study was to expose the education students to their own privilege and social injustices. A total of 11 education students participated and each was required to attend an event of a group with whom they did not self-identify and to compose a reflection piece. Secondly, they were asked to generate a learning strategy for a student that was an English language learner, and differently abled. Data was collected through coded interviews and observations. Results indicated that this experience allowed the education students to analytically self-reflect, and to ascertain strengths in the immigrant students. The education students also reported an increase in self-awareness through the relationships they built with the diverse students. The findings of this study demonstrate that direct interactions with culturally diverse students can positively impact the student teacher relationships by increasing the teacher's cultural competency. Although this study was not conducted in a school, this method can be modified and implemented in an in-house professional development.

The aforementioned study focused on immersing students in the learning process. Researchers Carnevale, Macdonald, Razack, & Steinert (2015) on the other hand focused on the study the development, execution, and assessment of cultural competency development workshop. This workshop was developed to stimulate cultural awareness and increase self-awareness and cultural knowledge. Forty-nine participants took part in four-hour workshop created by the researchers. The participants were all faculty of medicine at McGill University with various professional backgrounds. The workshop

focused on: cultural competency frameworks, the importance of cultural competency, cultural competency skills, and recognizing methods of incorporating cultural awareness in everyday life. Additionally, participants met in two, one-hour small group sessions and participated in activities focused on increasing cultural competency in their jobs. Lastly, 90 minute follow-up sessions occurred at both three and six months following the workshop. Data was collected using three sources: a scale, field notes, and an evaluation.

The results of this study indicated that participant learning was enhanced due to the interdisciplinary design of the workshops. Specifically, participants were able to learn about how other professionals in different disciplines transmit culture in their practices. Secondly, results showed that cultural competency increased as a result of participation. Lastly, participants had a more in-depth understanding of how they can teach cultural competency to their students. The researchers suggest that an interdisciplinary workshop approach be used in further cultural competency trainings.

Culturally Efficacious Professional Development

Prior to discussing the literature on culturally efficacious professional development, it should be noted that researchers have found a relationship between teacher efficacy and cultural competency. JohnBull (2012) conducted a study by means of electronic surveys and demographic data on 600 participants. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent of relationship (if any) between teacher efficacy and cultural competency. The researcher found that cultural competence accounts for a large amount of variance in GTE and that variance in PTE was explained by cultural competency. These results suggest that cultural competence impacts teacher efficacy. Therefore

providing professional development that targets both constructs by creating culturally efficacious educators is imperative.

To be a culturally efficacious educator, “the teacher considers what students bring to the classroom and use what they know (the tools and skills they have) to be able to effectively impact students’ development, learning, and achievement” (Busto Flores et al., 2015, p. 7). This implies that the educator is knowledgeable about their student’s educational background and culture.

In order to study cultural efficacy in educators, Busto Flores et al. (2015) conducted a study on teachers who were part of an accelerated teacher education program (ATEP) at the University of Texas. This program was created in order to prepare teachers by incorporating a cultural efficaciousness model. In total there were 100 teachers included in this study who were either math or science teachers. The teachers worked in one of six urban high schools with mainly minority English language learners who were mostly Latino. Data was collected via forums, focus groups, surveys, interviews, scales, and reviews of records. The findings indicated that the source of efficacy for teachers were: the ATEP program, specifically through their community of practice, the relationships between the school leaders, teachers, and mentors. More specifically, when working with the English learners, these aforementioned relationships supported the teachers in utilizing culturally efficacious practices. Furthermore, the model allowed educators to engage in a community where they examined multiple aspects of themselves and were able to gain cultural understanding. The researchers concluded by stating that school culture must be assessed and that all students must be embraced and valued in order to foster initiative, creativity, and efficacy in teachers. The implications of this

study are valuable to the current study because a connection was found between preparing teachers through training in order to increase culturally efficaciousness.

While Busto Flores et al. (2015) studied culturally efficacious practices in general, Siwatu (2011) focused his research on culturally responsive teaching and self-efficacy (CRTSE). Siwatu (2011) was interested in the CRTSE experiences in which preservice teachers engaged, and the effect that these experiences had on their self-efficacy. The researcher gathered both qualitative and quantitative data from 192 participants in two phases. The results of the first phase of the study showed that the participants felt more confident participating in general teaching methods that do not necessarily consist of a student's cultural experience. Additionally, teachers had low scores on self-efficacy beliefs when engaged in culturally responsive teaching. The results of the second phase of the study also yielded interesting results. The findings suggested that the teachers who reported higher self-efficacy had more exposure to culturally responsive teaching. Furthermore, the teachers shared that only a small number of their teacher preparation classes discussed the theories and practices of culturally responsive teaching. The researcher also pointed out that since culturally responsive teaching is a fairly new concept, teachers who are currently employed may not be familiar with the practices. The implications of this study are very relevant to the study at hand. This study demonstrated that a lack of preparedness and knowledge (cultural competence) when teaching English learners impacted a teacher's self-efficacy. Therefore, it is important to have a professional development series aimed at increasing cultural competency and teacher efficacy when working with the Latino ELL population.

Conclusion

School counselors are in a unique position where they are able to not only assist students on a one-on-one basis, but serve as school leaders with the capabilities to assist their colleagues on a larger scale. Research demonstrates that when implemented correctly, professional development in the educational setting can have a positive impact on teachers and students. School counselors therefore can provide assistance in the form of facilitators of professional development. The creation and implementation of a counselor led professional development series aimed at increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competency in teachers could therefore be an effective avenue. This intervention literature review chapter informed the creation and execution of the professional development series developed for this research study. The following chapter will provide an in-depth discussion of the professional development intervention series targeting teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with Latino ELL students.

Chapter IV

Intervention Procedure and Program Evaluation

As indicated by the review of the literature, educators are in a position to positively impact students. More explicitly, a teacher's sense of efficacy has been directly associated with student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tucker et al., 2005). In addition to teacher efficacy, cultural competency has also been found to have an effect on teachers and to impact teaching practices (J. Jones et al, 2013; McAllister & Irvine, 2000; Sharkey & Layzer, 2000; Siwatu, 2011). The researcher therefore designed an intervention that targeted both teacher efficacy and cultural competency through a four part professional development series. This intervention was designed based on the research on teacher efficacy, cultural competency, and professional development targeting both. The purpose of this study was to engage teachers to professional development sessions that targeted teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with Latino ELL students.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions guided the current study:

RQ 1. Did the four-part professional development series impact teacher efficacy in participants as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES)?

RQ 2. Did the four-part professional development series impact cultural competency in participants as measured by the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS)?

It was hypothesized that the four-part professional development series would positively impact both teacher efficacy and cultural competency in participants when working with Latino ELL students.

Methodology

The study is a quasi-experimental pre-test post-test design and utilized quantitative data. Statistical analysis was conducted on data collected through two surveys that measured teacher efficacy and cultural competency in participants. This data was acquired by means of the TES and TMAS both before the beginning of the professional development intervention and at the conclusion. These surveys were paper and pencil format. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the intervention and will include: a description of the context and participants, participant recruitment, instrumentation, intervention procedure, and a data analysis

Context

The current study was conducted at a high school that serves grades 9 through 12 in a suburban high school in the mid-Atlantic region. The high school served approximately 1,550 students and employed 116.9 professional school staff during the 2015-2016 academic year. Figures for the current school year are currently unavailable, but it is believed that both figures have increased. Professional school staff included administrators, classroom teachers, special education and ELL teachers, team leaders, staff development, athletic directors, media specialist, and school counselors. The professional school staff racial breakdown for the 2015-2016 academic year was as follows: White 62%, Black 19%, Hispanic 11.6%, Asian 5%, and mixed race .8%.

Participants

Although all professional school staff attended the sessions, only 20 teachers from the selected school were the final participants of the study. This is because the selected district only allowed data to be collected from 20 participants. Of the 20 teacher participants, 12 were female and 8 were male. Ethnically, the participant breakdown was as follows: 16 White, 3 Hispanic, and 1 Black. The course content taught by the participants covered a wide range of subjects. The participants were currently teaching classes in the following areas: science, special education, English, English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), world languages, math, engineering, social studies and human behavior. Additionally, the years that the participants worked in education was wide in range. The teacher with the fewest number of years in education was in their fourth year in education (third year as a teacher), while the teacher with the most years in education was in their 29th year. In regards to previous trainings, 11 of the participants indicated that they have participated in trainings on both teacher efficacy and cultural competency, while five others indicated that they have participated in trainings on only cultural competency. Of these five, one stated that he was “not sure” if he had attended a previous training on teacher efficacy. The remaining four participants have not attended any previous trainings on teacher efficacy or cultural competency. Lastly, all of the participants stated that they currently taught students whose first language is not English. The participant sample is described in Table 2 along with the description of the professional school staff at the selected school for comparison.

The participants and teacher population at the selected school have both similarities and differences. The greatest similarity was found in the gender category with

60% of the sample consisting of females and 40% male. The school breakdown was 66.1% female and 33.9% male. The largest disparities were found in two categories, ethnicity and years of experience. Of the sample, 80% identified as White compared to 62% of the population. Additionally, 5% of the participants identified as Black versus 19% of the population. In regards to years of experience, 55% of the participants have 5-15 years of experience while only 39.7% fit into this category in the general population. Lastly, 30% of the sample had over 15 years of experience whereas 45.5% of the general population met this criteria.

Table 2

Characteristics of the Participants and Professional School Staff at the Selected School

Category	Sample	Selected School
Total population	20	116.9
Sex, %		
Female	60	66.1
Male	40	33.9
Ethnicity, %		
White	80	62
Hispanic	15	11.6
Black	5	19
Years of experience, %		
Less than 5 years	15	14.9
5-15 years	55	39.7
More than 15 years	30	45.5

Participant Recruitment. Participant recruitment was conducted electronically.

The researcher reached out to all staff at the designated school location via email. All professional school staff members were eligible to participate in the study. A copy of the invitation email can be found in Appendix A. Thirty six staff members agreed to participate in the study, but data was not collected for all 36 participants. There were two exclusionary factors. First, if a participant did not attend all four sessions, their data was not included. This was tracked through a sign in sheet. Secondly, surveys must have had the code name written on them for identification purposes. A few post-test surveys did not include the participant code name excluding that participant from data collection. Sixteen of the participants were excluded from this study. In total, data was collected from 20 participants. The coding method will be discussed later in the data collection section.

