A CORRELATIONAL STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY, COLOR-BLIND RACIAL ATTITUDES, AND TEACHER EFFICACY AMONG URBAN TEACHERS

by

Kyria Parker-Hart

Liberty University

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APPROVED BY:

Daphne Washington, Ph.D., Committee Chair

Jeffrey McCarthy, Ph.D., Committee Member
ABSTRACT

Teacher efficacy describes teachers’ beliefs in their ability to impact student achievement, regardless of external factors. The present study’s purpose was to determine factors that influence teacher efficacy such as color-blindness and pupil control ideology. The goals were to determine the following: If there was a relationship between color-blind beliefs and teacher efficacy, do color-blind racial attitudes moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teachers’ sense of efficacy, and can beliefs about student behavior and color-blindness predict levels of teacher efficacy? The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale, Pupil Control Ideology Scale, and the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale were used to answer the research questions. Study participants were 150 teachers from urban school districts in Texas. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between teachers’ sense of efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blind beliefs among urban schoolteachers. The quantitative results show that color-blindness is correlated to teacher efficacy and that pupil control ideology and color-blindness have some influence on teacher efficacy. The results also show that color-blindness does not moderate the relationship between teacher efficacy and pupil control ideology. The limitations of this study and recommendations for future research and training were provided.

*Keywords:* teacher efficacy; pupil control ideology; color-blindness
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family for the faith they had in me during this process. To my father Samston Parker (12/22/1950–3/25/2014), whom I miss dearly, thank you for always having a greater vision for me than I had of myself. You always believed that I would travel this road, even when I was adamantly against it. I appreciate you always believing in your baby girl. I love you and I miss you.

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To my daughter Brennyn, mommy loves you to the moon and back. I hope to have set a positive example for you and let you see that with God anything is possible. Remember to always believe in yourself, love yourself, never doubt who you are and let your “Black Girl Magic” shine!

Lastly, this dissertation is dedicated to the children of color who fight to overcome obstacles daily. “Be what you can be, learn what you must learn, do what you can do, and tomorrow your nation will be what you want it to be” (Perkins, 2017, pp. 26-37). I believe in you! I believe in your ability! Continue to push through and thrive!
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List of Abbreviations

Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale (CoBRAS)

Critical Race Theory (CRT)

Pupil Control Ideology Scale (PCI)

Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Students who come from low socioeconomic backgrounds are twice as likely to underperform in math and literacy (Hines, 2008). Researchers reported statistics documenting an increased likelihood of suspension for these students and higher rates of negative attitudes towards school (Webb, 2010). Over the years, studies indicated teachers’ efficacy in the classroom is positively correlated to teacher behaviors that promote student achievement (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). With the achievement gap continuing to exist between Caucasian students and students of color, it is imperative to determine factors contributing to teacher efficacy. Highly efficacious teachers use added instructional methods such as providing differentiated instruction, inspiring students to improve self-worth, and facilitating achievement among all students (Hines, 2008). This research contributes to filling a gap in literature by exploring how teachers’ implicit biases influence their sense of efficacy. School districts can gain important insight into which factors and teacher beliefs are best suited for student success in the urban classroom environments.

Background

According to Losen and Martinez (2013), African American, Native American, and Latino/a American students are over-represented among those who receive disciplinary infractions in today’s schools. Throughout this study, I refer to these students as students of color or minority students. The rigidity of schools serves as a model for a custodial pupil control ideology mindset. This mindset focuses on maintaining order and resulting in stereotyping students based on of their appearance, behavior, and social status (Baş, 2014). Stereotypes combined with disciplinary tactics such as zero-tolerance policies, differential treatment,
increased office referrals, suspensions, and leveling, places higher rates of students of color on the school-to-prison pipeline through suspensions and expulsions (Pas, Bradshaw, Hershfeldt, & Leaf, 2010). When students of color are subjected to increased suspensions and office referrals, they are losing the ability to learn how to appropriately correct their behavior. With increased time out of school and less education, these youth are at a greater disadvantage in creating a bright future and making positive contributions to society (Lopez, 2015).

McKinley (2010) provided 10 strategies on how to effectively close the achievement gap and end the school-to-prison pipeline. At the conclusion of a 20-month period of research, McKinley determined the achievement gap is due to five underlying causes: negative teacher expectations, attitudes, and beliefs; poor relationships; lack of cultural responsiveness; unequal treatment and opportunities to learn; and negative student identity and motivation. Low efficacy teachers exhibited qualities such as negative teacher expectations, attitudes, and beliefs along with poor relationships. Teachers who assumed color-blind beliefs lacked cultural responsiveness in their classroom curriculum, leading to unequal treatment and opportunities for students of color. Finally, teachers guided by custodial control ideology had poor student-teacher relationships, which negatively affected student motivation and acceleration in the classroom. This is evidence of how teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blind racial attitudes, as investigated in the present study, plays an important role in closing the achievement gap for students of color.

Utilizing critical race theory (CRT) supported the lens through which I examined issues of race, gender, and class within all levels of the educational system (Davis, Gooden, & Micheaux, 2015). Three major tenets of CRT are the concepts of interest convergence, color-blindness, and the inclusion of experiential knowledge. Interest convergence is the belief that
creating policies benefitting people of color occurs when there is a benefit to the majority race (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 2016). When educational leaders and teachers adopt a color-blind belief, the school ignores the racial identity of students, ultimately disregarding the cultural, economic, and social factors shaping their existence (Chapman, 2013). Researchers examined how teachers who ascribe to a color-blind ideology often function from their assumptions about students of color, thereby placing students in a disadvantaged position (Atwater, 2008).

Teachers who profess to be color-blind, believe the color of their students should not and does not matter (Worthington, Navarro, Loewy, & Hart, 2008). Atwater (2008) found teachers often unconsciously operated from a framework of low expectations for their African American students. According to Lopez (2015), making educators aware of the pipeline, their inadvertent contribution, and the possibilities for change, can promote equity in classroom discipline techniques and students’ educational success.

Although grounded in Bandura’s work on self-efficacy, my research centered on Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (2001) definition of teacher efficacy. These researchers defined teacher efficacy as the teacher’s “judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students that may be difficult or unmotivated” (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 783). The degree of efficacy for a teacher has a significant role in the success of students in urban schools (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Highly efficacious teachers believe in the ability of their students to reach high academic goals regardless of socioeconomic status and family background (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004).

Hines (2008) used Bandura’s Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) in a study with 114 seventh-grade students who received instruction from teachers with either high or low efficacy. The
sample was taken from a school where a majority of students were low socioeconomic status. Within the sample, 39% were African American, 29% European American, and 32% Hispanic American. Researchers used a two-way analysis of variance to determine if a correlation between student scores and teacher efficacy existed. Teachers with high efficacy academically outscored teachers with low efficacy (Hines, 2008). Furthermore, Moore and Esselman (1992) found teacher efficacy scores were a predictor of achievement on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Including academic achievement, teacher efficacy was also related to student efficacy and motivation. The efficacy beliefs of teachers directly influenced their instructional behavior and related outcomes, which makes teachers more likely to try alternate strategies to help struggling students in the classroom (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Teacher beliefs about pupil control, or the way students behave in class, plays an important role in student success. In a study of 182 teachers, Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) found a significant correlation between student efficacy and pupil control. Their research corroborates previous findings of a correlation between low teacher efficacy and a custodial pupil control ideology (Bandura, 1977; Rotter, 1966). Goddard, Hoy, and Hoy (2004) contributed how highly efficacious teachers have a significant positive correlation to humanistic control ideologies and higher levels of academic achievement. Moreover, the researchers also identified a correlation between low teacher efficacy and a custodial pupil control ideology (Goddard et al., 2004). Teachers who held a custodial control ideology engaged in one-way downward communication, were impersonal, and had punitive and moralistic attitudes towards students (Baş, 2014). Teachers with a custodial control ideology did not attempt to understand the behaviors and attitudes of their students (Baş, 2014). The findings were similar to those whose studied teachers who held a color-blind perspective.
The concept of color-blindness emphasizes equality among all students regardless of background (Hachfeld, Hahn, Schroeder, Anders, & Kunter, 2015). The ideology creates internal obstacles to the effective implementation of pedagogy and curriculum, which widens the achievement gap, and contaminates the learning environment in the classroom (Ullucci & Battey, 2011). Teachers who adopt color-blind racial attitudes and avoid racial differences can foster discrimination, conflict, and favoritism in their classroom (Atwater, 2008). Their beliefs can be detrimental to students of color (Atwater, 2008). Rattan and Ambady (2013) found Caucasian teachers embrace a color-blind ideology at a higher rate than their minority peers potentially resulting in negative outcomes, such as feelings of inferiority and neglect within the learning environment. Teachers who fail to recognize their student’s race, struggle to understand the identity of their students and lack the racial knowledge to teach them successfully (Milner, 2010).

Bloom and Peters (2012) studied the efficacy of 146 White pre-service teachers. The researcher found that as the enrollment of students of color increased, the teachers reported lower levels of efficacy and especially when the dominant culture differed from their own (Bloom & Peters, 2012). Teachers who adapted a color-blind approach, lacked confidence in implementing pedagogical strategies for students of color (Bloom & Peters, 2012).

Callaway (2017) found increased multiculturalism to be an unintentional facet of teacher efficacy. Hence, culturally responsive teaching was positively correlated with high teacher efficacy. The racial attitudes of teachers determined their ability to work with diverse students.

Teachers are often unaware of their biases and the effect it has on the expectations of students of color (Rychly & Graves, 2012). In determining an effective solution to this crisis, it was important to determine if the implicit bias and beliefs directly affected their level of efficacy.
When teachers fail to know and understand the ethnic and cultural needs of their students, the lack of knowledge leads to ineffective instruction, lowered efficacy, and an ongoing problem for the educational system (Atwater, 2008; Boutte, Lopez-Robertson, & Powers-Costello, 2011).

**Problem Statement**

The school-to-prison pipeline is a reality for many of the individuals I grew up with, and students I work with daily. As a child, I had many teachers tell me that I would end up pregnant or not achieve many milestones in life. Although I was able to overcome the negative stereotypes and microaggressions of my teachers, many students succumbed to stereotyped threats. Steele and Aronson (1995) defined stereotype threat as an individual being at risk for conforming to a negative stereotype about one’s social group based on the beliefs of others. Being the recipients of these stereotypes has the potential to place students on the school-to-prison pipeline as exemplified by both negative academic and behavioral outcomes.

Stereotyped threats may account for the disproportionate number of minority youth affected by special education placement, increased school suspensions, and the cultural achievement gap (Lopez, 2015). These are factors that inadvertently place students at risk of future incarceration, which has been a concern for many decades (Lopez, 2015). Minority students face suspensions at an overwhelming rate based on current discipline policies, which continues to widen the achievement gap (Archer, 2009). Increased suspensions are causing more significant consequences for minority youth, including expulsion, involvement in the legal system, drug use, and less student success (Archer, 2009).

Students of color, regardless of their status, face low academic expectations from teachers with low efficacy (Liou, Marsh, & Antrop-Gonzalez, 2016). Lack of efficacy has a positive correlation with the tendency of teachers to refer students of color to special education services
and write increased student discipline referrals (Pas et al., 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). In contrast, teachers with high efficacy believe students can succeed regardless of the students’ backgrounds. High teacher efficacy is associated with high student achievement, motivation, and an increase in the efficacy of students (Holzberger et al., 2013; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). They are more likely to implement schoolwide interventions to combat the school-to-prison pipeline and help students achieve success. These interventions included the implementation of restorative practices, social-emotional learning, and implementing culturally responsive teaching (Allen, Scott, & Lewis, 2013; Lopes, 2015). Researchers demonstrated how the presence of teacher efficacy had a positive impact on the successful implementation of these practices (Heitzeg, 2009).

In my review of the literature, I was unable to find salient research examining both pupil control ideology and color-blind racial attitudes as they related to teacher efficacy. If teachers are unaware of their biased behaviors, there is a low likelihood of students to participate in an equitable learning environment (Kyles & Olafson, 2008). Researchers have not shown contextual factors, which lead to low teacher efficacy when working within urban schools. Determining the factors that relate to low teacher efficacy is crucial to dismantling the school-to-prison pipeline and providing more impartiality for youth, particularly those in urban school districts (Callaway, 2017; Heitzeg, 2009; Sue, Lin, Torino, Capodilupo, & Rivera, 2009; Togut, 2011).

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to examine the correlation between teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blind beliefs among teachers in urban school districts. According to Texas Education Agency (2019), a major urban school district is defined as one located in a
county with a population of at least 960,000 and at least 35% of students are economically disadvantaged. Students meet this criterion if they are eligible for free or reduced lunch according to the guidelines set under the National School Lunch and Child Nutrition Program (Child Nutrition Programs - Income Eligibility Guidelines, 2018). Income eligibility guidelines are $38,443 for a family of three and increases by $7,992 for each additional person. The significance of this research was twofold. First, teacher efficacy is an important factor in student success as it shapes the mindset of the teacher towards helping students reach their full potential (Bandura, 1997; Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008; McCoach & Colbert, 2010). Secondly, the attempt by teachers to provide equality through implementing color-blind beliefs may have a negative effect when excluding the cultural needs of students. Teacher attitudes and racial beliefs contribute to lowered expectations and efficacy in urban educational settings thus increasing the educational gap between Caucasian students and students of color (Hines, 2008; Irizarry, 2015).

Auwater and Aruguete (2008) examined how lowered teacher expectations deter to the growth of students, especially those students of color. These issues disproportionally affect minority youth and continue to put them on the path to prison (Heitzeg, 2009). This is particularly true for African American male students. When students lack motivation or encouragement to participate in class, learning may not be meaningful (Murrell, 2017). This is true of all schools whether they are urban, suburban, or rural. When working with students of color, teachers are unable to identify racial inequities if they view race as insignificant in school settings and believe racism to be a thing of the past (Ullucci & Battey, 2011). Palmer (2010) asserted how implicit bias by teachers in combination with district policies systematically undermines the success of students. ‘Teachers’ implicit biases combined with low efficacy negatively influence the educational experience of minority students (Allen et al., 2013; Lopez,
The purpose of this research was to determine the correlation between the dependent variable, teacher efficacy, and the independent variables pupil control ideology and color-blind beliefs. The examination focused on color-blind racial attitudes, to determine if it strengthened the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy.

**Significance of the Study**

According to Uwah, McMahon, and Furlow (2008), when teachers have high efficacy acknowledge biases, they work more effectively with students of color. Teachers with high efficacy were more likely to provide encouragement and have increased positive interactions with their students (Uwah et al., 2008). Not only did high teacher efficacy benefit students, it was also advantageous for stakeholders, parents, schools, and communities. Students who have a greater sense of belonging to the school community, also achieved increased school satisfaction, and student achievement (Uwah et al., 2008). Lynn, Bacon, Totten, Bridges, and Jennings (2010) discussed teachers and their perceptions of students who live in urban locations. Their conceptualizations led teachers to associate their pupils with the negative portrayals regarding urban neighborhoods, such as disorderly, unmotivated, and dangerous (Lynn et al., 2010). The low expectations of teachers led to poor student achievement (Lynn et al., 2010). Knoblauch and Hoy (2008) found urban teachers had significantly lower efficacy than their rural and suburban counterparts. These important findings led to my interest in developing further research on the efficacy of teachers in urban school districts.

The results of this study can inform teachers employed in urban school districts who provide education to students of color. Many urban schools suffer from discipline concerns, large class sizes, drug use, inadequate facilities, and difficulty retaining teachers (Liaw, 2017). These factors significantly contribute to the achievement gap between students of color and
Caucasian students (Liaw, 2017). The outcomes can advance the critical need for advocating for change in future professional development activities for teachers, as well as, redesigning the hiring process within the urban school district. It is important to determine if zero-tolerance policies unfairly prejudice school staff against students of color due to the implicit bias and color-blindness some teachers portray. The first priority of a high poverty school should be to have an effective and efficacious teacher in every class, as highly efficacious teachers are vital to improving urban schooling (Webb, 2010). Teacher biases and beliefs affect student expectations, which in turn affects the level of instruction and further expands the achievement gap (Bloom & Peters, 2012). The ability of educational leaders to confront negative and outdated beliefs surrounding the capability of students is key to creating educational reform (Ullucci & Battey, 2011).

Prior researchers focused on the relationship between teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blind attitudes among urban teachers to improve achievement for students of color. Current research limits its scope to the factors that influence teacher efficacy in urban schools (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). In conducting this study, I expounded on this limitation by explicitly surveying teachers from major urban school districts across Texas. Ethnicity is a dominant predictive variable of the achievement gap in schools between Caucasian students and students of color (Hines, 2008). Latino/a, African American, Native American, and male students within these groups tend to have higher suspension rates than their Caucasian peers, increasing the need for equity in schools (Losen & Martinez, 2013; West, Lunenburg, & Hines, 2014). Explaining variances in the achievement gap included examining specific characteristics of teachers, such as their level of efficacy, control ideologies, and color-blind beliefs. Although research surrounding the correlation between pupil control ideologies and
teacher efficacy is easily found, the same cannot be said for the effects of color-blindness as it relates to these two variables (Gordon, Dembo, & Hocevar, 2007; Tschannen Moran & Hoy, 2001; West et al., 2014). In a search of the key terms color-blindness, teacher efficacy, and pupil control ideology, I was unable to find research explicitly testing all variables (Callaway, 2017; Liaw, 2017).

Hachfeld et al. (2015) engaged in cross-sectional research of 433 early service teachers to find if there was a significant positive relationship between color-blindness, teacher efficacy, and enthusiasm for teaching. The study found no significant relationship between the factors. One limitation of this study was not investigating inferences about the relationship between student-teacher interactions as they related to color-blind beliefs (Hachfeld et al., 2015). The current research builds on this limitation by looking at student-teacher interactions through teachers’ pupil control ideology. I sought to expand the body of knowledge related to the effect of color-blindness and control ideologies on a teachers’ sense of efficacy. The ideology of the individual can exert a powerful influence on the cognitions and behaviors of students (Holoien & Shelton, 2012). Previous researchers failed to deliver consistent data on the efficacy of teachers in various school settings, especially those teachers with a more stable level of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Liaw, 2017).

Researchers highlight a universal need for additional research, which looks at factors influencing teacher’s sense of efficacy in diverse settings. Outcoming data can contribute to assuring more effective teaching but also increasing student success in urban schools (Knoublach & Hoy, 2008). Resulting conclusions can assist administrators in ascertaining information to determine factors related to efficacy and increased achievement among students. Ultimately, addressing this gap in the literature is an important step in providing fair treatment in the
classroom for students of color (Plaut, Thomas, & Goren, 2009). When classrooms become equitable, students equally have the resources and support that they need, thus closing the achievement gap, and significantly decreasing the number of students entering the school-to-prison pipeline.

**Research Questions**

This study addresses the following three research questions:

**RQ1:** Is there a relationship between color-blind beliefs and teacher efficacy?

**RQ2:** Do color-blind racial attitudes moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy?

**RQ3:** Can beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs predict levels of teacher efficacy?

**Definitions**

In this study, I define the following terms based on prior literature:


2. *Color-blind* - The term color-blind relates to the belief that race does not and should not matter (Worthington et al., 2008).

3. *Pupil Control Ideology* – The perception of a teacher on how student behavior should be within the classroom ranging on a continuum from custodial to humanistic (Hoy, 2001).

5. *Teacher efficacy* - The judgment of a teacher on their capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, among the most difficult or unmotivated students (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

6. *Major Urban School District* - A school district located in a county with a population of at least 960,000 and at least 35% of students are economically disadvantaged (TEA, 2019).

**Summary**

Students of color are over-represented among those who receive disciplinary action within schools (Losen & Martinez, 2013). Often their White counterparts outperformed them academically (Baş, 2014; Pas et al., 2010). These statistics are cause for additional research surrounding factors influencing teacher efficacy. High teacher efficacy is key to closing the achievement gap and providing an equitable environment for all students (Holzberger et al., 2013; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). When teachers are highly efficacious, they have high expectations for their students and believe they are capable of helping their students achieve high educational goals. Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) correlated high teacher efficacy to teachers’ humanistic beliefs about student control. Teachers who are humanistic in their control believe students learn best through experience and interaction (Hoy, 2001). This form of classroom management causes teachers to be less critical of students, builds trust, and reduces the number of disciplinary actions (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Researchers evidenced the negative influence of implicit biases on student success. Color-blind beliefs by teachers led to increased disciplinary actions against students of color and deficits in the way they think (Atwater, 2008; Ullucci & Battey, 2011).
In reviewing the research surrounding these variables, there was a dearth of information regarding the correlation between color-blindness, teacher efficacy, and pupil control ideology (Davis et al., 2015; Herron, 2015). I sought to identify the correlation between these variables, as well as determine whether color-blind beliefs moderated the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. The answers to these research questions can expand the scope of research regarding teacher efficacy. This research is instrumental to further investigations of factors, which could improve teacher efficacy and thereby achievement for students of color.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

There is general agreement within the educational research community that teachers make a difference in students’ learning. However, it is imperative for educators to have high personal and professional efficacy to engage urban, minority students. Students of color are over-represented in the school-to-prison pipeline and typically under perform their White counterparts (Bloom & Peters, 2012; Hines, 2008; Uwah et al., 2008). This phenomenon gives credence to the importance of examining the link between the level of efficacy held by urban teachers and their beliefs surrounding multiculturalism and control ideologies. High-poverty public schools, especially in urban areas, lose more than half of their teaching staff every five years (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Hemphill & Nauer, 2009). There is a strong correlation between teacher efficacy and teacher burnout (Pas et al., 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007, 2009). When teachers have low efficacy, they feel they cannot effectively cope with student misbehavior. They can become emotionally drained from the energy they exert on attempting to control the student’s behavior, which contributes to them developing negative feelings, and in turn causes them to leave the teaching profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Researchers applied burnout to the school context and characterized the negative feelings including discouragement, frustration, and a desire to quit teachers experience as burnout (Freidman, 1993; Pas et al., 2010). Additionally, mental and physical distress experienced by teachers can impair the quality of their work along with damaging their ability to develop positive relationships with students (Gutentag, Horenczyk, & Tatar, 2018).
I applied Skaalvik and Skaalvik’s (2009) definition of teacher efficacy as teachers’ confidence in their ability to organize, plan, and perform activities required to attain high educational goals for students. Too often, teachers are not prepared for the harsh realities many students face in an urban school district. Thereby, students in urban school districts have a greater number of inexperienced and unqualified teachers in comparison to suburban schools (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008). Students living in urban school districts also receive less funding, poor disciplinary strategies, along with inadequate resources and facilities (Liaw, 2017). This is even more evident when teachers are not from the low socioeconomic communities in which they work and where minority students tend to have a significant achievement gap (Annamma, Morrison, & Jackson, 2014; Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). Coupled with increased discipline referrals, they are more likely to become victims of the school-to-prison pipeline (Atwater, 2008; Barbarin, 2010; Lopez, 2015; Smith, 2015). This is especially true for African American students (Atwater, 2008). Rather than giving up on these students, a teacher with high efficacy sets high goals and puts forth every effort possible to help students achieve educational successes (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Togut (2011) discussed how demographic factors related to socioeconomic statuses (SES), such as housing stability, students’ home environment, family health care, and geographic location effect academic achievement and student development. In addition to the demographic factors plaguing students, low teacher expectations and culturally unresponsive curriculum continue to further disenfranchise minority students (Harper & Davis, 2012). Van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, and Holland (2010) provided some of the initial research surrounding student achievement and its correlation to teachers’ ethnic-based implicit biases. The researchers found implicit ethnic attitudes of teachers correlated with student success or
failure (Van den Bergh et al., 2010). Van den Bergh et al. (2010) asserted achievement gaps by ethnicity were larger among teachers who have high levels of implicit prejudice as opposed to teachers with low levels of implicit prejudice.

Hines (2008) suggested that although student ethnicity is a predictive variable of the achievement gap, teacher efficacy is the single most influential factor in student success. This is on par with longitudinal research conducted by Strand (2014). In their studies they concluded SES only partially accounted for the achievement gap between minority and majority groups. Strand (2014) contended teacher expectations of the academic ability of their pupils can bias their judgment for student achievement. This could account for ethnicity-based differences in students’ academic accomplishments. Highly efficacious teachers deliver mastery instruction, believe in their students, and set challenging benchmarks (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). It is imperative for teachers to find ways to engage and educate minority students in urban schools.