Instrumentation

Two sources of quantitative data were collected from participants in this study: teacher efficacy and cultural competency. The teacher efficacy data was collected by means of a modified version of the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) by Gibson and Dembo (1984). The version that was utilized in this study has been modified by Hoy and Woolfolk (1993). This original scale consisted of 30, six point Likert-type statements, while the modified version only contains ten Likert-type statements. The original scale was not selected for this study because only 16 of the 30 items were found to be acceptably reliable (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Internal reliability was established for both general teaching efficacy and personal

teaching efficacy. Cronbach's alpha resulted in .75 and .78 respectively (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Hoy & Woolfolk (1990) state that a multitrait-multimethod analysis was conducted which supported discriminant and convergent validity of the scale.

The ratings on both the original and modified scale range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Both general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy can be measured with this scale and the ten items that remained on the scale were chosen because they had the highest factor loading (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993), which is how much a factor explains a variable. General Teaching Efficacy (GTE) "appears to reflect a general belief about the power of teaching to reach difficult children and has more in common with teachers' conservative/liberal attitudes toward education" (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993, p. 357). Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE) on the other hand refers to a teacher's sense of personal efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). Table 3 lists examples of the questions and the type of efficacy measured. The full survey can be found in Appendix B.

Table 3

Survey question examples and type of efficacy

Question	Efficacy
When I really try, I can get through to most difficult student	Personal Teaching Efficacy
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly	Personal Teaching Efficacy
The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background	General Teaching Efficacy
If parents would do more for their children, I could do more	General Teaching Efficacy

The second source of data was collected using the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS) by Ponterotto, Baluch, Greig, & Rivera (1998). The TMAS scale measures teacher multicultural sensitivity and awareness which are both factors of multicultural competence (J. Jones et al., 2013). Specifically, the focus is on a teacher's comfort and awareness, and sensitivity to issues of cultural diversity in the school setting (Ponterotto et al, 1998). Coefficient alpha (internal consistency) for this scale was .86. Convergent validity was evaluated by means of correlational analysis. Researchers found a positive correlation between the TMAS and the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) which measures racial and gender bias, and the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) which measures attitudes towards groups of other ethnic groups (Ponterotto et al., 1998). The results were $r=.45$ for racial, $r=.35$ for gender, and $r=.31$ for attitudes towards ethnic groups. The scale is a 20 question survey with a Likert-type scale ranging

from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). This survey included seven questions that must be reverse scored because low scores indicate higher cultural sensitivity or awareness (Ponterotto et al., 1998). An example of a reverse scored question is “Students should learn to communicate in English only”. Both of these scales are pencil and paper format and were completed by participants both at the start of the first session and at the conclusion of the fourth session, consistent with a pre-test, post-test design. The TMAS can be found in Appendix C.

Procedure

This section provides a summary of the components of the four month professional development intervention, data collection methods, and the data analysis. The four month professional development series took place during the monthly staff meeting day and was conducted seven times a day during the rolling staff meetings. All school staff attended. Rolling staff meetings are provided every period throughout the school day and staff are able to access the meeting during one of their planning periods. Staff members all convene in the designated classroom and sit at tables in groups. The groups ranged from four to six staff members. Data was collected from participants both prior to the first session in November 2016 and after the last session in February 2017.

Intervention

Table 4 provides information on the session activity, date of session, duration of the meeting, and description of the sessions. Each session will be discussed in detail following the chart. The logic model for the intervention can be found in Appendix D

Table 4

Session activities, Date, Duration, and Description

Activity	Date	Duration	Description
Data presentation and self-awareness	November 2016	45 minutes	School and county data was shared and discussed. Cultural competency was introduced.
First hand experiences	December 2016	45 minutes	Video interviews with two former Latino ELL students were viewed
Culturally responsive teaching	January 2017	45 minutes	Culturally responsive teaching was discussed
Recap and conclusion	February 2017	45 minutes	Sessions were recapped by means of a game

Session One: Data Presentation and Self-Awareness. The professional development series began with the presentation of school and district data. Specifically, the researcher presented the data gathered during the needs assessment. The needs assessment results demonstrated that that when compared to Latino non-ELL students, Latino ELL students have higher absenteeism rates, higher non-promotion rates and higher dropout rates at the selected school. District data demonstrated that this population is on the rise and is anticipated to continue to grow therefore data from 2011 to the present was presented in order to demonstrate this growth. School staff demographic data was also provided and compared to the demographic data of the student population. Additionally, the presented data was connected to the literature on teacher efficacy and cultural competency. Lastly, the data was discussed as it relates to the school

improvement goals. This is important because in order for a professional development to be deemed as effective by staff, it must align with school goals (Hough, 2011).

The second portion of this first session focused on the beliefs and perspectives of the teachers through a discussion on race and culture. When working with culturally diverse students, teachers' views of themselves impact how they perceive their students and therefore, teachers must evaluate how their cultural beliefs and social positions influence them as teachers (Li, 2013). Culturally competent teachers need to identify and examine their own selves in regard to their culture, ethnicity, and gender (Busto Flores et al., 2015). It was important to accomplish this during the first session because when one's own culture is evaluated early on in an intervention, there is a higher chance that a person will move toward a culturally diverse context (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). The literature shows that this can be accomplished by participating in activities in which they evaluate their value systems, personal histories, and how they compare or contrast to their culturally diverse students (Li, 2013). Engaging as a group allows for discourse where connections can be made along with reflections which all support teacher efficacy (Busto Flores et al., 2015).

In order to accomplish this during the first session the participants engaged in conversations and small group activities. First, staff members were asked to complete a Venn diagram where they listed the similarities and differences of race and culture. After a few minutes, staff members were asked to engage in dialogue with their group members to discuss their diagrams. Following the group discussions, a large group conversation took place where participants shared their responses. The researcher then provided the group with the definitions of race and culture. It was important to make the distinction

between the two because they are not the same. Race is a social construct that refers to skin color while culture is how a person makes sense of the world.

The second activity focused on the cultures of the staff and the cultures present at the selected school. The researcher provided examples of cultures and staff members were given a sheet where they were asked to list the cultures that they are a part of and the cultures at the school. The participants then shared the similarities and differences with their small groups and then with the whole group. Prior to leaving for the day, staff were encouraged to think about how culture impacts their teaching practices.

Session Two: First-Hand Experiences. During the second monthly session, staff members watched taped interviews of two former Latino ELL student graduates from the selected school. Prior to beginning, the researcher recapped the first session and what was discussed. Following the recap, teachers watched videotaped interviews with two former Latino ELL students, one male and one female. The videotaped interviews included: perceptions of their educational experiences, their hardships, teachers that positively impacted them, effective teaching methods, and what they wish teachers would have asked them. Questions that were addressed during the interview sessions were: What was their level of English upon arrival to high school? What was their perception of their high school experience? What would the student change about their educational experience? What helped the student in achieving academic success? What was the student's home life like during high school? What do they wish teachers would have asked them?

These interviews allowed staff to hear first-hand accounts of what the students deemed as effective teaching methods. For example, one of the students specifically recounted a lesson from one of her history classes and how the teacher's lesson impacted

her learning. This example and others provided in the interviews had the potential to be impactful for various reasons. First, the students attended the selected school and graduated. Second, the students provided examples of how they were academically and emotionally impacted by staff. Thirdly, the students referenced teachers who are still teaching at the school today. This allowed for other educators to see that their colleagues have had success with this population. Lastly, the students provided suggestions of how staff can improve. The goal was for staff to gain an in depth understanding of what the school experience is like for Latino ELL students and to understand that they have the ability to impact student learning.

While watching these interviews, the teachers were asked to write down anything new that they learned. This is important because in order for teachers to become culturally competent, they need to understand the community of the student and the student (Busto Flores et al., 2015). Additionally, Busto Flores et al (2015) state that, “cultural proficiency is the recognition that knowledge and reasoning within different communities are derived distinctly and that people have unique ways of being and understanding” (p. 6). Moreover, it is of great importance for staff to have opportunities to interact (in this particular case, to watch) students of differing ethnic backgrounds authentically (McAllister & Irvine, 2000). Following the video, participants were given an opportunity to talk amongst their small groups and then to share out with the whole group.

Session Three: Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT). This session began with a brief recap of the first two session and introduced culturally responsive teaching by providing the definition. Culturally relevant teaching requires that teachers be

attentive to the needs of their students (Ladson-Billings, 2000). Therefore, during this session, the researcher suggested classroom strategies and discussed their benefits. A very basic, but effective strategy is that of a student inventory or survey/s. It is important that teachers learn what students need so that they can meet their student's needs (Polleck & Shabdin, 2013). Teachers were encouraged to utilize a culture chart as a type of inventory. The culture charts that were provided in session one were suggested as a tool to use with their students in order to learn about the various cultures in their classes. The data gained from these surveys and inventories can then be used by teachers when planning in order to make lessons more relatable and relevant to the student (Polleck & Shabdin, 2013), and to apply them in the classroom (Busto Flores et al., 2015). Additionally, surveys allow for teachers to inquire about their students' past school experiences and to learn about what their students are accustomed to. An added benefit of surveys is that this will allow for direct teacher-student interactions which have been found to positively impact student-teacher relationships (Lund & Lee, 2015), ELL students need to have positive exchanges in school if they are to improve academically (Burham, et al., 2009). For example, if teachers know that a large portion of their Latino ELL students are from El Salvador, they can do research on El Salvador in order to understand their students' backgrounds. This strategy ensures that the focus topics are significant and important because they are from the student's communities and homes (Wyatt, 2014).

In addition to the surveys three strategies from the book *Culturally Responsive Teaching and the Brain: Promoting Authentic Engagement and Rigor Among Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students* by Zaretta Hammond were shared with staff. The

strategies were: gamify, storify, and make it social. Hammond (2015) states that games strengthen neural pathways in learners and offer an opportunity to rehearse new and old knowledge. Storify refers to verbal expression of content in the form of a story as a way to process new content (Hammond, 2015). This method was selected because in many Latino and African American cultures are oral and stories are the backbone of these cultures (Hammond, 2015). Lastly, make it social was discussed because Latino students come from collectivist cultures and these cultures utilize social interactions as a way to learn (Hammond, 2015). The key takeaway from these strategies is that "...children's brains create neural pathways in the working memory that are primed for processing information orally and actively (Hammond, 2015, p.127).

Following the presentation on the strategies, staff were provided an example of a science vocabulary lesson and were asked how they could implement one or more of the strategies to make the lesson more culturally responsive. They talked among their small groups and then shared their strategies with the whole group. This allowed for teachers to think through the process and reflect on the implementation technique with their group members.

Session Four: Debrief/Conclusion. This last session was a review session and began with a summary of the last three monthly sessions. Staff sat at tables in small groups and each small group was provided a board game (Appendix E), game cards (Appendix F), and game pieces. The researcher then provided staff with the directions. The directions were as follows: each group member takes a turn playing the game. When it was a group member's turn, the member selected a card from the pile of cards which were face down on the table. Once the card was selected, it was read aloud to the group.