According to Bandura (1997), internal personal characteristics (e.g. biology, affective cognition), behavior, and the environment are three interrelated factors that serve as a function for efficacy. In other words, individuals are the products of interactions between internal beliefs, behavior, and external influences (Bloom & Peters, 2012). With efficacy having a powerful influence on behavior, justifies an investigation of factors potentially influencing teacher efficacy. Settlage, Southerland, Smith, and Ceglie (2009) contended that effective teaching can contribute to overcoming inequities of students due to SES or race. It is their belief that developing teachers’ identities through culturally responsive pedagogy will lead to increased efficacy. As teacher efficacy and expectations are largely influenced by factors such as gender, prior achievement, SES, and ethnicity, it is crucial to possess a multicultural skill set, which
guides establishing an equitable classroom, which meets students’ needs, and validates diverse cultures (Gutentag et al., 2018; Peterson, Rubie-Davies, Osborne, & Sibley, 2016).

Teachers enter classrooms each day with hidden biases and personal beliefs that unconsciously affect the way they teach and interact with their students. Color-blind attitudes and a custodial pupil control ideology are two constructs, which may arise from these beliefs. Klassen, Usher, and Bong (2010) asserted teachers’ cultural values influence their satisfaction. Efficacy beliefs determine how long people persevere when facing obstacles and the amount of effort expended on overcoming various challenges (Pajares, 1997). Bandura (2006a) included the need to understand how they perceive environmental opportunities and impairments. Some teachers develop varying expectations for their students of color based on stereotypes and implicit prejudices they hold towards particular ethnic groups (Peterson et al., 2016).

Many teachers may look at their minority students and link them to negative urban associations such as unmotivated, disorderly, and dangerous (Lynn et al., 2010). If they perceive students as unmotivated or disorderly, questions arise concerning the affect it will have on their effectiveness in the classroom. Understanding teachers’ expectations of how students should behave in the classroom influences the amount of effort they expend on working with these students. Other issues could arise from how teachers’ preconceptions about race affects their beliefs regarding their ability to make a difference in student achievement. In reviewing the literature, I focused on identifying what previous researchers were able to ascertain in response to these on-going questions. The future of minority youth depends on the ability to reject the endless cycle of incarceration and commit to the promise of education by having teachers with high efficacy working to address the needs of all students. During President Obama’s Second Inaugural Address in 2013, he made the following statement:
We are true to our creed when a little girl born into the bleakest poverty knows that she has the same chance to succeed as anybody else, because she is an American; she is free, and she is equal, not just in the eyes of God but also in our own. (Obama, 2013, para. 11)

This powerful quote exemplifies the importance of providing an equitable education for all children. Adequately addressing the academic needs of all students, reinforces our standing as the land of opportunity.

**Theoretical Framework**

**Critical Race Theory**

In 1970, Bell put forth the critical race theory (CRT) to connect forms of racial injustice to outcomes experienced by minorities within the legal system (Kohli, 2012; Tate, 1997). Bell wrote many of the foundational texts for CRT and assisted with the creation of Harvard Law School (Delgado, Stefancic, & Harris, 2017). Scholars and activists began to study the relationship between race, racism and power, and the transformations needed to confront subtle forms of racism. This intellectual agenda, combined with new perspectives on examining law, birthed the foundation of CRT (Tate, 1997). Matsuda (1991) defined CRT as:

...the work of progressive legal scholars of color who are attempting to develop a jurisprudence that accounts for the role of racism in American law and that work toward the elimination of racism as part of a larger goal of eliminating all forms of subordination. (p. 1331)

It is important for individuals to consider both the philosophical and historical perspectives surrounding CRT (Kohli, 2012). Many current legal debates pertain to the effectiveness of past civil rights laws by highlighting the necessity for new ones (Plaut et al., 2009).
Critical race theory undergirds the assumptions of racism as ordinary rather than aberrational, which is deeply ingrained and commonly felt in both society and our schools (Davis, Gooden, & Micheaux, 2015; Delgado et al., 2017). Researchers maintained one goal of CRT in relationship to education is a need to examine the intersectionality of gender, class, and race within educational settings. The first tenet of CRT is the concept of interest convergence (Howard & Milner, 2014). The authors asserted how interests involving people of color are only advanced when there is some benefit to the majority culture (Howard & Milner, 2014). They opined how the progress made in urban school districts resulted from the Brown v. Board of Education decision. The outcomes of the decision benefited Whites by maintaining racially stratified educational opportunities through the creation of alternate hierarchies within schooling (Chapman, 2013). The creation of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 required schools to disclose student achievement using demographic data based on race (Chapman, 2013). The policy makers highlighted the racial gap between minority and majority groups, specifically in predominately White schools (Chapman, 2013). Federal mandates caused funding to be based on schools’ ability to meet the needs of all students (Chapman, 2013). This fostered interest convergence by allowing White school districts to better support minorities in order to maintain their elite status (Chapman, 2013).

The second tenet of CRT includes challenging claims of color-blindness and meritocracy. The dichotomy of color-blindness is evident in the historical case Plessy v. Ferguson. In this case, Judge Harlan (1896) stated:

In view of the Constitution, in the eye of the law, there is in this country no superior, dominant, ruling class of citizens. There is no caste system here. Our Constitution is
color-blind, and neither knows nor tolerates classes among citizens. In respect of civil
rights all citizens are equal before the law. (p. 559)

This is evidence of how historically ingrained color-blind beliefs concerning equality determined
the skin color of an individual should not be considered (Tate, 1997). Color-blind beliefs hinder
more in-depth conversations about inequity and impede the recognition and repair of cultural
issues facing students (Davis, Gooden, & Micheaux, 2015). Not recognizing group differences,
reinforces the majority groups’ beliefs (Plaut et al., 2009).

The final tenet of CRT is the inclusion of experiential knowledge. One facet of
experiential knowledge is the use of counter storytelling (Kodi & Thapliyal, 2019). Counter-
narratives allow the victims to safely share their experiences and their truths. In a study by
Howard (2008) participants utilized counter storytelling as a platform to discuss race-related
issues in a way many of the participants felt was lacking within their school. The majority
typically did not see their actions, laws, and rules as a form of oppression. Stories by people of
color allow an alternate perspective and greater insight on the influence of those actions on
minorities. This component of CRT communicates the realities of the oppressed and serves as
the first step to providing equity and an analysis of the educational system (Ladson-Billings &
Tate, 2016).

**Application to the Research**

Deeply ingrained racist conduct and beliefs limit educational opportunities for minority
students. These cultural blind spots suggest the need for a theoretical perspective, which moves
past the traditional boundaries of educational research to provide a more persuasive analysis of
people of color (Tate, 1997). Researchers use CRT to study the entrenched racism existing
within the educational system. An interdisciplinary approach is based on the experiences of
people of color and challenges ideas of color-blindness and meritocracy prevalent in the educational system. CRT acknowledges White supremacy and how it has currently and historically mediated the everyday experiences for minority children in education (Pérez Huber & Solorzano, 2015). The marginalization of students of color occurs when those in power fail to incorporate their cultures and experiences into their classroom learning and curricula (Davis, Gooden, & Micheaux, 2015). McGrady and Reynolds (2013) found predominately Black students receiving more negative ratings than their White counterparts when evaluated by White teachers. This typically leads an increase in discipline and a gap in student test scores (McGrady & Reynolds, 2013). Viewing these dynamics through the lens of CRT assists researchers in understanding issues related to student tracking, school discipline, history, and controversies over high-stakes testing.

Previous studies contributed to identifying the relationship between color-blind beliefs, teacher efficacy, and pupil control ideologies. This is especially important when looking at the educational system as it pertains to children of color. Racism, along with other forms of oppression, undermines the academic performance of children of color. It was important to examine these issues to close the achievement gap of children.

**Related Literature**

**Teacher Efficacy**

The concept of teacher efficacy has theoretical underpinnings in both the work of Rotter and Bandura. In two separate studies, they introduced the earliest concept of teacher efficacy through their evaluations of the correlation between teacher characteristics and student learning outcomes (Armor et al., 1976). Funded by the Title III Elementary and Secondary Education Act, researchers evaluated the efficacy of teachers through their responses to the following
questions: (a)"When it comes right down to it, a teacher really cannot do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment" and (b) "If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students" (Armor et al., 1976, p. 2). The RAND Corporation developed their idea of teacher efficacy based on Rotter’s (1966) social learning theory and specifically the work regarding the locus of control. The investigators included looking at the internal and external locus of control, which is the belief that factors under the control of teachers (internal) have a greater effect on student success than those in the environment (external). In other words, teachers with high efficacy believed they can control, or powerfully influence, student success in the classroom.

More recently, researchers have relied on the work of Bandura on self-efficacy, which is grounded in social cognitive theory to frame teacher efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as “a person’s judgment of their capability to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance” (p. 391). This definition emphasizes the idea that people exercise influence over what they do. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) built on this definition and defined teacher efficacy as the belief in their ability to bring positive outcomes in the areas of student engagement and learning even among the most difficult students.

According to Bandura (2006b), people are proactive, self-regulating, self-organizing, and self-reflecting. They tend to create intentions, establish goals, anticipate outcomes, monitor actions, and reflect (Bandura, 2006b). As such, people construct beliefs about their ability to perform a certain task as evidenced by efficacy expectation and outcome expectancy. While efficacy expectation is the belief an individual can successfully execute the behavior required to
perform a task; outcome expectation refers to a person’s anticipation that a given behavior will lead to a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977).

Researchers applied Bandura’s definition to teaching and developed new labels to measure the construct. Outcome expectation was newly labeled teaching efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) or general teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). They labeled efficacy expectation as personal teaching efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). General teacher efficacy reflects the abilities of teachers as a collective, while personal teaching efficacy focuses more on the individual. It is important for a teacher to have high efficacy expectation and outcome expectancy to be successful.

Bandura (1977) identified four principal sources for expectations of efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Performance accomplishments are particularly powerful because they are based on the individual’s own level of mastery of a given task. Mastery expectations raise when the individual is successful. When failure is encountered multiple times, mastery expectations lower. Mastery teaching experiences cause the teacher to be more competent in their abilities based on the concept of teacher efficacy. If the teacher consistently fails, efficacy decreases along with their belief about future successes. Performance accomplishments represent the most influential source of efficacy. Vicarious experiences look at the development of efficacy through seeing others perform difficult tasks without negative consequences. This allows the individual to believe that if others can do it, they can either accomplish it or experience some degree of accomplishment. Teachers increase their own efficacy by observing and modeling other successful educators. Although weaker than self-accomplishment, verbal persuasion is the easiest and most readily available source of efficacy expectation.
Bandura (1977) found suggestions can help people successfully cope with overwhelming past experiences. Forms of verbal persuasion, for example coaching and offering positive feedback from colleagues and administrators, play an important role in increasing teacher efficacy. Lastly, emotional arousal creates physiological responses such as heart palpitations, fatigue, sweating, or panic. Typically, high arousal debilitates performance, especially when associating the responses with prior failure, which inhibits an increase in efficacy. This confidence or lack thereof contributes to the view of efficacy as a broad concept. Although a teacher is well-qualified, negative responses may arise and prevent them from being successful.

Efficacy can affect the way people act, reason, feel, and encourage (Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011). However, it is important to note the difference between self and collective efficacy and self-concept. Efficacy reflects beliefs about capability, whereas self-concept refers to beliefs about ability (Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen et al., 2011). Efficacy beliefs pertaining to capability emerge from the teachers’ well-being and what they believe they can accomplish (Bandura, 1997). This is especially true when one looks at collective efficacy. Teacher’s beliefs regarding the positive effect of faculty’s efforts on the student is at the root of collective efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Factors such as student SES, grade level, and school structure influence the perception of teachers about their work environment (Klassen et al., 2011). Despite the use of different instruments, researchers found teacher efficacy not only predicts student learning but teaching practices as well (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). When teachers believe that behavior and achievement by students influences their educational experience, they formulate a better concept about the potential for them to make a significant difference.
**Instrumentation.** A review of the literature revealed several instruments designed to assess teacher efficacy. Researchers have attempted to expand on the RAND questions to increase the measure’s reliability (Armor et al., 1976). Ashton (1982) created the Webb scale to extend the RAND measure and reduce social desirability by implementing a forced-choice format. The tool never became widely accepted and used only in the original study (Ashton, 1982). One of the most popular instruments built on the initial RAND measure is the Teacher Efficacy Scale developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984). This 16-item instrument measures teacher efficacy, as well as personal teaching efficacy, which reflects personal efficacy. Using statements such as, *the amount a student can learn is primarily related to family background* determined the efficacy level of teachers. Over time, users identified both statistical and conceptual inconsistencies.