The group member then had to follow the direction on the card or answer the question. For example, if the card read, “explain the difference between race and culture”, the person would need to provide a response to this prompt. Once the answer was provided, the game piece could be moved forward. The first person to reach the end of the board game won and the game was over. Each group played the game and if someone won the game, the cards were reshuffled and the group played again. This game allowed to staff to share their thoughts, and assist and or support one another if necessary. Staff should have an opportunity to be supported by others in a support group type setting when reflection can occur and differences can be discussed (McAllister & Irvine, 2000).

Data Collection

Thirty six teachers completed the two pre-test scales and the demographic questionnaire prior to the first intervention session. Each participant wrote a code name at the top of the scales and the questionnaire. The code name was their mother’s maiden name and their birth month (i.e. Smith 2). There were a total of four monthly sessions which took place from November 2016 to February 2017. At the beginning of each session, participants were asked to sign in using their code name. This method was implemented in order to track participant attendance. At the conclusion of the four sessions, the post-test scales were again distributed, but only 32 participants completed the scales. Of those 32 participants, two did not write their codename on their scales excluding them from the study. The purpose of the intervention was to study the impact (if any) of the professional development sessions, so only participants that attended all four sessions and completed pre-test and post-test scales were included in the study. Data from the participants that did not attend all sessions was therefore excluded from the

study. After accounting for all of the aforementioned factors only data for 20 participants remained.

Surveys. Both the TES and the TMAS were completed by participants both prior to the first intervention session in November 2016 and after the fourth intervention session in February 2017. They were distributed to participants and returned to a designated location. These surveys were pencil and paper format. See Appendix B and Appendix C

Demographic Data. Demographic data was collected from participants once during this study. Participants were provided a brief demographic questionnaire prior to the beginning of the first intervention session in November 2016. See Appendix G

Data Analysis. Data collected from both the TES and the TMAS was input into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Paired sample t-tests were performed to compare teacher efficacy means from before the intervention (pre-test) and following the intervention (post-test). This was calculated three times to measure: Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE), General Teaching Efficacy (GTE), and the combined teaching efficacy. Paired sample t-test was also performed to compare the pre and post-test data on the TMAS.

Data Summary Matrix

The data summary matrix shows the alignment between the research questions, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. The data summary matrix can be found in Appendix H.

Evaluation

In order to evaluate fidelity in an intervention, indicators must be assigned (Nelson, Cordray, Hulleman, Darrow, & Summer, 2012). Fidelity indicators can be divided into five categories: adherence, dosage, delivery of the intervention, responsiveness of the participant, and differentiation within the program (Dusenbury, Brannigan, Falco, and Hansen 2003). However, it has not yet been proven if all five indicators must be present in an intervention for it to reach its goals (Dusenbury et al., 2012). Nelson et al. (2012) state that indices should be applied to parts of the intervention to gauge if the intervention had the expected effect. In this study, the researcher has identified three fidelity indicators: adherence (information presented), dosage (attendance), and quality (delivery of instruction). Table 5 lists the fidelity indicators for the intervention.

Table 5

Fidelity indicators, source, tool, and frequency

Fidelity Indicator	Source	Tool	Frequency
Adherence: information presented	Meetings with staff development teacher		Before monthly intervention sessions
Dosage: attendance	Participants	Sign-in sheet	Every session
Quality: delivery of intervention	Researcher	Paper copy of presentation	Every session

Adherence: Information Presented. In order to evaluate whether the goals of each session and adherence to the goals, the researcher met with the staff development teacher prior to each session to review the presentations and to discuss the activities. These meetings occurred prior to each monthly staff meeting and assisted the researcher

in determining whether the presentations and activities were clear and met the expected goals.

Dosage: Attendance. Dosage is the quantity of the intervention to which the participants were exposed (Dusenbury et al., 2012). In order to measure if the participants are exposed to all of the parts of the intervention attendance was monitored. This was accomplished with a sign in sheet. Announcements were made both at the beginning of each of the four sessions and that the conclusion of the session to ensure that all participants signed in.

Quality: Delivery of the Intervention. The third indicator is the quality indicator which monitored the researcher's delivery of the intervention. To ensure that the same material was presented to each group, the researcher kept a paper copy of the PowerPoint presentation which ensured that all of the necessary points were made to the groups. Throughout the presentation the researcher would refer to it to monitor progress.

Conclusion

The four part professional development series was created based on the literature and was targeted at developing teacher efficacy and cultural competency when working with Latino ELL students. This chapter discussed the quasi-experimental design utilized to collect and evaluate the data based on the research questions. A description of the participants and participant recruitment was also provided. Additionally, this chapter also included an in-depth description of the intervention, data collection, data analysis, and summary matrix. Chapter 5 will discuss the findings of the research.

Chapter V

Findings and Discussion

The purpose of this research was to study teacher efficacy and cultural competency in teachers when working with Latino ELL students. Chapter 4 presented the quasi-experimental research design and intervention components. The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings yielded through data collection as it relates to the research questions, discuss the findings and evaluation of the intervention, assess the limitations of the study, and to address the implications for practice. The following research questions guided this study:

RQ 1. Did the four-part professional development series impact teacher efficacy in participants as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES)?

RQ 2. Did the four-part professional development series impact cultural competency in participants as measured by the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS)?

Process of Implementation

School staff at the selected high school located in a suburban mid-Atlantic state participated in a monthly four-part professional development series. The professional development sessions were as follows: data presentation and self-awareness, first-hand experiences from former Latino ELL students, CRT strategies, and a review session. Data from the participants was collected both before the start of the first session and at the conclusion of the sessions, in November 2016, and February 2017, respectively. The data that was collected included two scales: TES and the TMAS which were both collected pre-test and post-test. Demographic data was collected once from participants in

November 2016. This confidential data utilized in this study was collected from 20 voluntary participants.

Findings: Teacher Efficacy

The first research question was focused on teacher efficacy and will be investigated in this section. Quantitative data on teacher efficacy collected by the TES was analyzed. In order to determine whether teacher efficacy changed throughout participation in the intervention, pre and post-test TES scores were compared. Teacher efficacy scores were evaluated Personal Teacher Efficacy (PTE), and General Teacher Efficacy (GTE). PTE refers to a person's judgement of their competence as a teacher (Ashton & Webb, 1982) and GTE denotes to a teacher's belief that teaching can impact learning (Ashton & Webb, 1982). Additionally, PTE and GTE data was further analyzed by gender (male and female), previous training (those who had prior training in teacher efficacy and those who did not have prior training in teacher efficacy), and ethnicity (White participants and non-White participants). As previously mentioned, Cronbach's alpha resulted in .75 for GTE and .78 for PTE (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability or internal consistency of the TES. The results demonstrated an overall alpha = .72. Cronbach alpha levels between .65 and .8 are the standard of a good coefficient (Goforth, 2015). Table 6 lists each measure of efficacy and the pre-intervention and post-intervention means.

Table 6

Participant Pre-Intervention and Post-Intervention Means, and Standard Deviations by

Efficacy Measure

Measure of Efficacy	Pre-Intervention Mean	SD	Post-Intervention Mean	SD
Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE)	24	2.80	24.55	3.26
General Teaching Efficacy (GTE)	23.60	3.47	24.60	4.19

Table 7 lists the pre-intervention responses and means for each individual question while

Table 8 lists the post-intervention responses and means for each individual question.

Table 7
TES Pre-Intervention Results and Means by Question

Question		1 Strongly disagree	2 Moderately disagree	3 Disagree slightly more than agree	4 Agree slightly more than disagree	5 Moderately agree	6 Strongly agree	Mean Score
When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	5% 1	5% 1	35% 7	55% 11	5.4
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his or her retention in the next lesson.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	20% 4	35% 7	35% 7	10% 2	4.35
When a student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found a better way	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	5% 1	15% 3	50% 10	20% 4	10% 2	4.15
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	5% 1	20% 4	45% 9	30% 6	5
If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated student	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	25% 5	40% 8	35% 7	5.1
*The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	5% 1	10% 2	35% 7	50% 10	5.3
*A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	20% 4	25% 5	35% 7	20% 4	4.55
*When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	20% 4	45% 9	35% 7	5.15
*If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	10% 2	20% 4	5% 1	45% 9	20% 4	4.45
*If parents would do more for their children, I could do more.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0% 0	15% 3	25% 5	20% 4	10% 2	30% 6	4.15

*denotes questions that were reverse scored

Table 8

TES Post-Intervention Results and Means by Question

Question		1 Strongly disagree	2 Moderately disagree	3 Disagree slightly more than agree	4 Agree slightly more than disagree	5 Moderately agree	6 Strongly agree	Mean Score
When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	0%	10%	50%	40%	5.3
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his or her retention in the next lesson.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	10%	30%	40%	20%	4.7
When a student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found a better way	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	20%	30%	40%	10%	4.4
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	5%	0%	10%	50%	35%	5.1
If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated student	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	5%	0%	5%	65%	25%	5.05
*The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	5%	10%	25%	60%	5.4
*A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	10%	25%	25%	40%	4.95
*When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	0%	0%	10%	40%	50%	5.4
*If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	5%	15%	15%	40%	25%	4.65
*If parents would do more for their children, I could do more.	$\frac{\%}{\# \text{ of responses}}$	0%	10%	30%	15%	20%	25%	4.2

* denotes questions that were reverse scored

Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE)

A paired sample t-test was calculated from pre-test and post-test intervention data. The paired sample t-test discovered no significant differences between the pre-intervention PTE ($M = 24$, $SD = 2.80$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 24.55$, $SD = 3.26$; $t = -0.84$, $p = 0.41$). November 2016 PTE scores ranged from 19 to 28 and February 2017 PTE scores ranged from 15 to 29. The average PTE mean change was 0.55.

PTE Based on Gender. In order to determine whether there was a difference in PTE based on gender, paired sample t-test were also calculated. For female participants ($n=12$) the paired sample t-test discovered no significant differences between the pre-intervention PTE ($M = 24.16$, $SD = 2.95$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 25.75$, $SD = 2.45$; $t = -1.97$, $p = 0.74$).

In male participants ($n = 8$) the paired sample t-test also found no significant differences between the pre-intervention PTE ($M = 23.75$, $SD = 2.76$) and the post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 22.75$, $SD = 3.65$; $t = 1.10$, $p = 0.30$). These results suggest that PTE was not impacted in both female and male participants as a result of the intervention.