Due to the lack of clarity surrounding the definitions of its measured factors, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) used a different instrument to assess teacher efficacy. The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) addressed the identified limitations by incorporating a more comprehensive range of teaching tasks. TSES assesses three dimensions: classroom management, instructional strategies, and teacher efficacy. The TSES consists of 24 total items with responses being measured on a Likert scale ranging from one (none at all) to nine (a great deal). This scale reportedly had good internal consistency with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .87 to .94 (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

**High Teacher Efficacy.** Teachers with high efficacy believe they can influence how students learn no matter how unmotivated or difficult the student may seem (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Researchers determined high teacher efficacy increased family involvement, decreased referral rates to special education, which resulted in higher academic achievement
(Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette, & Benson, 2010). As teachers continuously look for ways to increase student success, maintaining high student engagement, setting challenging goals, and supporting students needing the most help, produced positive results (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004; Yeo, Ang, Chong, Huan, & Quek, 2008). Efficacious teachers are steadfast in their belief that all children can learn regardless of their background, SES, or culture (Yeo et al., 2008).

Holzberger et al. (2013) found innovative teaching methods and better classroom management in teachers with high efficacy. They implement more instructional methods to teach students, spend more time planning lessons, place emphasis on providing differentiated instruction, and exhibit classroom management strategies that facilitate achievement (Hines, 2008). Highly efficacious teachers encourage autonomy for their students. Teachers who devote more time to pre-planning and teaching rather than controlling students do not view behavior as problematic. Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2004) interpreted mistakes by teachers as part of the learning process, creating a need to provide increased individual support for students who struggle academically. Bandura (1977) pointed to mastery experiences as being important to positively build the efficacy of teachers. In line with Bandura’s findings, Gibbs and Miller (2014) stated the most salient contributor to efficacy beliefs of both pre-service and in-service teachers was mastery experiences. This stemmed from believing the first few years of teaching experience were crucial to the efficacy beliefs of teachers (Bandura, 1997). This was evident in the enhanced presence of positive social climate, supervisory support, and teachers becoming more engaged and resilient in their work (Gibbs & Miller, 2014). These factors created a classroom culture where students felt valued and capable of success.

Hines (2008) conducted a study of 302 middle school students to determine if teacher efficacy influenced their achievement as measured by Bandura’s efficacy scale. The author
found students taught by highly efficacious teachers had a higher level of academic achievement. Hines also considered ethnic differences within each group. When African American students had teachers with low efficacy, they averaged the lowest assessment scores. The researcher documented how ethnicity influences teacher efficacy in respect to academic achievement.

Von Suchodoletz, Jamil, Larsen, and Hamre (2018) suggested efficacy beliefs of teachers are amenable to change at any point during their teaching career. Providing professional learning opportunities for teachers is one way to support their growth. During von Suchodoletz et al.'s (2018) research on teachers, they found a negative coefficient at all measurement points. For every increase in teacher perceptions of student misbehavior, there was an equal decrease in teacher efficacy (von Suchodoletz et al., 2018). Once teachers received coaching and professional development, they increased their positive perceptions of students and their ability to effectively work with them (von Suchodoletz et al., 2018).

**Low Teacher Efficacy.** Teachers with low efficacy tended to attribute their lack of success on external factors such as student discipline, lack of support, student SES, limited resources, and low student motivation (Shidler, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). These concerns led teachers to believe in the futility of their efforts when working with students in low SES, which is detrimental to their success. A study by Knoblauch and Hoy (2008) found student teachers in urban schools had significantly lower efficacy than those in rural or suburban schools. Warren (2002) reported approximately 75% of teachers in low-income schools have low efficacy.

Liaw (2017) utilized the TES to measure the level of efficacy between English teachers in both urban and suburban schools. Their research indicated teachers in urban schools had lower efficacy than teachers in suburban schools. Although urban teachers had additional educational
resources, they tended to teach more classes, carry a heavier teaching load, experience continuous pressure from administration while confronting students with low motivation. Each of these challenges led to lower teacher efficacy. In this particular study, the researcher also found a lack of English proficiency by students affected the level of teacher efficacy. Low efficacy teachers also employed culture of poverty ideologies to explain consistent school failure.

Teachers with similar ethnic backgrounds as their students tended to characterize minority students as unmotivated, oppositional, and lazy (Lynn et al., 2010). Teachers of any race working in diverse classrooms may experience a lack of motivation, skill, or knowledge to effectively deal the divergent cultures in the classroom, which can contribute to developing biased and prejudiced attitudes (Gutentag et al., 2018). Teachers demonstrating low efficacy often give less eye contact to students, offer minimal warmth and friendliness, and allow students less time to respond to questions (Peterson et al., 2016). They are also more likely to use punitive discipline strategies for classroom management (Pas et al., 2010). As such, each of these increased the rates of discipline referrals and complaints within the school, lowering the overall collective efficacy of the staff. As classrooms become more disruptive, teachers may perceive the need to utilize increased school support such as student support teams or referrals to special education services. These perceptions directly influence the level of efficacy experienced by the teacher, which in turn directly affects the success of low-income students (Benner & Mistry, 2007). Experiencing alienation from teachers places students of color on track to enter the school-to-prison pipeline at disproportionate rates. When teachers demonstrate low efficacy, they create a classroom culture that also weakens the efficacy of their students (Bandura, 1997).

Schools in urban school districts with students who have significant needs would benefit greatly by having teachers who exhibit notable expectations and high efficacy as a way to
effectively teach their students. Although students of color need superior education to become productive adults, they appear to be receiving the poorest quality instruction (Hoglund, Klingle, & Hosan, 2015). Low teacher efficacy can be partly responsible for developing teacher burnout, as shown by three central qualities: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Shen et al., 2015). Emotional exhaustion is a central characteristic of teacher burnout. Teachers experiencing emotional and physical exhaustion, can reduce students’ intrinsic motivation (Shen et al., 2015). Highly efficacious teachers who experience high levels of disruptive behaviors also exhibit increased emotional exhaustion (De Jong, Mainhard, van Tartwijk, & Veldman, 2014). Depersonalization is another facet of teacher burnout. When teachers experience burnout, they distance themselves from their students by ignoring their unique qualities (Shen et al., 2015). This can be especially detrimental to students of color. Shen et al. (2015) described reduced personal accomplishment as the final signal of burnout, exemplified by teachers experiencing negative feelings regarding their own competence and achievement. Hoglund et al. (2015) studied change and variability in classroom quality and teacher burnout during a school year. The researchers discussed teacher burnout as negatively correlated with literacy scores and the teacher-student relationship (Hoglund et al., 2015).

Hoglund et al. (2015) also discussed how the ethnic diversity of students in the classroom was positively correlated to burn out and negatively related to teachers’ personal accomplishment (Hoglund et al., 2015). This was problematic as Bandura (1977) conferred how mastery and performance accomplishments were key to increasing feelings of efficacy. Bandura (1977) reported how teacher burnout negatively affected the teacher as well as the students. Van den Bergh et al. (2010) identified trends highlighting as teacher burnout increases, there was also an increase in student criticism, often leading to a decrease in the level of teacher involvement
and intrinsic motivation by students. When children experience burnout in their teacher, it results in disengagement from school, takes away their sense of security within the school environment, and diminishes their academic skills (Hoglund et al., 2015). Teacher burnout leads to deterioration of teacher efficacy (Shen et al., 2015). When teachers expect students to have discipline issues and low academic performance it creates conflict with administrators and parents (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009).

Van den Bergh et al. (2010) shared how these expectations represent a threat to an individual’s identity as a teacher and may elicit defensive mechanisms that heighten emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Low efficacy has also been positively associated with teacher burnout (Van den Bergh et al., 2010). Teacher burnout occurs when a teacher feels highly stressed or emotionally exhausted (Van den Bergh et al., 2010). These feelings are associated with negative feelings and discouragement surrounding their ability to instruct and manage students (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Low teacher efficacy causes teachers to further criticize student failures, decrease the amount of time spent on academic responsibilities (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), become unwilling to provide weaker students with help (Klassen et al., 2011), and rely on negative consequences to motivate students (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). The researchers did not attribute positive outcomes to having low efficacy when working with students.

Although Bandura’s (1977) efficacy theory is widely used, it is essential to continue research that offers an understanding of how teachers form their beliefs regarding efficacy. This information is critical to ascertain in order to support teachers in developing efficacy skills to use in the classroom (Gibbs & Miller, 2014). This is crucial as efforts, growth, dispositions, and intrinsic obligations shape teacher’s efficacy, which develops throughout their careers (Settlage
et al., 2009). High efficacy is strongly correlated to job satisfaction, which yields increased commitment, unity, longevity, and reduced stress (Klassen et al., 2010; Viel-Ruma et al., 2010). Each of these concepts leads to the overall goal of educational equity for all students.

**Student Discipline**

Student behavior plays a major role in either negatively or positively influencing school culture and student success. Kilinc (2014) believed identifying teacher’s’ ideas about student behavior can assist researchers in analyzing the affect school relationships have on student success and teacher optimism. The control ideology of teachers, which is essentially their beliefs about student behavior, forms in the beginning stages of their educational experiences (Herron, 2015). Decision-making tasks offers teachers the opportunity to facilitate positive academic outcomes and support classroom learning based on their current philosophy and beliefs. Researchers revealed more humanistic control ideology correlated with a higher level of academic optimism and student achievement (Herron, 2015). A study by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) examined the relationship between teachers’ control orientation, student motivation, and teacher efficacy of 55 religious school teachers. The results of the research found a positive relationship between pupil control orientation and sense of efficacy by teachers (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

**Instrumentation.** The construct of pupil control ideology, originally conceptualized by Gilbert and Levinson (1956), examined staff ideology in mental hospitals. It was then adapted into schools by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy (1967) and later Helsel and Willower (1973) developed pupil control (discipline) ideologies to determine teachers’ perceptions towards student discipline. Social cognitive researchers linked efficacy to motivation, analytic thinking, goal commitment, and the ability to handle adversity (Gilbert, 2012). They found teachers using
these skills to handle student behavior, avoided exhaustion and teacher burnout. The Pupil Control Ideology Scale (PCI) viewed teachers’ responses to discipline on a humanistic-custodial continuum. Custodial teachers make rules and regulations the priority, while humanistic teachers view students as the priority (Webb, 2010).

The PCI has high reliability with Cronbach’s alpha values between .81 to .90 (Hoy, 2001). Numerous studies support the construct validity of the PCI and was validated for use with teachers, pre-service teachers, and student teachers. According to Gilbert (2012), teachers with a higher sense of efficacy align with a humanistic pupil control ideology. Gilbert (2012) utilized the PCI to survey 321 teachers to determine the correlation between pupil control ideology and academic optimism. The researcher found a significant inverse relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. Oğuz and Kalkan (2011) documented how the teachers’ propensity for supervisory control gets higher, when there is a decline in their positive attitude and efficacy.

**Custodial Pupil Control Ideology.** Teachers with a custodial pupil control ideology believe they should handle student engagement by employing strict disciplinary rules. They often hold preconceived ideas about students’ behaviors and attitudes towards school based on their appearance and SES (Oğuz & Kalkan, 2011; Webb, 2010). Gordon et al. (2007) utilized the PCI to determine the relationship between control ideology, performance goals, and goal orientation. The researchers posited when teachers display concern about the academic success of their students, they experience an increased need to control student behavior. In fact, the more teachers have contact with inner-city students, the more custodial behaviors they exert. Teachers believe their teaching is more effective when they maintain control and dispense knowledge to students, rather than creating a classroom culture that values problem-solving and critical
thinking (Gordon et al., 2007). This evidence matches study results indicating pupil control ideology is negatively correlated with SES (Webb, 2010). When organizations have low collective efficacy, they typically adopt custodial pupil control ideology and exercise high levels of control to maintain rules and keep order. Teachers may believe the students in these environments need strict rules and restrictions to maintain control (Bas, 2011). Managing students by deploying restrictive oversight has a negative effect on both students and parents (Gilbert, 2012). Students who are not contributing members of the school community must accept the rules and consequences without question. Under these circumstances, teachers perceive students who misbehave as personally attacking their authority. In these instances, teachers must control the irresponsible students through punishment (Bas, 2011). Common effects of teachers who ascribe to custodial pupil control ideology includes becoming vulnerable to emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment (Bas, 2011). External factors contribute to their feelings surrounding discipline and pupil control ideology (Cheah, 2015). These factors also cause custodial teachers to experience depersonalization, which maintains a rigid teacher-student hierarchy. This happens because they are not in tune with the needs of their students (Bas, 2011). Custodial beliefs increase control, restrict democracy, and perpetuate socially created inequities (Giannakaki & Batziakas, 2016).

**Humanistic Pupil Control Ideology.** Humanistic pupil control ideology is positively correlated with trust and high efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Teachers with humanistic pupil control ideology trust in their students’ abilities, and perceive themselves more competent (Bas, 2011). This competence leads to increased performance and actions conveying to students their importance and while acknowledging their need for learning in a caring atmosphere (Gilbert, 2012). Teachers with humanistic values prefer
a democratic class environment with open communication (Bas, 2011; Öğuz & Kalkan, 2011). Kilinc (2014) found teachers who align with a humanistic control ideology, encourage students to assume responsibility for their own actions, and take the uniqueness of each child’s situation into account. The approach supports teachers who respect students’ abilities and perceive them as responsible and trustworthy which increases their self-determination (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Gilbert (2012) found a humanistic approach also correlated with academic optimism by helping teachers to hold the belief that their students can succeed. Teachers put forth extra work and believe in socially constructed learning through various hands-on experiences and critical dialogues (Giannakaki & Batziakas, 2016). Humanistic teachers value the individuality in each student and view learning outcomes as personal achievements (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). They focus on intrinsic capabilities rather than external factors (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). This leads to effective teaching and a reduction of discipline issues.

Humanistic teachers create a classroom environment that promotes student success. Researchers indicated the high mobility rates in low-income schools, contributes to schools employing less experienced teachers (Bas, 2011; Rideout & Morton, 2010). Herron (2015) stated these teachers are typically more custodial at the beginning of their careers and shift to a more humanistic approach in later years. High need students, living in impoverished communities, coupled with inexperienced teachers often leads to over disciplining and disproportionate referrals of minority students (Gilbert, 2012). Their actions can also be attributed to feelings of being ill-equipped to handle the challenges of the classroom, which leads new teachers to follow the culture of the school rather than the research-based practices they learned in their coursework (Rideout & Koot, 2009).
Although researchers documented how a humanistic approach is more beneficial, it is imperative for efficacious teachers to build relationships with their students and get to know what works best for them. Gilbert (2012) contended some students benefit from learning using a custodial approach. The methods work best for students who grow up without boundaries or order in their lives. They may view a teacher brings order to their lives as a caring gesture. On the other hand, students may have certain life situations requiring teacher to take a flexible, humanistic style. The students may be experiencing abuse, demanding schedules, or unstable family relationships. By utilizing a humanistic approach, the teacher can facilitate a happy and productive school climate. Highly efficacious teachers take the time to determine the individual needs of each of their students to enable them to reach their full potential.

**Color-Blind Ideology**

The relationship between motivation and culture in schools has become an important issue in educational psychology, garnering increased attention and research (Klassen et al., 2010). Although studies focusing on the relationship between efficacy and teaching is thriving, minimal literature addresses how teachers’ efficacy directly affects the way they work with students from cultural backgrounds different from their own (Settlage et al., 2009). Teachers often advocate a color-blind approach when working with students of color (Bloom & Peters, 2012). The term *color-blind* relates to the belief that race does not matter and people are all the same (Worthington et al., 2008). However, color-blindness masks the vital aspects of the struggles, identity, background, and heritage of an individual (Boutte et al., 2011). Teachers with color-blind beliefs hesitate to adapt their teaching practices to the diversity in their classroom (Hachfeld et al., 2015). Many worry they are being racist when they recognize and see differences in others (Howard, 2010). Therefore, many people reject the belief that color-
blindness will eliminate the phenomenon of racism (Ullucci & Battey, 2011). The misconception often finds its way into classrooms and teachers embrace the idea they should treat all students the same regardless of race, class, ethnicity, or gender. The approach can lead to teaching methods that are not inclusive of divergent backgrounds in the school setting (Howard, 2010).

Teacher efficacy influences the effect ethnicity has on student achievement (Hines, 2008). Teachers unconsciously have biases affecting their expectations of student performance in the classroom (Atwater, 2008; Rychly & Graves, 2012). Liou et al. (2016) maintained perpetuating implicit tendencies in the educational system included endorsement of viewing low SES students of color as inferior and Caucasian students as superior. Implicit stereotypes and prejudiced beliefs arise through automatic processing and are usually unconscious (Liou et al., 2016). Years of personal experience within their community, culture, and family shape their views about teaching and learning. The fact most educators unintentionally commit acts of racism does not negate the daily, negative messages minority students receive about who they are in the classroom (Boutte et al., 2011). For example, a meta-analysis by Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) found teachers tended to have higher academic expectations for Caucasian students than students of color. Additionally, Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) stated teachers may unconsciously refer more children of color to special education programs and more Caucasian children to talented and gifted programs. Culturally unresponsive teachers and curricula affect the motivation and academic identity of minority students (Atwater, 2008). The shared phenomenon suggested ineffective teaching resulted from overly confident instructors neglecting the value of student differences (Settlage et al., 2009). Instead of building connections with students, teachers avoid a very important aspect of learning when they claim not to think about,
acknowledge, or see race in their classroom (Gay, 2010). Haviland (2008) and Howard (2010) posited teachers hesitate to discuss race due to personal discomfort or the belief race and racism are no longer issues.

The assumptions teachers make about their students can lead to the manifestation of microaggressions towards capabilities, expectations, and outcomes of the student (Allen et al., 2013). Most teachers are suburban and White middle-class, which supports the notion teaching in urban schools is not practiced in a cultural vacuum (Lopez, 2015). Settlage et al. (2009) provided evidence about the difficult task of preparing teachers to be culturally responsive as they work with children that do not look, speak, or think as they do. For many teachers, race and social class interact creating limit situations making it difficult to teach culturally diverse students (Lynn et al., 2010). A limit situation is any situation that limits an individual, creating an obstacle in their development. Additionally, many of these teachers accept no responsibility for the failure or success of African American students; instead they focus on external factors such as the child’s environment, which is characteristic of teachers with low efficacy (Lynn et al., 2010).

It is important for teachers to work to deconstruct their realities and life experiences to begin to break down their unconscious bias (Allen et al., 2013). Bloom and Peters (2012) found a great need to develop lessons based on student’s background and culture. Despite the availability of this information, many schools continue to utilize culturally unresponsive literature in their classrooms. District and school policies combined with teacher’s unexamined biases systematically hinder minority students (Chapman, 2013). The adoption of color-blind ideologies and behaviors in teachers make it challenging for them to recognize broader systemic disparities in education and the existence of policies perpetuating the theoretical construct. Such
policies prevent students from accessing quality programs and cause an underrepresentation of minorities in gifted programs and extracurricular activities (Milner, 2012). Even inflexible tutoring times prevent bused students from getting the support they need (Chapman, 2013). Color-blind beliefs affect special education identification, culturally responsive teaching efficacy, and institutionalization of multicultural attitudes (Aragon, Culpepper, McKee, & Perkins, 2014; Milner, 2012).

Regardless of race, color-blindness is negatively correlated with experiencing the detrimental results of multicultural unawareness (Chao, 2013). However, researchers documented how teachers experience lower efficacy when attempting to maintain a White racial identity in schools where the dominant culture was different than their own (Bloom & Peters, 2012). Settlage et al. (2009) indicated the best way for teachers to understand and respect the heritage of each student is to employ teachers whose share their cultural identity. Although similarities in race may increase the potential for building rapport, researchers also discovered an individual’s personal beliefs about race influenced their judgments, actions, and perceptions in the classroom (Hachfeld et al., 2015). Individual and personal experiences shape teachers’ views concerning their cultural orientation well before they enter the teaching profession. These personal experiences are potentially problematic for teacher education programs attempting to prepare teachers for diverse classroom experiences. An educator’s experiences in a monocultural upbringing, can create limited sensitivity to classroom diversity (Kyles & Olafson, 2008). Howard and Milner (2014) interviewed four high school students from an urban school district regarding their views about school. The researchers indicated students valued teachers who created safe, culturally sensitive, and responsive learning communities. They also appreciated teachers who worked to build relationships with students, their family, and the
community (Howard & Milner, 2014). Educational personnel may view teachers who support multicultural attitudes as not a team player, mean, and even un-Christlike (Juárez, Smith, & Hayes, 2008). This causes multicultural teachers to struggle to find their place within the school, which could damage self-efficacy (Juárez et al. 2008). Student achievement can be positively influenced as teachers become more aware of their unintentional behaviors (Rychly & Graves, 2012). Rather than subscribing to color-blind beliefs, teachers who take a multicultural approach to working with students of color are more successful in the classroom (Hachfeld et al., 2015). Multicultural beliefs and the willingness to acknowledge various cultures related to both higher student and teacher efficacy (Hachfeld et al., 2015). Celebrating and recognizing group differences is imperative in practicing multiculturalism, whereas color-blindness stresses ignoring group differences (Plaut et al., 2009). Endorsing multiculturalism benefits minorities in various ways, including increasing their self-esteem (Holoien & Shelton, 2012; Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Multiculturalism allows students to identify with the school and feel they are a welcomed and respected member of the educational community. The absence of these feelings creates a culturally unresponsive school where students begin to disengage, increasing the possibility of school dropouts (Uwah et al., 2008).

Treating everyone equally is not always the best solution for minorities in education. Researchers exemplified the importance of teachers reflecting on their own biases and views to attempt to understand their students (Rychly & Graves, 2012). Hachfeld et al. (2015) found teachers who valued and respected the culture of individual students while understanding their own cultures were the most successful when working with minority students. Their attitudes led to more opportunities to create equitable education for all students.
**Instrumentation.** Color-blind beliefs conceptually relate to prejudiced attitudes, however the empirical literature correlating these beliefs to efficacy is almost nonexistent. The idea of color-blindness became an important theoretical concept, created a need for a valid and reliable scales to measure the multidimensional aspects of an individual’s color-blind beliefs. Carr (1997) conducted a quantitative study examining the relationship between racism and color-blind beliefs of college students. The results of this research found that not only was there a correlation between racial prejudice and color-blind beliefs, but also a significant positive correlation between increased racism and self-identified color-blind beliefs (Carr, 1997). One major limitation of this research was the one-item scale used to determine color-blind beliefs. Neville, Lilly, Duran, Lee, and Browne (2000) sought to expand on previous research to develop a more reliable scale through the creation of the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS). CoBRAS is a 20-item scale, which evaluates cognitive facets of color-blind racial attitudes (Neville et al., 2000).

Walker (2018) created the Disavowal of Racial Bias Scale (DRB) to survey a person’s ability to recognize their own racially biased behaviors, feelings, and thoughts. In addition to the lack of scale validity, a second limitation was the singular inquiry on Caucasians’ awareness of their personal implicit bias. The researcher sought to focus on the implicit bias of all individuals, regardless of color.

CoBRAS is a cultural schema used to determine racial stimuli among both Caucasians and people of color (Tran & Paterson, 2015). Researchers can utilize CoBRAS to anticipate frames of mind towards the redistribution of school resources to benefit students of color, even when controlling for socially desirable responses (Sperling & Kuhn, 2016). Scales measuring
spontaneous processes and implicit beliefs are better at capturing attitudes prone to recording answers intended to be acceptable (Peterson et al., 2016).