PTE Based on Previous Training. To evaluate PTE results based on exposure to prior teacher efficacy trainings, a t-test analysis was also conducted. In participants with previous teacher efficacy trainings ($n=11$), the paired sampled t-test found no significant differences between pre-intervention PTE ($M = 24.45$, $SD = 2.97$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 24.72$, $SD = 2.57$; $t = -0.32$, $p = 0.75$).

A t-test was also conducted to determine if the intervention had an impact on participants with no prior exposure to trainings on teacher efficacy (n=8). The t-test found no significant difference between the pre-intervention PTE ($M = 23.87, SD = 2.47$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 25.50, SD = 2.32; t = -1.83, p = 0.10$). These results suggest that the intervention did not impact PTE scores participants with prior trainings and those without prior exposure to teacher efficacy trainings. These results however may indicate the potential for a significant effect if there were a larger sample size because there was a directionally positive increase in teacher efficacy for the eight participants.

PTE Based on Ethnicity. A t-test was conducted to determine whether White teacher PTE scores were impacted as a result of four month professional development series. Sixteen of the participants identified as White. Results indicated that there was no significant difference between the pre-intervention PTE scores ($M = 24, SD = 2.68$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 24.43, SD = 3.65; t = -0.62, p = 0.53$) for White participants.

The results were also not significant for the four non-White participants (three Hispanic and one Black). The t-test results demonstrated that there was no significant difference in pre-intervention PTE scores ($M = 24, SD = 3.73$) and post-intervention PTE scores ($M = 25, SD = 0.81; t = -0.51, p = 0.64$) for non-White participants. Results suggest that the four month professional development series did not impact PTE in both White and non-White participants. It should however be noted that the sample size was small which may have impacted the lack of significance.

General Teaching Efficacy (GTE)

GTE pre and post-test intervention data was used to conduct a paired sample t-test. The paired sample t-test found no significant differences between the pre-intervention GTE ($M = 23.60$, $SD = 3.47$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 24.60$, $SD = 4.19$; $t = -1.2$, $p = 0.24$) for participants ($n=20$). November 2016 GTE pre-intervention scores ranged from 17 to 29. February post-intervention scores ranged from 17 to 30. The average mean change was 1.

GTE Based on Gender. A t-test was conducted to determine whether GTE scores were impacted based on gender. There was a significant difference female participants ($n=12$) in pre-intervention GTE ($M = 23.66$, $SD = 3.77$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 26.66$, $SD = 2.96$; $t = -3.38$, $p = 0.006$). This is statistically significant at .01 level. These results suggest that the four month intervention had an effect on female participants GTE and were not likely due to chance. Table 9 lists female participant pre and post-intervention means and mean difference by GTE question.

Table 9

Female Participant Pre-Intervention Mean, Post-Intervention mean, and Mean

Difference

Question	Pre-Intervention Mean	Post- Intervention Mean	Mean Difference
The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background	5.33	5.75	0.42
A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	4.75	5.33	0.58
When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	5.16	5.75	0.59
If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline	4.41	5.08	0.77
If parents would do more for their children, I could do more	4.00	4.75	0.75

Male GTE data was also analyzed. The paired sample t-test findings indicated that scores on the pre-intervention GTE scores for male participants ($M = 23.50$, $SD = 3.2$) were significantly different from post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 21.5$, $SD = 3.96$; $t = 2.36$, $p = 0.05$). These results suggest that the intervention had a negative effect on male participant GTE scores and were not likely due to chance. This is significant at the .05

level. Table 10 lists the GTE questions, pre and post-intervention means, and the mean differences for male participants.

Table 10

Male Participant Pre-Intervention Mean, Post-Intervention mean, and Mean Difference

Question	Pre-Intervention Mean	Post-Intervention Mean	Mean Difference
The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background	5.25	4.87	-0.38
A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	4.25	4.37	-0.12
When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	5.12	4.87	-0.25
If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline	4.5	4	-0.50
If parents would do more for their children, I could do more	4.37	3.37	-1.0

GTE Based on Previous Training. In order to evaluate GTE results based on exposure to prior teacher efficacy trainings, a t-test analysis was also conducted. T-test results indicate no significant difference between the pre-intervention GTE ($M = 23.09$, $SD = 4.03$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 25.09$, $SD = 3.11$; $t = -1.73$, $p = 0.11$) for participants ($n=11$) with prior teacher efficacy trainings.

GTE data for participants with no prior teacher efficacy training was also analyzed. The results indicate that there was no significant difference between pre-intervention GTE ($M = 23.87$, $SD = 2.69$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 23.62$, $SD = 5.62$; $t = 0.19$, $p = 0.85$) for participants ($n=8$) with no prior teacher efficacy trainings. The results suggest that GTE for participants with prior trainings and those without prior training were not impacted as a result of the four month professional development intervention.

GTE Based on Ethnicity. GTE data for White participants was also evaluated. Results demonstrated that there was no significant difference between pre-intervention GTE ($M = 23.95$, $SD = 3.19$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 25$, $SD = 4.32$; $t = -1.06$, $p = 0.30$) for participants ($n=16$) who identified as White.

Non-White ($n=4$), GTE participant data was also assessed. The results of the paired sampled t-test show that there was no significant difference between pre-intervention GTE ($M = 22.25$, $SD = 4.71$) and post-intervention GTE scores ($M = 23$, $SD = 3.74$; $t = -0.54$, $p = 0.62$) in non-White participants. These results suggest that GTE scores were not impacted in both White and non-White participants as a result of the four month professional development series.

Pre-intervention means, post-intervention means, and mean differences for each question on the TES by efficacy construct can be found in table 11.

Table 11

Pre-Intervention Mean, Post-Intervention mean, and Mean Difference by Efficacy

Construct

Efficacy Type	Pre-Intervention Mean	Post-Intervention Mean	Mean Difference
PTE	5.4	5.3	-0.10
PTE	4.35	4.7	0.35
PTE	4.15	4.4	0.25
PTE	5	5.1	0.10
PTE	5.1	5.05	-0.05
GTE	5.3	5.4	0.10
GTE	4.55	4.95	0.40
GTE	5.15	5.4	0.25
GTE	4.45	4.65	0.20
GTE	4.15	4.2	0.5

Findings: Cultural Competence

The second research question focused on cultural competence and was measured using quantitative data collected by the TMAS. In order to determine whether cultural competence changed throughout participation of the intervention, pre-intervention and post-intervention TMAS scores were compared. As previously noted, the internal consistency for this scale was .86 (Ponterotto et al.,1998). The researcher used Cronbach's alpha to assess the reliability or internal consistency of the TMAS. The values resulted in an overall alpha of = .87 which is a good standard (Goforth, 2015).

Cultural Competence

A paired sampled t-test compared pre and post-intervention cultural competency scores for the participants. Table 12 lists the pre-intervention TMAS responses and means for each individual question.

Table 12

TMAS Pre-Intervention Results and Means by Question

Question		1 Strongly disagree	2 Moderately disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Moderately agree	5 Strongly agree	Mean Score
I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	10% 2	90% 18	4.90
Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group	% # of responses	0% 0	5% 1	5% 1	35% 7	55% 11	4.40
*Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers	% # of responses	0% 0	5% 1	20% 4	35% 7	40% 8	4.10
Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural background	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	10% 2	25% 5	65% 13	4.55
I frequently invite extended family members (e.g. cousins, grandparents, godparents) to parent-teacher conferences	% # of responses	45% 9	10% 2	40% 8	0% 0	5% 1	2.10
*It is not the teachers responsibility to encourage pride in ones culture	% # of responses	5% 1	0% 0	25% 5	35% 7	35% 7	3.95
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly challenging	% # of responses	5% 1	15% 3	15% 3	50% 10	15% 3	3.55
I believe that the teachers role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally diverse backgrounds	% # of responses	0% 0	20% 4	5% 1	45% 9	30% 6	3.85
When dealing with bilingual children, communication styles often are interpreted as behavioral problems	% # of responses	5% 1	10% 2	10% 2	60% 12	15% 3	3.70
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly rewarding	% # of responses	0% 0	5% 1	15% 3	35% 7	45% 9	4.20
I can learn a great deal from students with culturally diverse backgrounds	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	15% 3	85% 17	4.85
*Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	10% 2	25% 5	65% 13	4.55

To be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of cultural differences present in the classroom	% # of responses	0%	10%	5%	35%	50%	4.25
Multicultural awareness training can help me to work more effectively with a diverse student population	% # of responses	0%	5%	10%	30%	55%	4.35
*Students should learn to communicate in English only	% # of responses	0%	0%	30%	30%	40%	4.10
*Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity	% # of responses	0%	0%	25%	20%	55%	4.30
I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my classroom	% # of responses	0%	5%	0%	45%	50%	4.40
Regardless of the makeup of my class, it is important for student's to be aware of multicultural diversity	% # of responses	0%	0%	20%	20%	60%	4.40
*Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject that I teach	% # of responses	0%	15%	5%	15%	65%	4.30
*Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom	% # of responses	0%	0%	10%	10%	80%	4.70

*denotes reverse scored

Findings indicated that scores on the pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 83.50$, $SD = 9.63$) for cultural competency following the four month intervention were significantly different than post- intervention TMAS scores ($M = 86.65$, $SD = 7.75$; $t = -2.37$, $p = .02$). The average mean change was 3.15. These results suggest that the four month professional development intervention sessions had an effect on participants' (n=20) cultural competency and were not likely due to chance. This is statistically significant at .05 level. The results are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13

Mean Differences and Stand Deviations in Cultural Competency between pre and post-intervention surveys

	N	Mean	SD	<i>p</i>
Pre-Survey Cultural Competency	20	83.50	9.63	
Post-Survey Cultural Competency	20	86.65	7.75	<i>p</i> = .02

Of the 20 questions in the TMAS, scores increased in 14, four remained the same, and decreased in two. Increases in means ranged from 0.05 to 0.9. The largest mean increase was found in question three (a reverse scored question) which states “Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers” (Ponterotto, et al., 1998). As stated, scores decreased in two questions; those decreases in means were -0.05 and -0.15. Table 14 lists the post-intervention TMAS responses and means for each individual question. Mean changes are listed in Table 15.