**Conclusion**

Teachers with high efficacy are more likely to exert extra effort and persist through difficult challenges and setbacks (Settlage et al., 2009). Researchers demonstrated solely looking at teacher qualifications as insufficient in affecting student performance (Bloom & Peters, 2012). It is equally important to ensure teachers have high efficacy and are aware of their existing internal biases. In looking at preparing future educators to teach minority students, it would be beneficial to build confidence in the capability of teachers to create a positive classroom environment, which embraces multiculturalism and establishes high performance expectations (Gorski, Davis, & Reiter, 2012). Chao (2013) provided 370 psychology interns with color-blindness and multicultural training. The outcomes of the exercises indicated White participants multicultural awareness significantly increased. To elevate efficacy, teachers should receive training on humanistic modes of pupil control ideologies. Curtis, Hamilton, Moore, and Piscecco (2014) asserted that regardless of sociocultural norms, they can enhance teacher efficacy by emphasizing the use of a more humanistic model of classroom instruction. Hence, it is important to include effective training on multiculturalism and humanistic models of pupil control ideology to shape feelings of efficacy for teachers to believe they are capable within themselves, while also establishing higher expectations from their students (McCoach & Colbert, 2010). Teachers with a humanistic pupil control ideology are likely to observe and correct their own practices rather than blaming external factors when they are unsuccessful in attaining meaningful classroom experiences (Shidler, 2009). Determining ways to build teacher efficacy throughout their careers would prove to be a worthwhile endeavor when looking to accelerate
student achievement and close the achievement gaps between minority and majority students (Settlage et al., 2009).

I found the stated hypothesis was correct, concluding teachers’ expectations and perceptions about behavior influences teacher efficacy. In addition, teachers’ pupil control ideology was predictive of their level of teacher efficacy. Pupil control decreased as teacher efficacy increased as found by Herron (2015). The outcomes of previous studies corroborated the assertion that found teachers with low efficacy less humanistic than average or high efficacy teachers (Willower et al., 1967; Woolfolk et al., 1990). The second hypothesis posited teachers’ color-blind ideologies would have a negative correlation with teacher efficacy. The analysis of the data supported the hypothesis linking high efficacy to multiculturalism. Race and ethnicity were a dominant theme in every aspect of efficacy (Hines, 2008). Race was a central factor when looking at student discipline, student expectations, and the amount of effort expended when teaching students. The goal is for every student to be prepared for success in college, a career, or the military (TEA, 2018). Employing teachers with high efficacy is key to bringing this to fruition. There is a need for policymakers and educators to recognize and accept the differences in students rather than ascribing to a color-blind perspective (Worthington et al., 2008).

Teachers who are aware of student needs, are more likely to be culturally competent in their work (Hachfeld et al., 2015). The Department of Education (DOE, 2017) also works to promote the equity of students in school. In 2014, DOE created a number of resource and guidance materials in an attempt to prevent the overuse of zero-tolerance policies and combat the disproportionate discipline rates of students with disabilities along with those of color. The White House continued this effort by hosting a conference for education professionals to engage
in a discussion on the importance of positive school climate. Through advances such as this, and the Every Student Can Succeed Act, college enrollment by students of color steadily increased (DOE, 2017). Although various efforts achieved positive results, there is still a need for continued implementation of innovative methods before every student receives an equitable education.

Teachers with high efficacy and cultural beliefs have confidence in their ability to successfully educate their students (Callaway, 2017). Personal beliefs and values shape teacher expectations of student learning. Stereotypes, gender roles, cultural biases, and academic experiences create inequities for students whose backgrounds and own values differ from the teacher (Kyles & Olafson, 2008). Teachers who are aware of these inconsistencies, can increase their own efficacy and not view students as a byproduct of their environment, regardless of their race, SES, religion, or family background (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004).

**Implications for Research**

Throughout this study, I highlight the importance of teachers believing all students are valuable and capable of succeeding. Future researchers can review the institution of education in respect to the efficacy of its leaders and policies. For years there has been discussion of institutional racism within the educational system. There is a dearth of literature focusing on what factors increase stakeholder efficacy and equity in education. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) researched the reliability and validity of the TES. One area that was discussed as an area of growth was modifying the scale to garner a better understanding of the effect of efficacy beliefs on school equity. Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) suggested future studies of specific contexts correlating strong efficacy beliefs with teachers who work in diverse,
low socioeconomic settings (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Other suggested topics included focusing on factors contributing to the teacher efficacy in urban school districts.

In reviewing the research there are additional limitations requiring expansion in future studies. The main limitations were the use of small sample sizes and the lack of teacher demographic data as it relates to efficacy. Most of the research utilized a sample size of 500 or fewer participants, a variable that accounted for a lack of generalizability among the findings. As the number of participants increase in a study, the statistical power, and the probability the sample becomes more representative of the overall population (Heppner, Wampold, & Kivlighan, 2007). A second limitation was the lack of research focused on teacher demographics as it related to the researched variables. A majority of the research surrounding color-blindness in schools focused on the relationship between white teachers and students of color. Future researchers could benefit from examining color-blindness among teachers of color as well. Applying this limitation to all the constructs researched, requires the researcher to fully describe the demographic of the sample they studied (Heppner et al., 2007). There is a need to describe the ethnic make-up and mean ages of participants but also characteristics such as education level, geographic region, socioeconomic status, and any other important data expands the generalizability of the outcomes (Heppner et al., 2007). Increasing the diversity of the participant pool, promotes more accuracy in determining the applicability of the research results (Heppner et al., 2007).

I also recommend future researchers utilize longitudinal studies to determine how efficacy may change over time. Previous researchers identified efficacy beliefs emerge from personal and professional experiences (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). These encounters cause individuals to be more receptive towards students who they perceive as valuable and easily reject
those they deem incorrigible (Rideout & Morton, 2010). Numerous researchers corroborated this thought process and determined low efficacy teachers have low expectations for students of color along with those living in improvised circumstances with low SES backgrounds (Lopez, 2015). These factors align with theories explaining why minority youth remain grossly over-represented among students in special education classrooms and more frequently receive office referrals and suspensions (Lopez, 2015).

Institutional racism is still present in a variety of forms in schools today. It will require involved stakeholders to advocate for the elimination of unfair practices and actively fight against racial biases and inequities in schools. Future researchers should also look at the efficacy of its leaders within the institution of education, their policies, and practices, along with the affect that it has on teachers. While increased teacher efficacy will make a difference at the classroom level, the foresight and transparency must reach to policymakers as well. It is crucial to address color-blind racial attitudes, hidden biases, and discriminatory practices within school districts in an effort to increase teacher efficacy. Positive results can represent a major step in disrupting the school-to-prison pipeline and creating equity for students. Teachers who embrace cultural diversity hold a more accepting attitude towards other ethnic groups, which translates into practicing multiculturalism within the classroom setting (Gutentag et al., 2018). These practices are not only academically beneficial to minority students but for all students.

**Summary**

Teachers play a critical role in the success of minority students. Their beliefs and attitudes towards student learning and expectations influence the learning outcomes for many students who are already falling behind academically (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). CRT examines the issues of race and class within the educational system; which is crucial in not only
closing the achievement gap but also providing equity for minority students. I also presented research direct at exploring teacher efficacy in more depth. Teachers’ belief in their capabilities is known as efficacy. This belief is affected by factors such as school structure and socioeconomic status (Klassen et al., 2011). When teachers have high efficacy, they are more likely to have high expectations and provide additional support for their students. Those with low efficacy are more likely to have low classroom mastery and increased discipline issues (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). In reviewing the literature, I also found how a teacher’s perception of student discipline and pupil control ideology affects the beliefs of teachers regarding their students. Teacher’s control ideology may range from humanistic to custodial. Evidence of teacher color-blindness may lead to low teacher efficacy and higher levels of custodial pupil control ideology. A search of the literature identified the TSES, PCI, and CoBRAS as reliable and valid sources to measure their intended constructs. Hachfeld et al. (2015) highlighted the need to recognize how students’ culture is related to higher teacher efficacy for both teachers and students. Teacher efficacy, a humanistic control ideology, and multicultural beliefs are critical to the success of students and their ability to learn (Holoien & Shelton, 2012; Settlage et al., 2009; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative and correlational study was to determine factors associated with teacher efficacy. The instrumentation used was Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), Pupil Control Ideology Scale (PCI), and the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAS). Throughout the following chapter I discuss the methods I employed in conducting the study. The research hypothesis I posed was intended to examine whether color-blindness moderated the relationship between teacher efficacy and pupil control ideology. I also explored whether levels of teacher efficacy are predicted by understanding their beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blindness. The participants were teachers working in urban school districts in Texas. In the final section, I focus on the results of statistical tests I used to address the null hypotheses.

Research Design

In conducting this quantitative study, I employed the use of a correlational research design. Researchers use a correlational research design to determine if a relationship exists between two or more existing variables drawn from a single group of participants, followed by a statistical analysis to describe their relationship (Heppner et al., 2007). The dependent variable was teacher efficacy. The independent variables were color-blind racial attitudes and pupil control ideology. I evaluated the research hypotheses to identify whether there was a relationship between pupil control ideology, color-blind attitudes, and teacher efficacy using regression analysis. Following my evaluation, I used the urban teachers’ self-reported responses to measure the three variables.
The survey instruments used included the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale, Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale, and the Pupil Control Ideology Scale. The TSES measures a teacher’s belief in their capability to get through to even the most difficult student. This 24-item scale asks teachers to assess their ability to engage students, manage their classroom, and utilize appropriate instructional strategies (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The PCI is a 20-item scale that measures teachers’ classroom management style (Hoy, 2001). The PCI evaluates whether teachers are more humanistic or custodial in their interactions with students. *Custodial* describes tightly controlled environments. Alternatively, Hoy (2001) described the humanistic orientation as a learning community in which members learn by cooperative interactions and experiences. CoBRAS measures blatant racial issues, unawareness of racial privilege, and institutional discrimination through a 20-item scale. Higher scores on the CoBRAS positively correlate to other racial attitudes, such as a belief in a just world and greater racial prejudice (Neville et al., 2000).

**Research Questions**

**RQ1:** Is there a relationship between color-blind beliefs and teacher efficacy?

**RQ2:** Do color-blind racial attitudes moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy?

**RQ3:** Can beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs predict levels of teacher efficacy?

**Hypotheses**

The null hypotheses for this study are as follows:

**H01:** There is a negative correlational relationship between color-blindness and teacher efficacy.
**H₀₂:** Color-blind racial attitudes will not moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy.

**H₀₃:** Levels of teacher efficacy will not be predicted by beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs.

**Participants and Setting**

I engaged 230 participants for this study from a convenience sample of elementary, middle, and high school teachers within major urban school districts in Texas. Demographic information related 83.5% of students in the participating districts identified as students of color and 81.7% fell into low SES categories. Teacher demographics within these districts denoted 25.8% identified as African American, 36% Hispanic, and 33.9% White. This sample included participants that self-identified as Caucasian/European-American, Black/African American, Hispanic, Asian-American, and “other.” Participant ages ranged from the age group 18-24 to ages 75 and older, with the majority of participants being in the 25-34 age range. Twenty one percent self-identified as male and 79% female. I collected the sample from teachers during the spring semester of the 2018-2019 school year.

**Instrumentation**

**Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale**

The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) is a measure developed to assess teacher competence and task demands in particular subjects. A teacher’s sense of efficacy is their belief in their ability. After conducting factor analysis, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) found three moderately correlated factors: efficacy in instructional practices, efficacy in student engagement, and efficacy in classroom management. The TSES used in this study consisted of 24 total items. Scale items scored 1, 2,
3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9 corresponding to the level of agreement for each statement. The breakdown of the responses was as follows: 1=nothing, 3=very little, 5=some influence, 7=quite a bit, and 9=a great deal. The scale reportedly had good internal consistency with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .87 to .94 (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). I received permission to use the TSES in this research from Dr. Woolfolk Hoy. Sample questions on the TSES include:

- How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?
- How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?
- How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?

**The Pupil Control Ideology Scale**

The Pupil Control Ideology Scale is a measure of the orientation of teacher for student control (Hoy, 2001). Willower et al. (1967) developed the PCI using a two-factor framework. The PCI has 20 items to score on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Scale items score 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 based on the participants level of agreement, with strongly disagree=1, disagree=2, undecided=3, agree=4, and strongly agree=5 for each statement. The calculated sum indicates teachers’ overall pupil control ideology. Willower et al. (1967) conceptualized control as either custodial or humanistic. Self-determination of students increases when teachers perceive a school as a democratic organization that has two-way communication between students and elevates the self-determination of students. The reliability of this measure has been high with Cronbach’s alpha values between .81 to .90 (Hoy, 2001) and validated for use with samples of teachers, pre-service teachers, and student teachers. Permission to use the PCI was granted by Dr. Hoy. Examples of items on the PCI include the following:

- It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies.
- Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.
• Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad.

**Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale**

The Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (Neville et al., 2000) evaluates cognitive facets of color-blind racial attitudes (i.e., denial, distortion, and minimization of racism) and consists of 20 items intended to measure a person’s awareness of racism. Respondents must have a 6th-grade reading level to complete the questionnaire. I used this 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (i.e., strongly disagree) through 6 (i.e., strongly agree) to rate responses. High scores evidence greater endorsement of color-blind racial attitudes (i.e., higher levels of racial unawareness). Neville et al. (2000) indicated adequate construct validity and internal consistency (α = .86). Cronbach’s alpha for each factor and the total score were acceptable and ranged from .70 to .86 for Blatant Racial Issues. Dr. Neville granted permission to use CoBRAS in this research. Examples of items on the CoBRAS include the following:

• Racism is a major problem in the U.S.

• Race may have been a problem in the past, but it is not an important problem today.

• It is important that people begin to think of themselves as American and not African American, Mexican American or Italian American.

**Procedures**

I attained prior approval to conduct this study from Liberty University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB). The external research requests given to urban school districts in Texas included IRB approval from Liberty University along with the dissertation proposal and participant letters. Research collection began once I received IRB approval on March 29, 2019. Combining the PCI, CoBRAS, and TSES scales, I created a complete online assessment. Principals in approved districts via email, received invitations to distribute to potential teacher
participants. I collected principal email addresses by calling each school, reviewing their individual webpages, and utilizing the school district’s directory list. Once principals reviewed the research information, they forwarded the invitation to applicable staff. The invitation included a recruitment letter and a link to the survey. Clicking the link redirected participants to the informed consent page of the questionnaire. I distributed additional emails and follow-ups to potential candidates requesting their participation. A week prior to the closing date, I sent a final email informing every one of the expected last day to submit the survey. Using snowball sampling techniques, I accessed additional contributors through social media platforms. I posted the recruitment letter on my personal Facebook page, as well as in the educator groups: Texas Teachers and DFW Teacher’s Lounge. On average, Qualtrics data indicated participants took approximately 15-minutes to complete the survey. Participants completed the surveys anonymously.

I forwarded the survey invitation to approximately 10,000 teachers from three major urban school districts in Texas. My goal was to garner at least 10% participation to yield approximately 1,000 participants. However, I collected a sample of only 230 participants, which qualified as sufficient to determine statistically significant research. Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) identified a minimum sample size of 66 participants for a medium effect size (i.e., .5) along with a statistical power of .70 at the .05 alpha level. Utilizing a non-probability snowball sampling technique via social media allowed me to recruit large sample sizes at minimal cost (Boulianne, 2015). One disadvantage of this technique was the limited sample may not be representative of the population. Participants taking the survey had the option to enter in a drawing to win one of three $25-dollar Visa gift cards. There was also a drawing for one $100-dollar Visa gift card. The collected results determined the level of correlation between the
scales. If participants did not fully complete the assessment, I removed the partial responses from the data.

**Data Analysis**

At the culmination of data collection, I transferred the information from Excel into IBM SPSS software. I used bivariate correlational analysis to determine the relationship between the two measured variables. According to Heppner et al. (2007), if a relationship exists among the variables, it is important to determine a regression equation to develop predictions about the population. Herron (2015) used the PCI and TES to determine their correlation among pre-service teachers. Using a series of regression, I found teaching efficacy predicted the way they view pupil control. I hypothesized a negative correlation between teacher efficacy and pupil control ideology. One limitation of this study was the medium effect size used because of the low number of participants. While I sought to have a sample size that is at least 10% of the population surveyed, which would be approximately 1,000 respondents, the reduced sample size would allow for use of a small effect size. A minimum sample size of 393 participants would be needed (Gall et al., 2007) to utilize a small effect size, (i.e., .2) along with a statistical power of .80 at the .05 alpha level. With a total of 230 participants, I used a medium effect size to make determinations. In this study, I identified the strength of the relationship between the variables by conducting a series of regression analyses. Moderation determined if color-blind beliefs strengthen the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. Utilizing scatterplots aided me in analyzing the strength of the correlations and any existing outliers. Previous research failed to use moderation, which may have been a missed opportunity to explore alternate relationships between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy (Herron, 2015).
Although I collected a total of 230 teacher participants, after the process of data cleaning and removing incorrect data, a total of 150 participants remained viable candidates. Statistical analysis forecasted the degree and direction of the relationship between variables. The process provided additional information as to how closely the variables related to one another.

Researchers determine there is no relationship when the correlations is zero. I also used a bivariate Pearson correlation analysis to identify if a relationship exists between CoBRAS and TSES strength and direction of the relationship in Hypothesis 1. Using moderation, I tested Hypothesis 2 to ascertain if color-blindness moderates the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. Using a multiple regression analysis, I evaluated the validity of the third hypothesis. Results from the TSES, PCI, and CoBRAS contributed to finalizing the results of the study.

I also considered social desirability in conjunction with the instruments used in this research. Social desirability bias is a response bias where participants tend to answer a question in a manner, they anticipate others will view as favorable (Joinson, 1999). Sensitive topics include feelings of low self-worth or power, intellectual achievement, personality traits, compliance, and illegal acts. Some steps improve the reliability and validity of this research due to the possibility biases may interfere with the interpretation of data. Aside from demographic data, participants completed the survey anonymously via a computer. This provided the respondents with neutrality, detachment, and assurance that they will not be viewed negatively based on their responses. Compared to the most competent interviewer, a computer survey does not seem as judgmental and respondents are free to express their true feelings (Lautenschlager & Flaherty, 1990). The survey directly stated the participants’ anonymity to decrease the feelings of judgment and pressure to respond in a favorable way (Joinson, 1999). I did not reveal the
exact purpose of the survey to participants to minimize responding while considering social desirability. Giving the survey a title such as *Teacher Beliefs* allowed the participants to complete the survey with an open mind. Keeping the title simple helped to prevent the participants from feeling as if there was a right or wrong way to answer the questions. It also did not give them time in advance to prepare answers they feel may be more socially acceptable (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine variable predictive of the level of teacher efficacy among urban teachers. Teacher efficacy is a strong prognosticator of student academic achievement and reduced teacher burnout (Gutentag et al., 2018; Pas et al., 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Outcomes of the study can aid in teacher retention and the development of professional development opportunities to increase teacher efficacy. In this chapter, I present the data I obtained. The population of this research included teachers working in major urban school districts in Texas. I contacted eight major urban school districts to request permission to administer the surveys within their jurisdictions. Only three of the eight school districts granted permission for the survey. I also accessed social media outlets to gain study participants. My efforts yielded a total of 230 participants. In addition, I present descriptive statistics for participants’ responses.

Research Questions

**RQ1:** Is there a relationship between color-blind beliefs and teacher efficacy?

**RQ2:** Do color-blind racial attitudes moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy?

**RQ3:** Can beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs predict levels of teacher efficacy?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are as follows:

**Ho1:** There is a negative correlational relationship between color-blindness and teacher efficacy.
**H02:** Color-blind racial attitudes will not moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy.

**H03:** Levels of teacher efficacy will not be predicted by beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs.

**Descriptive Statistics**

The following information represents the descriptive statistics of the responses from the teachers who completed the TSES, CoBRAS, and PCI. The descriptive statistics in Table 1 illustrate the range and standard deviation of each factor. Results of this analysis show TSES; $N = 150, M = 169.89, SD = 23.754$. The TSES total scores ranged from 109 - 216. The mean of the scores is equivalent to a scale score of seven, which indicates teachers’ sense of efficacy was *quite a bit*. Results of this analysis for CoBRAS are $N = 150, M = 55.69, SD = 18.795$. The CoBRAS total scores ranged from 25 - 106. The mean of the scores is equivalent to a scale score of three, which indicates teachers’ color-blind racial beliefs were less color-blind. Results of this analysis for PCI are $N = 150, M = 54.49, SD = 9.182$. The PCI total scores ranged from 29 - 78. The mean of the scores is equivalent to a scale score of three, which indicates teachers’ PCI was *undecided*.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for All Teachers’ Surveys*

<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TSES_total</td>
<td>169.89</td>
<td>23.754</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCI_total</td>
<td>54.49</td>
<td>9.182</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CoBRAS_total</td>
<td>55.69</td>
<td>18.795</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results

Three foundational research questions answered were: Is teacher efficacy correlated to color-blindness, does color-blindness moderate the relationship between teacher efficacy and pupil control ideology, and can color-blindness and pupil control ideology predict teachers’ level of efficacy. My analysis determined the dependent variable was statistically significant to both of the independent variables, which is critical to understanding the predictive capacity of the moderator.

Hypothesis One

I computed a bivariate Pearson’s correlation to assess the relationship between color-blindness and teacher efficacy. The result of the correlational analysis presented in Table 2 shows a significant negative correlation between CoBRAS and TSES. However, this correlation is very weak $r = -0.17, N = 150, p = .043$. Due to the weak correlation, it is imperative to be cautious when interpreting these results. The scatterplot (Figure 1) also summarizes these results. Overall, there was a very weak, negative correlation between color-blindness and teacher efficacy. Increases in teacher efficacy were slightly correlated to decreases in color-blindness.

Table 2

*TSES and CoBRAS Correlations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CoBRAS_total</th>
<th>TSES_total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CoBRAS_total</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSES_total</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.165*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Hypothesis Two

I proposed moderation for hypothesis 2, moderation. The hypothesis was color-blindness would not serve as a moderator relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. To test the main effects of PCI and CoBRAS, as well as the effect of the interaction between PCI and CoBRAS on teacher efficacy, I conducted a hierarchical multiple regression. In Step 1, I entered two variables PCI and CoBRAS into the model as predictors; they significantly predicted teacher efficacy, $F(2, 147) = 3.989, p < .05$, but did not account for a significant amount of variance in teacher efficacy ($R^2 = .051$). The R-square value in this step represents the amount of variance in the dependent variable. In Step 2, I created an interaction term and centered the variables. This step was necessary to avoid high multicollinearity (Hayes, 2012). Next, I entered the interaction between PCI and CoBRAS into the regression model, and results revealed that there was not a statistically significant relationship to teacher efficacy, $R^2 =$
.05, $F$ change = 0.52, $p = .471$. Thus, color-blindness does not moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy.

**Hypothesis Three**

I ran a multiple regression to predict teacher efficacy based on pupil control ideology and color-blind beliefs. These variables statistically predicted teacher efficacy, $F(2, 147) = 3.989, p < .05, R^2 = .051$ as shown in Table 3. However, the independent variables only explain 5.1% of variability in the dependent variable. Independently, neither variable was strong enough to predict teacher efficacy. The overall model was significant.

Table 3

*Model Summary*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), CoBRAS total, PCI_total

b. Dependent Variable: TSES_total
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

Throughout this chapter, I explore the results of the study researching the relationship between teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blindness. In the discussion section I review the hypotheses and the results of the study. The implications of the current study will support the meaning this research has for the community at large, as well as the Christian worldview. The limitations and conclusion sections look at ways to improve the research and additional ways to extend the research to explore teacher efficacy.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the correlation between teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, and color-blind beliefs among teachers in urban school districts. Teachers’ sense of efficacy can affect the level of commitment, effort, and persistence used when working with students, which affect what they can achieve (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008). By assessing the domains of color-blindness and pupil control ideology, I was able to determine their impact on teacher efficacy. I recruited participants from three major urban school districts within the state of Texas. The candidate completed three online measures, TSES, PCI, and CoBRAS, which formulated the collected data for this research. Previous researchers relayed their findings of a negative correlation between teacher efficacy and pupil control ideology (Gilbert, 2012; Gordon et al., 2007; Oğuz & Kalkan, 2011; Webb, 2010). In my analysis, I present data demonstrating a negative correlation between color-blindness and teacher efficacy. Although color-blindness did not moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy, I found color-blindness and pupil control ideology predicted teacher efficacy.
Outcomes related to Hypothesis 1 suggested a negative correlational relationship between color-blindness and teacher efficacy as measured by CoBRAS and TSES. This very weak correlation suggests that as teacher efficacy increases, color-blind beliefs decrease. Research by Shields, Larocque, and Oberg (2002), explained how color-blindness prevents the teachers from deepening relationships with students and stifles their ability to learn more about themselves. This aligns with the belief that a teacher’s perception about themselves influences their actions and efficacy within the classroom environment (Bandura, 1997; Goddard & Goddard, 2001).