Table 14

TMAS Post-Intervention Results and Means by Question

Question		1 Strongly disagree	2 Moderately disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Moderately agree	5 Strongly agree	Mean Score
I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	10% 2	90% 18	4.90
Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	20% 4	80% 16	4.80
*Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers	% # of responses	0% 0	10% 2	20% 4	30% 6	40% 8	4.00
Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural background	% # of responses	0% 0	5% 1	0% 0	30% 6	65% 13	4.55
I frequently invite extended family members (e.g cousins, grandparents, godparents) to parent-teacher conferences	% # of responses	15% 3	20% 4	65% 13	0% 0	0% 0	2.5
*It is not the teachers responsibility to encourage pride in ones culture	% # of responses	0% 0	5% 1	25% 5	35% 7	35% 7	4.00
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly challenging	% # of responses	5% 1	5% 1	0% 0	55% 11	35% 7	4.10
I believe that the teachers role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally diverse backgrounds	% # of responses	0% 0	15% 3	15% 3	45% 9	25% 5	3.80
When dealing with bilingual children, communication styles often are interpreted as behavioral problems	% # of responses	5% 1	0% 0	15% 3	50% 10	30% 6	4.00
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly rewarding	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	5% 1	40% 8	55% 11	4.50
I can learn a great deal from students with culturally diverse backgrounds	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	0% 0	15% 3	85% 17	4.85
*Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary	% # of responses	0% 0	0% 0	5% 1	15% 3	80% 16	4.75

To be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of cultural differences present in the classroom	# of responses % # of	0%	0%	5%	25%	70%	4.65
Multicultural awareness training can help me to work more effectively with a diverse student population	# of responses % # of	0%	5%	5%	30%	60%	4.45
*Students should learn to communicate in English only	# of responses % # of	0%	5%	0%	45%	50%	4.35
*Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity	# of responses % # of	0%	0%	25%	15%	60%	4.35
I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my classroom	# of responses % # of	0%	0%	0%	60%	40%	4.40
Regardless of the makeup of my class, it is important for student's to be aware of multicultural diversity	# of responses % # of	0%	0%	5%	30%	65%	4.60
*Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject that I teach	# of responses % # of	0%	0%	15%	15%	70%	4.55
*Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom	# of responses % # of	0%	5%	0%	30%	65%	4.55

*denotes reverse scored

Table 15

Pre-Intervention Mean, Post-Intervention Mean, and the Mean Difference in Participants

Pre-Intervention Mean	Post-Intervention Mean	Mean Difference
4.90	4.90	0
4.40	4.80	0.40
4.10	4.00	0.90
4.55	4.55	0
2.10	2.50	0.40
3.95	4.00	0.05
3.55	4.10	0.55
3.85	3.80	-0.05
3.70	4.00	0.30
4.20	4.50	0.30
4.85	4.85	0
4.55	4.75	0.20
4.25	4.65	0.40
4.35	4.45	0.10
4.10	4.35	0.25
4.30	4.35	0.05
4.40	4.40	0
4.40	4.60	0.20
4.30	4.55	0.25
4.70	4.55	-0.15

Cultural Competency Based on Gender. In order to evaluate whether TMAS scores based on gender, paired t-test were conducted. The results of the paired sample t-test suggest that the scores on the pre-intervention TMAS for female participants ($M = 87.25$, $SD = 7.23$) for cultural competency following the four month intervention were not significantly different than post- intervention TMAS scores ($M = 88.58$, $SD = 7.87$; $t = -1.15$, $p = 0.27$).

A t-test was also conducted on the male participant data. There was no significant difference in scores for male participants in pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 77.87$, $SD = 10.46$) and post-intervention scores ($M = 83.75$, $SD = 7.04$; $t = -2.21$, $p = 0.06$). These findings suggest that gender did not impact scores on the TMAS.

Cultural Competency Based on Previous Training. In order to determine whether prior training in cultural competency impacted participant scores, two t-test analysis were conducted. Sixteen participants indicated that they had some type of training on cultural competency prior to this intervention. The paired sampled t-test found no significant difference between the pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 85.75, SD = 7.75$) and the post-intervention TMAS scores ($M = 87.25, SD = 8.32; t = -1.59, p = 0.13$) for participants with prior cultural competency training.

A t-test was also conducted utilizing pre-intervention and post-intervention data on participants with no prior cultural competency training ($n=4$). The paired sampled t-test found no significant difference between the pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 74.50, SD = 12.36$) and the post-intervention TMAS scores ($M = 84.25, SD = 4.99; t = -2.19, p = 0.11$) for participants with no prior cultural competency training. These results suggest that prior cultural competency training did not impact TMAS scores.

Cultural Competency Based on Ethnicity. To evaluate if there was a relationship between participant ethnicity and TMAS scores, t-tests were conducted. Sixteen of the participants identified as White, three as Hispanic, and one as Black. In order to evaluate the differences in TMAS scores, the first set of data included the sixteen White participants, and the second evaluated the other four participants. A paired sampled t-test found a significant difference between pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 82.68, SD = 10.58$) and the post-intervention TMAS scores ($M = 86.56, SD = 7.94; t = -2.64, p = 0.018$) for participants who identified as being White. These results are significant at the 0.05 level.

For the non-White participants ($n=4$), the paired sampled t-test found no significant difference between the pre-intervention TMAS ($M = 86.75, SD = 3.30$) and the post-intervention TMAS scores ($M = 87, SD = 8.04; t = -0.08, p = 0.93$). These results suggest the four month professional development intervention sessions had an effect on White participants cultural competency. The four non-White participants however, did not.

Conclusions

The researcher hypothesized that the four-part professional development series (independent variable) would have an impact on teacher efficacy (dependent variable) and cultural competency (dependent variable). The statistical analysis however revealed both insignificant and significant data. The first research question asked “Did the four-part professional development series impact teacher efficacy in participants as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES)?” A paired sample t-test statistical analysis was conducted and demonstrated that there were no statistically significant findings in PTE and GTE scores.

In order to investigate this construct more closely both PTE and GTE scores were evaluated based on gender, prior experiences with teacher efficacy training, and ethnicity. For PTE there were no statistically significant findings in participants that were: male, female, White, non-White (Hispanic and Black), had previous experience with teacher efficacy training, and did not have previous experience in teacher efficacy training.

GTE scores based on the same factors yielded different results. The t-test analysis did not show significant results for participants that: identified as White, non-White (Hispanic and Black), had previous training in teacher efficacy, and did not have prior

training in teacher efficacy. Results based on gender however did yield significant findings. Female participant scores on GTE were statistically significant suggesting that the female participants that took part in the four month intervention increased in GTE. Male participants on the other hand also had statistically significant results, but in a negative direction. Post-test GTE scores were statistically significantly lower than the pre-test scores suggesting that GTE in male participants decreased as a result of the four month professional development intervention.

The second research question asked whether the four-part professional development series impacted cultural competency in participants as measured by the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS)? These results seem to indicate that there is relationship between the four-part professional development series and cultural competency. More specifically, these results suggest that taking part in the four-part professional development series increased cultural competency in teachers when working with Latino ELL students.

This construct was also evaluated based on gender, previous training in cultural competency, and ethnicity. The paired sampled t-test did not find statistically significant results for the following participant characteristics: males, females, non-White (Hispanic and Black), those with previous cultural competency training, and those with no previous cultural competency training. There were however statistically significant results for the White participants. These results suggest that the White participants had an increase in cultural competency as a result of the four month professional development series which were not likely due to chance.

Discussion of the Findings

This section will present a summary of the study, findings, and evaluation of the intervention. Additionally, the researcher will discuss the limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, and implications for practice.

Summary of the Study and Findings

This study sought to determine whether participation in a four-part professional development series would impact teacher efficacy and cultural competency in teachers when working with Latino ELL students. The data revealed that teacher efficacy in the 20 participants did not increase as a result of the four-part professional development series. Pre-intervention efficacy scores for both GTE and PTE were all 4.15 and above suggesting that participants all began with either high efficacy, or a belief that their teacher efficacy was high. As suggested by the Bruce, et al.,(2010) study, teachers that were not already receiving consistent professional development were not aware that their skills were limited. This school, in particular has not had professional development focused on the Latino ELL population in recent years.

When evaluating the impact of the study based on gender, previous training, and ethnicity the results varied between PTE and GTE. For PTE all subgroups did not yield statistically significant results. The largest mean change from pre to post-intervention was .35 on the PTE question that read, "If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his or her retention in the next lesson." It is suspected that this increased as a result of session three of the professional development series where culturally responsive teaching strategies were introduced. During this session, three teaching strategies were discussed as methods of engaging

students. It is possible that this session and the group discussions led to the increase in this score. Teachers could have felt that they learned strategies and were better equipped to increase retention in students.

GTE findings for the White, non-White, and those with and without previous training were statistically non-significant. Results however were statistically significant for female participants. This is consistent with previous research by Atta, Ahmad, Ahmed, & Ali (2012) who found that female teachers have higher teacher efficacy. Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam, & Konin, (2015) also found that female teachers in general have higher teacher efficacy in instructional strategies which can be classified as a general teacher technique. The researchers also state that female teachers are more likely to modify lessons and to apply alternative strategies. The four month professional development intervention may have reinforced teacher GTE by providing both new information about this specific population and relevant strategies. This is important because teachers with high GTE believe that all students are able to learn notwithstanding outside hurdles including the background of the family (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

The largest mean change from pre to post-intervention was 0.40 and was a GTE question. The question read, "A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement". It is suspected that session two of the professional development series may have impacted this. During session two of the series, participants watched video interview with two former Latino ELL students. These students discussed their high school experience and the hurdles that they faced (i.e. jobs, babysitting duties). Notwithstanding the obstacles,

these two students graduated from high school and remember their high school experience and teachers fondly.

It is also conceivable that these interviews may have impacted their efficacy as a vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or emotional arousal. As described in chapter one, Bandura (1989) defined a vicarious experience as a time in which a person sees another succeed in a difficult situation. During the interviews, the students directly referenced positive interactions with their former teachers by name and those teachers were still employed at the location. Although the participants did not directly witness the interactions between teacher and students, this could have made an impact because the references to colleagues could have made success seem more attainable. Secondly, these interviews could also have been a form of indirect verbal persuasion. Verbal persuasion is when a person is persuaded that they can manage a situation (Bandura, 1989). Bandura (1977) states that, "People are led, through suggestion, into believing they can cope successfully with what has overwhelmed them in the past" (p. 198). The researcher hoped that the taped interviews would allow participants to hear that their efforts can have a positive effect on students. It is possible however, that verbal persuasion did not impact participants, especially if they did not believe that this was a problem area to begin with. Lastly, these interviews could have been a type of emotional arousal. During the interviews the two students discussed how impactful their former teachers were in their lives and they recalled fond memories of their high school experience notwithstanding the difficulties of being ELL students learning a new language and educational system. If a participant had minimal experience with a Latino ELL student, he or she may have been less efficacious (or may have had an inflated sense of efficacy) prior to this study.

Bandura (1977) states, “Individuals who come to believe that they are less vulnerable than they previously assumed are less prone to generate frightening thoughts in threatening situations” (p. 200). Therefore, these interviews may have assisted the vulnerable participants by allowing them to realize the potential impact that they can have on students thereby impacting their emotional arousal.

Additionally, social desirability could also have impacted the pre and post-test scores on the TES. The participants may have wanted to appear to have higher efficacy. Social desirability in responding has been found in studies where the participants want to appear to conform to social norms (King & Bruner, 2000). Participants were aware that teacher efficacy was a construct being studied.

Male GTE results were also statistically significant, but the post-intervention scores were lower than the pre-intervention scores. It is unclear as to why scores decreased as a result of this intervention, but it is suspected that the intervention had a negative effect on GTE. The largest drop in mean scores was on the GTE question that read, “If parents would do more for their children, I could do more.” It is possible that learning about student lives outside of schools (i.e. jobs and other responsibilities) may have been viewed as hurdle that hinders a teacher’s ability to impact learning. Other studies however have also found that male teachers have lower teacher efficacy. Sarfo et al., (2015) found that male teachers had lower efficacy when it came to instructional strategies. Additionally, researchers Rubie-Davies, Flint, and McDonald (2011) established that male teachers had lower teacher efficacy in classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement when compared to female teachers.

Therefore, these findings are similar to previous studies on gender and teacher efficacy. The researcher however was unable to find a study in which male GTE decreased.

In regards to cultural competency, the largest mean change was 0.90 and the question read, “Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers”. This was a reverse scored question. One of the main goals of the study was for participants to understand the importance of cultural competency. Culture was discussed in all of the four sessions, but was highlighted in sessions one and three. As noted in the intervention literature review, professional development focused on cultural competency has been found to be effective if it is spread out and focuses on a different component each session (Beck et al., 2013). This professional development series did just that. The first session focused on participants understanding their own culture and the culture of their students, which is essential in becoming culturally competent (Gay, 2002; Ogbu, 1992; Purnell, 2005). The participants had time to think in-depth about their culture, the culture of their students, and the similarities. During the third session, CRT was discussed and strategies were presented. CRT is essential when working with diverse populations (Gay, 2002; Hammond, 2015) and participants were exposed to and discussed the importance of this method. Lastly, the final session allowed for participants to recall what they learned which may have also strengthened their understanding of the importance of cultural competency. All of these factors perhaps led to the increase in scores on teachers’ perceptions of the importance of multicultural training teachers as well as an overall increase in scores.

Another possible explanation for the statistically significant increase in scores was the interdisciplinary nature of the professional development session. As discussed in chapter three, Carnevale et al. (2015) found that having participants of various disciplines in a cultural competency workshop was beneficial. In this study, all staff participated in the sessions, meaning that participants more than likely sat in small groups with teachers of various disciplines. For example, there could have been a small group which consisted of an English, science, math, and world language teacher. This allowed participants to discuss cultural competency with teachers who may have had varying perspectives which in turn could have aided in the learning process.

When pre and post-intervention TMAS data was calculated based on gender, previous training, and ethnicity, results demonstrated that gender, previous training, and non-White participant results were not statistically significant. White participants however had an increase in post-intervention scores that were statistically significant. Sixteen of the 20 participants were White making them the majority. Although this study only spanned four months, it is believed that the aforementioned factors of the intervention sessions and the interdisciplinary nature of the sessions impacted these scores. These sessions began by participants evaluating their own cultures and the cultures of their students. This allowed for an examination of themselves and how they and their students are both similar and different. Secondly, they were provided an opportunity to listen to firsthand accounts from two former students. Thirdly, participants learned about CRT and applicable strategies that can be utilized in the classroom. Lastly, participants were provided an opportunity to engage in an activity to review what they learned in the prior three sessions. As previously mentioned, culturally competent

individuals are self-aware, have cultural understanding and knowledge of others, and have the skills to implement culturally responsive strategies (J. Jones et al., 2013). All of these were included in the sessions.

It is probable that the four non-White participants did not increase in scores because they did not learn anything new during the sessions. Three of the four non-White participants had taken part in a training on cultural competency in the past. Additionally, it is also possible that the experience of being non-White in itself allowed these participants to already have an in-depth understanding of being a minority student in the educational system, similar to that of a Latino ELL student. It is unknown whether any of the non-White participants were themselves former ELL students.

Evaluation of the Intervention

As mentioned in chapter IV fidelity was measured through adherence, dosage, and quality. Adherence was accomplished through meetings between the researcher and the staff development teacher at the study site. Both met four times in order to ensure that the presentations were clear and that the goals of the sessions were being met. These were verbal conversations. The second indicator was dosage which was recorded every session. Participants signed-in when they attended a session and this sheet was collected by the researcher for data evaluation purposes. Thirdly, the quality of the intervention was monitored. The researcher kept a paper copy of each presentation during the sessions in order to ensure that the same material was covered during each session. This allowed for consistency. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected for evaluation purposes. Data was collected by means of exit tickets, an electronic survey, and through discussions with members of the professional school staff during the sessions.

At the conclusion of session one, the last slide of the presentation was labeled “Exit ticket” and it read, “Please reflect on an example of how your culture impacts your teaching practices”. During the start of the second session, participants were asked to share out their responses to the previous sessions prompt. One teacher stated that he used the culture chart in his class to gain a deeper understanding of his students. It allowed for not only students to share their cultures, but for him to share his cultures with students. He stated that it was an enjoyable experience.

During the session two interviews, participants were asked to write down thoughts or questions that they had about the interviews. These were collected at the conclusion of the session. Two main themes were found in the responses. The first was that teachers would have liked to have heard the perspective of a student who did not graduate from high school. Second, some participants were in awe of these students for graduating in spite of the difficulties they faced. Additionally, during the discussions following the video, some participants shared their own stories of growing up and the hardships that they endured. This opened up a dialogue in which some teachers volunteered to tell their own stories to students. This was further discussed with the administration of the selected school and will be implemented the following school year.

The third session focused on CRT and effective strategies. The researcher presented on CRT and led the discussions. Following the presentation and discussions, staff were asked to reflect on how CRT can be embedded into department meetings by the staff development teacher. Staff wrote down their responses and the staff development teacher collected this information for school use.

The last session was the recap session in which staff played a board game based on the content from the previous three sessions. Following the game, staff were asked to complete an electronic survey of the four month professional development series. These responses are from 71 staff members who attended and it is not known whether the 20 participants from this study responded to this particular survey. There were five possible responses, strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. The results of the five questions are included in table 16.

Table 16

Evaluation Survey Results

Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	N/A Not Applicable
The content we covered about our ELL learners was relevant to my classroom instruction	23	34	9	5	0	X
The videos of our former ELL students gave me new insights into the lives of many of our ELL students	23	30	9	4	2	3
The discussions I had with my colleagues during the rolling staff meetings helped me to process our learning about Culturally Responsive Instruction	41	16	9	4	1	X
After these staff meetings, I have at least two new strategies that I can use to make the classroom experience more culturally responsive/aware for my students	41	13	10	6	1	X
The researcher effectively facilitated the sessions	33	29	5	3	1	X

When asked to provide written feedback or provide comments, a few stood out. The first comment stated, “I will be taking more time to get to know my ELL students and their backgrounds. I always thought they were more private and didn't want to share. I think this is important to build a good relationship with the students”. Another said, “I appreciated an opportunity to hear how other teachers incorporate CRI in their

classrooms. It was also valuable to have an opportunity to discuss the challenges we all face in the classroom”. Based on the evaluation questions, there was more positive feedback than negative regarding the four month sessions and was deemed effective/useful by most.

The next portion of this chapter will discuss the general limitations, the limitations in the study as it relates to the construct of teacher efficacy, recommendations for further research, and implications for practice.

General Limitations

There are numerous limitations to this study including the study timing, participant sample, and threats to internal validity. The intervention sessions were conducted during 45 minute sessions over a four-month period. The length of the sessions and the length of the total study may not have been enough time for change to occur. As previously discussed, the sessions were provided seven times a day and the participants selected when they wanted to attend the sessions. These sessions began when the class bell rang, but sometimes teachers would walk in a few minutes late and miss the first few minutes of the conversation. The sign-in sheet did not include an area to indicate the time of entry, so the researcher does not know if the participants arrived to the sessions on time. There is no way to know if the participants were in the sessions from start to finish, all that is known is that they were present. Furthermore, another limitation of this format is that not all of the sessions throughout the day were identical. The content presented to the groups was identical, but the discussions were not because the group members were different. It is possible that discussions in one session were more impactful than the

discussions in another. Additionally, it is possible that the researcher inadvertently fine-tuned the later presentations based on previous ones.

The second limitation is the sample size. The sample size of this study included 20 teachers which limits the generalizability of the study and limits reliability. It would have been beneficial to have a larger sample size, however this still would not have been possible because the district where the study was conducted only approved a sample size of 20.

In addition to the small sample size, the participants in the study all volunteered which could mean that they were all interested in the topic of teacher efficacy or cultural competency or both. Moreover, the results of the scales were all self-reported and the participants may have wanted to appear to be more efficacious or culturally competent which could have impacted scores. It is also possible that these participants were already high in the areas of teacher efficacy and cultural competency.

Lastly, there are two threats to internal validity that could have impacted the study. The first is testing. Participants were provided the same two scales both pre and post-intervention. It is possible that the scores changed not because of the treatment, but because the same instruments were used twice. Secondly, history was also a validity threat. During the time period in which the intervention took place, the nation was in the midst of a presidential election. Diversity, racism, and immigration (specifically Latino immigration) were at the center of much discussion in the media, nationwide. Participants could have been impacted by the rhetoric.

Limitations: Teacher Efficacy Construct

The construct of teacher efficacy was measured by means of the TES. The professional development intervention sessions were developed based on the literature discussed in chapter four. It is the belief of the researcher that although the professional development series was developed based on the literature on professional developments in general (i.e. importance of professional development topic, support of administration, spacing of professional development sessions etc.) there was misalignment between the professional development sessions and the construct of efficacy.

Bandura (1977) defined four ways in which efficacy expectations are acquired: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. The professional development sessions did not include an opportunity for participants to experience performance accomplishments. Although this professional development series involved group activities, individual activities, the acquisition of new information, and on the importance of being prepared to work with this population of students, not enough time was spent on the four sources of efficacy expectations. This is likely where the misalignment occurred.

Recommendations for Further Research

As discussed in chapter one, teacher efficacy and cultural competency are both important factors in education. Therefore, it is the researcher's recommendation that this study be modified and replicated in order to increase teacher efficacy and cultural competency in educators that work with Latino ELL students. The first modification should be the inclusion of activities that target the four sources of efficacy described by Bandura (1977). For example, a teacher could be provided an opportunity to observe an

efficacious teacher that is similar to them (in age, gender and/or ethnicity) while teaching a similar subject area to similar students. Afterward, a discussion could be held in which techniques viewed are discussed and the strategies are replicated in the classroom. This would allow for the teacher to practice and feel accomplished. This method would incorporate, vicarious experience by observing the teacher, performance accomplishments through practicing, emotional arousal because stress levels would decrease, and verbal persuasion from the efficacious teacher and self-talk. In order to target each of these sources of efficacy, the professional development series would need to be expanded to go beyond four sessions. The second modification would be an increase in sample size. Thirdly, it would be beneficial to have a pre-test, post-test control group experimental design. This would increase both validity and reliability. Lastly, it would be beneficial to conduct a study on male teachers and teacher efficacy. This study found that male teachers GTE decreased and other studies have found similar results. It would therefore be beneficial to conduct a mixed methods study specify on men in order to delve further into this finding and to create specific interventions for male educators.

Although the professional development intervention specifically discussed Latino ELL students, it is recommended that the professional development sessions be modified to target the group of choice (i.e. other ethnic group). For example, one school may have a high African American population while another school may have a large population of Chinese students. If not tailored for a specific group, it may also be beneficial to focus on diverse students in general terms. Tailoring professional development to a specific group would narrow the focus, while addressing diverse students in general could cover cultures including the LGBTQ community.

Also, as previously noted, some of the participants had prior exposure to trainings on teacher efficacy, cultural competency, or both. It may be beneficial to find out more about these trainings and tailor future trainings to expand on their prior knowledge. This would allow for the participants to be exposed to new information or to review.

The next recommendation is to include a qualitative data component, specifically in requesting feedback from participants. First-hand accounts from participants of what was beneficial or where changes should be made could assist in professional development research and development. When discussing qualitative data, Shadish, Cook, & Campbell (2002) state, “These methods have unrivaled strengths for the elucidation of meanings, the in-depth description of cases, the discovery of new hypotheses, and the description of how treatment interventions are implemented or of possible causal explanations” (p. 478). This data could be incredibly beneficial. In this particular study, no formal feedback was gathered from participants, however informally, a few staff members expressed gratitude to the researcher for talking about what they felt was an important topic.

Furthermore, it is recommended that quantitative and qualitative student feedback be collected as well. The ultimate goal of the researcher in increasing teacher efficacy and cultural competency was that it would positively impact students. The current study did not collect student feedback, but future research should. In collecting qualitative data from students by means of interviews, focus groups, or case studies, researchers have an opportunity to collect first-hand accounts about the methods being utilized in the classroom by their teachers. Moreover, this allows researchers to further understand how the students feel about their teachers, not just through a questionnaire, but through body language. For example, a student may state that they do not care about relationships with

teachers, but their body language may show otherwise. This would allow the researcher to note this difference and perhaps explore this topic further. As discussed in chapter one, a caring educator can have a positive impact on students. Additionally, quantitative data such as student outcomes could also be evaluated to determine long term academic impact on students. This data can be collected by evaluating grades, attendance rates, grade promotion rates, and dropout rates.

Implications for Practice

As discussed in chapter one, educators who are emotionally and socially competent typically possess effective classroom management abilities and are able to recognize and understand the emotions of others (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Educators need to be able to identify student emotions and provide support. When an educator is supportive, they demonstrate appropriate responses to challenging behaviors which have positive impacts on students (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). This is important when working with Latino ELL students because there are many social and emotional factors that have the ability to impact them academically and personally. The literature demonstrates that both teacher efficacy and cultural competency are important factors in the educational attainment of students, specifically diverse students. Professional development sessions are commonly used to provide educators with information. An increase in cultural competency in the educational setting is beneficial to all stakeholders. When a teacher is understanding of their own cultures and how it impacts them as educators, they can evaluate how they interact with their students (and their families), and how it impacts academic attainment. This is beneficial to teachers because they are more in tune to themselves as teachers and to students because interactions with teachers may

improve as well as academic achievement. Once academic achievement improves, the teacher's sense of efficacy might improve because they can see the positive change.

PTE in participants did not increase in participants based on their gender, exposure to previous training, or their ethnicity. GTE did not increase as a result of this intervention based on exposure to previous training and ethnicity, but did increase for female participants. Although many of the results were statistically insignificant, research clearly demonstrates that teacher efficacy is a predictor of student achievement and therefore should be addressed. Educational leaders should be invested in and focused on ensuring that school staff feel prepared to work with all of their students. It is possible to provide a self-efficacy scale to staff to gain an understanding of current efficacy levels and evaluate the data. Once evaluated, the areas of less efficacy can be specifically targeted. This can be accomplished through research driven interventions and should be provided to educators of all disciplines and grade levels. School counselors can and should assist in this process in a leadership role.

School counselors are in a unique position where they do not provide academic instruction in the classroom, but interact with students daily about academic and social and emotional issues. Additionally, school counselors routinely work with teachers, administrators, and families on the aforementioned issues by evaluating data, engaging in conversations, attending local and district meetings, and conducting classroom observations. This distinctive leadership-type role in a school building allows for school counselors to gain an understanding of the school culture from all perspectives. It is key for school counselors to make their presence known in their buildings and communities

as a professional school counselors who can assist in all educational aspects. The vocational guidance counselor role is a thing of the past.

Consequently, it is a natural fit for school counselors to gauge the needs of the school by way of their collaborative relationships with all stakeholders. Needs assessments can and should be conducted based on the goals for that school year. For example, if administration is interested in collecting student and family perspectives on cultural competency at their school, the counselors can assist with this process.

Counselors can take the lead by reaching out to families, collect this pertinent data, and work with staff on the issues presented in the needs assessment. Furthermore, it is important to engage the students in this process by listening to their perspectives. Staff may think that students feel a certain way about a topic, but in reality, the student may not feel that way at all. It is imperative to listen to the needs of the students. This came to light during the interviews in the second session of the intervention. During both interviews, the former ELL students stated that they wish teachers would have asked them about their home lives. One of the students was working full-time and attending high school while the other was unable to focus on homework at home due to her living situation.

Moreover, school counselors should also make it a priority to reach out to school staff to inquire as to how they can be of assistance. It could be beneficial to send a questionnaire to staff asking how staff can be supported as it relates to teacher efficacy and cultural competency, not just with Latino ELL students, but with their student population as a whole. This has the potential for two benefits. First, reaching out to staff demonstrates caring. In school settings, there is a potential for a divide between school

counselor and teachers. Not all teachers understand what a school counselor's job entails. This is an opportunity to close this gap and demonstrate that school counselors are part of the team and willing to assist. The second benefit is that this method will reach all staff members including the ones that may be feeling isolated or overwhelmed. Meetings can be created to address the topics or perhaps information on the topic can be included in the monthly school counseling blog (or newsletter).

Once a professional development topic is selected, its design and implementation must be planned. It may be beneficial to have an expert in the area to assist in this process. For example, if the topic is about connecting staff to community services, the person that specializes in that field should be utilized. Additionally, when developing the professional development session it is important to ensure that the content is engaging and interdisciplinary. When teachers plan a classroom lesson, they try to find fun and engaging methods, the same should be done for professional development. Lessons should start with objectives and an activator to encourage participants to think about the topic. This might be a question, quote, or icebreaker to get people to start talking. Engagement can be accomplished in numerous ways such as game play, short video clips, small group activities, movement around the classroom, and interactive reflection. Small group activities are a great way to get reserved participants to engage in conversation. Moreover, having small groups, or mixing people up is a method that can be used to ensure that various disciplines are working together. Small groups are also valuable when focusing on topics that have the potential to make people uncomfortable. It should also be made known that the counseling staff and/or school psychologist are available to meet with staff privately if needed. Trust is key and it should be made clear

that there are people who are able to assist. Lastly, staff should also be encouraged to provide feedback or to write down any questions that they have. This can be done anonymously. Sensitive topics may be difficult to discuss, but are necessary in our changing nation.

This study was conducted at a diverse school, but it is reflective of the diversity of the United States. This country is diverse and the population is steadily growing. Educators have an important task which is to educate our youth regardless of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, or religious background. It is therefore of the utmost importance that educators are prepared to work with all of the differences (and similarities) in their classrooms. This can be accomplished by ensuring that they are efficacious and culturally competent educators.

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Appendix A

Letter to school staff

Dear Professional School Staff,

I am a doctoral candidate at Johns Hopkins University School of Education, and I am interested in teacher opinions about teacher efficacy and cultural competency. I am writing to kindly request your participation in my dissertation study by completing two surveys related to teacher efficacy and cultural competency, and by providing demographic information. I would greatly appreciate your involvement in responding these surveys in order to help me complete my degree. All responses will be anonymous. There will be no way to identify your responses.

If you agree to participate, please respond to this email and I will provide you with the surveys both in November 2016 and in February 2017.

As a colleague, I understand that your time is extremely valuable. The surveys should not take much time to complete and your responses will remain anonymous. The results of this study will be included in my dissertation which will be made public upon completion and shared with the faculty of the Johns Hopkins School of Education. If you would like a copy of the results, I will be happy to share them with you.

Thank you for considering this request,

Nikki Jarquin

Appendix B

Teacher Efficacy Scale and Instructions

Respondents are not required to answer any questions that they believe are an infringement upon their privacy or that they do not care to answer for any other reason

Created by Gibson and Dembo (1984) and modified by Hoy and Woolfolk (1993)

Instructions: Please designate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the appropriate number next to each item.

1= strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3= disagree slightly more than agree, 4= agree slightly more than disagree, 5= moderately agree, 6= strongly agree

When I really try, I can get through to most difficult students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If a student did not remember information I gave in a previous lesson, I would know how to increase his or her retention in the next lesson.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When a student gets a better grade than he or she usually gets, it is usually because I found a better way	1	2	3	4	5	6
If a student in my class becomes disruptive and noisy, I feel assured that I know some techniques to redirect him or her quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6
If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated student	1	2	3	4	5	6
The amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
A teacher is very limited in what he or she can achieve because a student's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement	1	2	3	4	5	6
When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a stu-	1	2	3	4	5	6

dent's home environment is a large influence on his or her achievement.						
If students are not disciplined at home, they aren't likely to accept any discipline.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If parents would do more for their children, I could do more.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey and Instructions

Respondents are not required to answer any questions that they believe are an infringement upon their privacy or that they do not care to answer for any other reason

Created by Ponterotto, Baluch, Greig, & Rivera (1998).

Instructions: Please designate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below by circling the appropriate number next to each item.

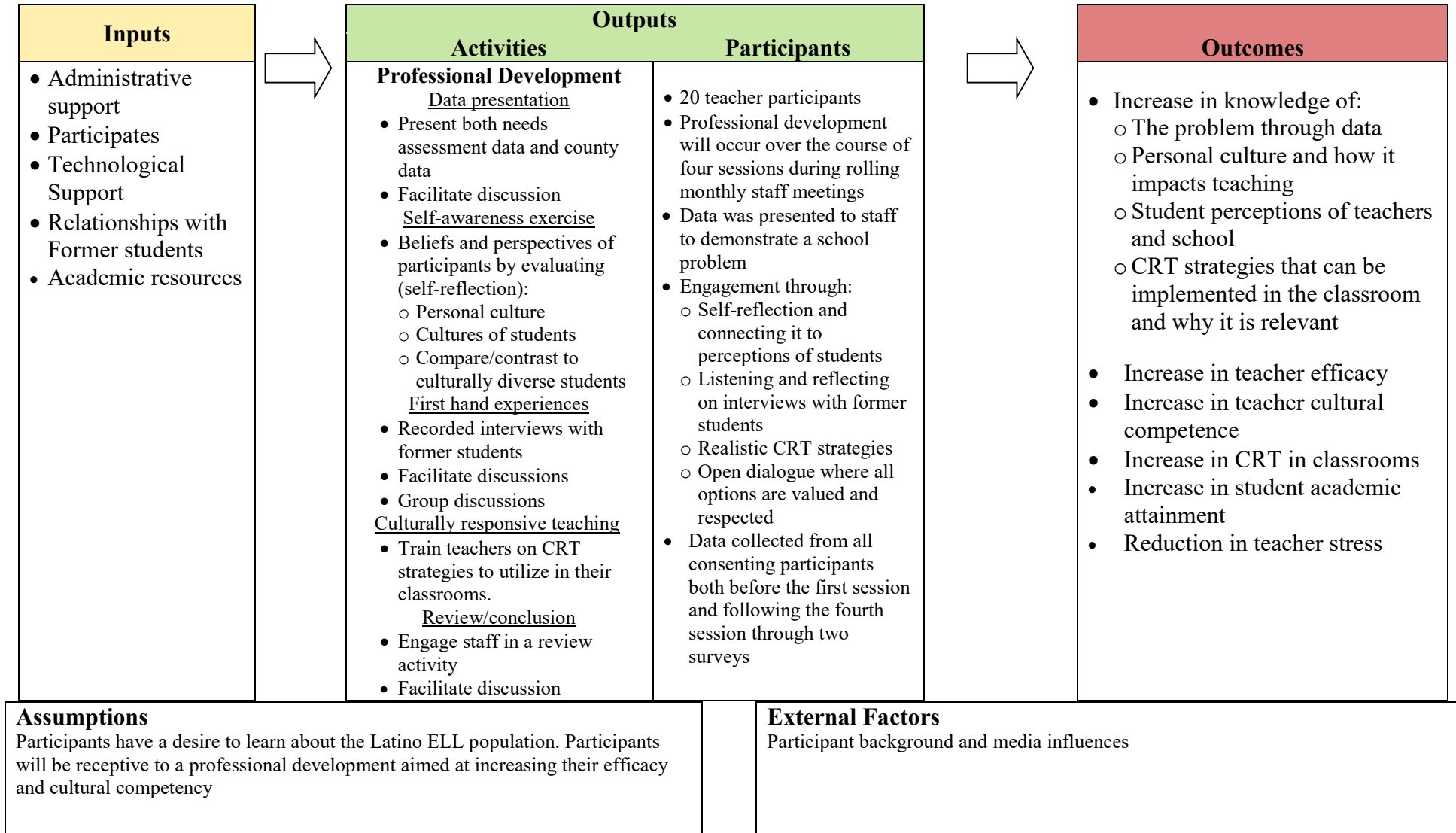
1= strongly disagree 2= moderately disagree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= moderately agree 5= strongly agree

I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding	1	2	3	4	5
Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group	1	2	3	4	5
Sometimes I think that there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers	1	2	3	4	5
Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural background	1	2	3	4	5
I frequently invite extended family members (e.g cousins, grandparents, godparents) to parent-teacher conferences	1	2	3	4	5
It is not the teachers responsibility to encourage pride in ones culture	1	2	3	4	5
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly challenging	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that the teachers role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally diverse backgrounds	1	2	3	4	5
When dealing with bilingual children, communication styles often are interpreted as behavioral problems	1	2	3	4	5
As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teachers job becomes increasingly rewarding	1	2	3	4	5

I can learn a great deal from students with culturally diverse backgrounds	1	2	3	4	5
Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary	1	2	3	4	5
To be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of cultural differences present in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
Multicultural awareness training can help me to work more effectively with a diverse student population	1	2	3	4	5
Students should learn to communicate in English only	1	2	3	4	5
Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity	1	2	3	4	5
I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my classroom	1	2	3	4	5
Regardless of the makeup of my class, it is important for student's to be aware of multicultural diversity	1	2	3	4	5
Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject that I teach	1	2	3	4	5
Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Logic Model



Appendix E

Intervention Session Four Review Game Board

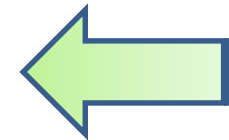
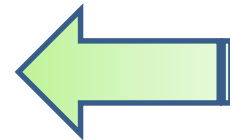
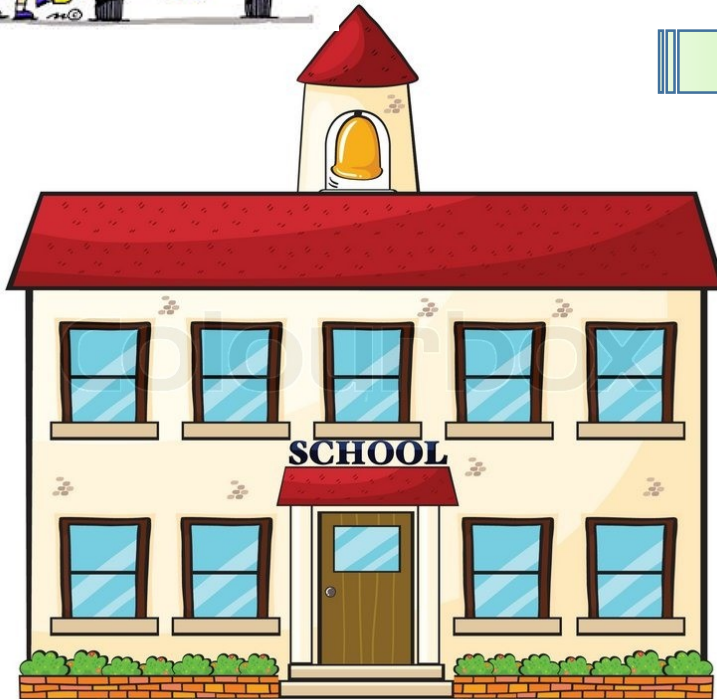
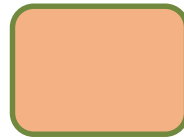
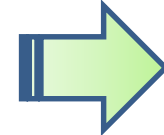
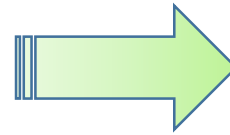
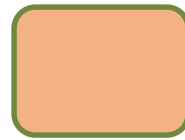
The Race to School!

Who will be the first to make it successfully to school.....

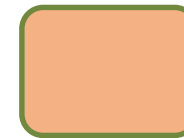
In order for your student to make it successfully to school.....



Start!



Finish!



Appendix F

Intervention Session Four Game Cards

<p>Think of two ways to gamify a lesson in your content</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces</p>	<p>What academic barriers do ELL students face? Provide 2 examples</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces</p>
<p>Give an example of a way you would try to learn more about your students' culture</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces. For two examples move forward 3 spaces</p>	<p>Describe the barriers ELL students face when they enroll school midyear. Give two examples.</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces. Move one space if you only provide one example</p>
<p>Provide two reasons CRT is important for student success</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces</p>	<p>Teacher Appreciation Day!</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces</p>
<p>Name 2 countries where many of our Latino ELL students are from</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces</p>	<p>What is the largest demographic of student's by ethnicity at this school</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces</p>
<p>Describe why stereotypes about students can be academically harmful?</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces</p>	<p>You are a new ELL student and have been given a personalized tour in your native language.</p> <p>Move forward 1 space</p>
<p>Describe the difference between race and culture</p> <p>Move forward 4 spaces</p>	<p>Give two examples of how you can make a lesson more social and/or collaborative</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces</p>
<p>You encounter microaggression</p> <p>Move back two spaces</p>	<p>You are a new ELL student on your first day of school. You get lost and cannot find your class.</p> <p>Move back 1 space</p>
<p>Give an example of how you can storify a lesson</p> <p>Move forward 2 spaces</p>	<p>Describe two ways that planning for CRT can be embedded in your professional learning community</p> <p>Move forward 3 spaces</p>

Appendix G

Demographic Questionnaire

Respondents are not required to answer any questions that they believe are an infringement upon their privacy or that they do not care to answer for any other reason

Demographic Questionnaire

Instructions: Please answer the following questions:

1. What subject do you teach?

2. How long have you been a teacher?

3. How long have you worked in education?

4. What race do you identify with?

5. What is your gender?

6. Do you teach Latino English Language Learners?

6. a. If so, how many years have you worked with Latino English Language Learners?

7. Have you every participated in a training on teacher efficacy?

8. Have you ever participated in a training on cultural competency?

Appendix H

Research question, data measure, data type, collection timeline, and analysis

Research question	Data measure	Data type	Collection timeline	Analysis
Did the four-part professional development series impact teacher efficacy in participants?	Teacher efficacy scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1983), modified by Hoy & Woolfolk (1993)	Paper and pencil	November 2016 (pre-test) and February 2017 (post-test)	Paired t-test
Did the four-part professional development series impact cultural competency in participants?	Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (Ponterotito, et al., 1998)	Paper and pencil	November 2016 (pre-test) and February 2017 (post-test)	Paired t-test

Vita

Nikki Jarquin received her bachelor's degree in psychology from the University of Maryland Baltimore County (UMBC) in 2006. She then received a Master's degree in counselor education from McDaniel College in 2011. Nikki then received her Doctorate in Education with a specialization in counseling from Johns Hopkins University in 2017. Nikki is a licensed professional school counselor and is presently employed with Montgomery County Public Schools in Maryland.