I proposed hypothesis 2 to reveal whether color-blind racial attitudes would not moderate the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. I suggested the data regarding color-blindness only accounted for 5.1% of variance in the relationship between pupil control ideology and teacher efficacy. Therefore, I concluded color-blindness, as a moderator, did not significantly strengthen the relationship between the variables. One potential explanation Bandura (1977) provided attributes outcome and efficiency expectancy as an important factor in developing teacher efficacy. According to Bandura (1977), outcome expectancy is defined as a person’s estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. Additionally, the researcher expressed efficacy expectation as “the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcome” (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Because color-blindness is an implicit bias, it has no effect on an individual’s belief or view regarding a certain outcome.

In hypothesis 3 I stated the levels of teacher efficacy would not predict beliefs about students’ behavior and color-blind beliefs. I suggest beliefs about student behavior and color-blind beliefs have some influence on the level of teacher efficacy. Researchers reported teachers with high efficacy often work longer with students who have problems and are less likely to criticize student mistakes. (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Additionally, teachers’ perceptions
of students can influence the quality of teacher instruction, as well as students’ sociability, motivation, academic potential, interests, and emotional stability, which color-blindness cultivates (Irizarry, 2015). Delpit (2006) discussed the contention existing between minority students and teachers is due to the need to adjust between culturally responsive and traditional instruction. With process and learning theory both deep-rooted in culture, it is important that teachers truly see the whole child (Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006).

At a minimum, my findings illuminate possibilities for building teacher efficacy through providing training on multiculturalism and classroom management. I anticipate a plethora of future research can further the understanding of teacher efficacy as it relates to color-blindness and pupil control ideology.

**Implications**

Using the results of this study, highlights important implications for teachers and administrators in urban school districts. As the focus of the study, I resolved the positive and negative aspects of teacher efficacy greatly affect teachers. Based on the results of this research I feel confers information for school administrators to consider as they select teachers to work with students of color in an urban environment. Lastly, students will also benefit from teachers who have strong efficacy (Goddard et al., 2004; Woolfolk & Hoy, 2001).

The outcomes of my study have additional implications for teachers. I found there was a significant negative relationship between color-blindness and teacher efficacy. This highlights the importance of recognizing the culture and backgrounds of students as a means of improving the educational environment. The core of many racial stereotypes involves deficit thinking related to student ability. Perpetuation of stereotypical ideologies influences teachers’ evaluations of students’ capacity to learn and succeed (Irizarry, 2015). It is important for
teachers to critically self-reflect on their own implicit biases and how they may affect their mindset on teaching and classroom management. Teachers, district administrators, and state officials must check their color-blind beliefs and determine whether academic content and resources confers biased information to students. To take this a step further, it is important for curriculum writers and instructional specialists to have the proper training on how to make the curriculum culturally relevant for students. State standards are general and provide no variability to students. As each district creates curriculum, it is necessary to not only include culturally relevant pieces but to also examine the imbalance of power critically from social constructs around gender, race, and class as they intersect with one another (Liou et al., 2016). To accomplish this task, they should consider the inclusion of books introducing characters from diverse cultural backgrounds (Aronson et al., 2016; Sleeter & Grant, 2017).

School administrators in urban districts can use the results of this study to develop critical professional development for teachers. My research indicates teacher training should provide information on more humanistic-oriented classroom practices to promote greater efficacy among teachers. Higher scores on the PCI communicated a preference for more custodial control ideology. The median score of three on the PCI indicates that approximately half of the participants related to a custodial ideology, while the other half closely related to a humanistic orientation. Developing greater teacher efficacy and humanistic beliefs are imperative for classroom management success (Curtis et al., 2014). From a humanistic lens, it is important to have a classroom space more conducive to student learning (Liou et al., 2016). This allows students to discuss and synthesize content with others rather than working in isolation. When teachers and administrators create an open classroom environment, students have shown an increased willingness to learn (Gilbert, 2012). Although students in urban schools have a myriad
of factors working against them a teacher with a humanistic orientation can help to overcome those obstacles (Liaw, 2017; Lynn et al., 2010). Small changes such as these can lead to an increase in student learning and participation, which in turn increases teacher efficacy. Properly training and preparing teachers for the classroom is a proactive measure that will support, and benefit vested stakeholders within the educational community. Recently, the World Health Organization (WHO), classified burnout as a work-related phenomenon included in the 11th Revision of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11). Researchers reported teachers with low efficacy tend to have higher levels of burnout, resulting in more days out of the classroom (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). Ultimately, improving teacher efficacy through endorsing humanistic and multicultural beliefs will help teachers effectively cope with challenges in urban schools.

**Christian Worldview**

Color-blindness plays an important role in continuing the racism and inequality, which exists not only in education but in our society at large. Liberty University believes in ‘Training Champions for Christ.’ The university defines a champion as a defender, a risk-taker, and an advocate who stands up for the voiceless, the hurting, and the oppressed (Liberty, 2019). If individuals fail to see color, they are also unable to see the racial inequalities existing around them. It is important to note that God speaks of differences between individuals to bring light to the unifying power of Christ (Ephesians 2:14-16; Revelation 7:9, King James Version). Our cultures and ethnicities shape our life experiences and who we are (Acts 17:26-27). Rev. Falwell envisioned creating a field of individuals who served others, loved God, and were the best at what they were called to be. In the field of education, these individuals would be efficacious and aware of the cultural and academic needs of students. Acts 6:1-7 provides insight into how the
Hebraic and Hellenistic Jews handled cultural injustices. Although their culture neglected Hebraic widows, the apostles chose spirit-filled Hellenistic men to bring justice to them. This is the same way teachers should assure their students receive justice. It is important for them to take the time to truly assess and meet the needs of their students, especially those living in urban school districts.

Researchers have shown the importance of teachers having a humanistic model of discipline in their classroom. A humanistic control ideology leads to greater behavioral and academic outcomes for students (Oğuz & Kalkan, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Not only researchers but Biblical scripture supports this form of discipline. Philippians 2:3-4 speaks to the importance of teachers not only looking out for their own interests but the interests of others as well. Often, teachers give consequences to a student, which give them personal relief, rather than determining what is in the best interest of the child. Although discipline should be firm, teachers can offer it with a tender heart and in a spirit of kindness. “Be kind and compassionate to one another, forgiving each other, just as Christ God forgave you” (Ephesians 4:32, New International Version). Through the scriptures, God calls for teachers to have patience with their students and to teach them the appropriate and expected behavior. Entrusted to educate children, teachers serve as role models and mentors. Teaching discipline should be a loving and positive experience for everyone involved. The purpose of discipline is not to humiliate or break a child. Teachers with a humanistic orientation view behavior in sociological terms and have friendly, open relationships with students. 1 Thessalonians 5:14 (English Standard Version) urges believers to “…encourage the fainthearted, help the weak, and be patient with them all.” In doing this, teachers must believe their students can learn to be productive, self-regulating, contributors to the classroom environment.
Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) defined teacher efficacy as teachers’ confidence in their ability to organize, plan, and perform activities required to attain high educational goals for all students. In order to accomplish this task, teachers must exemplify the characteristics of an effective instructor. God’s Word speaks of the characteristics a good teacher should possess. First and foremost, teachers should know the ability to teach is an ordained gift according to God’s sovereign will (1 Corinthians 12:11). It is important for teachers to know that God has called them to the classroom to not only teach but to impart knowledge and love among all students, no matter their race, gender, or socioeconomic status. Love is the most powerful force that can make the biggest difference to students. The first step of imparting knowledge and love to children is for teachers to understand that “The tongue has the power of life and death…” (Proverbs 18:21, New International Version). Teachers can build up or tear down their students with their words alone. Proverbs 15:4 states “a soothing tongue is a tree of life, but a perverse tongue crushes the spirit”. These very words help to build an open and trusting relationship necessary to effectively teach children and increase learning. In Proverbs 1, Solomon speaks to this very notion. The Bible affirms that “…knowledge and discretion to the young; let the wise listen and add to their learning, and let the discerning get guidance” (Proverbs 1:4-5). It is imperative for an effective teacher to show love to all students. When a student feels love they are more likely to be open to learning and gaining guidance from the teacher. “Whoever lives in love lives in God, and God in them” (Ephesians 4:2). When God is within you, you can experience a transformation by the renewal of your mind, body, and spirit. It is also important to note that teachers should have confidence in their ability. As stated in Romans 5:3-4 “Not only so, but we also glory in our sufferings, because we know that suffering produces perseverance; perseverance, character; and character, hope.” Although they may initially struggle with
discipline or building relationships, they must press on. It is through this confidence and perseverance that a teacher increases their efficacy in the classroom environment. Teachers should continue to ground themselves in truth, love, and wisdom to best support the social, emotional, and academic needs of all children.

**Limitations**

In reviewing the research limitations, it is important to examine the statistical, external, and internal validity. From a statistical perspective, the small sample size is a limitation of this research. I distributed the research survey to approximately 10,000 teachers, garnering only 230 responses, a relatively small sample size considering the total population. It is important to increase the number of participants in the study to increase statistical power (Heppner et al., 2007). A small sample size can also lead to bias such as non-response errors. This form of error occurs when an inadequate number of the sample population respond, leading to likely non-representativeness of the population (Umbach, 2005). Due to the low response rate and sample size, the results of the study are not generalizable to all major urban schools in Texas. Survey participants were not demographically representative of urban teachers in Texas. The selection process for the participants presents another limitation, potentially creating misinterpretations of the results. I used a convenience sample as participants self-selected based on their interest and availability. This significantly limits generalizability to the greater population. Creswell (2014) recommended utilizing a random sample, allowing participants an equal probability of inclusion.

An additional limitation was the use of gaining participants anonymously through social media and email. With this form of sampling, it is impossible to tell the method of solicitation participants accessed. I was also unable to determine if participants duplicated surveys or if all
participants met the screening criteria. The possibility of participants misrepresenting themselves could skew survey results (Wright, 2005).

A final limitation of this research was depending on the accuracy of self-reported responses. I relied on participants to read and honestly answer each of the 64 questions in the combined survey instrument. Participants may not have answered responses truthfully or taken the time to read carefully through each question, which may have skewed the collected data.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Results from the current study can offer insights for future researchers despite the noted limitations. Future investigators should also look at the efficacy of teachers who receive alternative certification. Much of the research focused on pre-service teachers and the training they receive. Teachers who complete the alternative certification process do not receive the same extensive training as those who receive a degree in education. These teachers have little to no preparation prior to their placement in a classroom. The expectation is they will learn by teaching, which undoubtedly comes with challenges and obstacles. Future research should determine if alternatively, certified teachers’ expectations or personal experiences influences their efficacy levels.

During the data cleaning process, I noted approximately one-third of all participants did not fully complete the survey. The high rate of non-completion potentially reflects the length of time and level of reading necessary to finish each scale. Longer surveys may also cause participants to speed through the survey and not provide quality responses (Chudoba, 2019). For this reason, I also recommend that future researchers use shorter versions of the assessments. The CoBRAS short version consists of only 14 questions and has similar reliability and validity as the full CoBRAS survey. The TSES also has a short version that consists of 12 questions to
gauge teacher efficacy. This scale reportedly also has good internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .81 to .90 (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The length of the survey may have attributed to the large number of participants not completing the questionnaires.

Additionally, studying teacher demographics as it relates to the tested variables allows for deeper insight into factors, which attribute to efficacy. There may be benefits to specifically researching teacher race as it pertains to color-blindness and efficacy. Research directed towards color-blindness in schools tends to focus on the relationship between white teachers and students of color (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Furthermore, future studies can expand on this by not only describing the ethnic make-up but also characteristics such as teacher age, education level, geographic region, and socioeconomic status.

Lastly, future research would benefit from utilizing a different form of data collection and analysis. This research, reciprocated with qualitative methods, would allow the researcher the opportunity to better embrace the subconscious and instinctual nature of the participants through physical observation (Kahlke, 2014). Qualitative research allows for the use of open-ended questions, which makes it possible to gather additional information based on emotional responses. In determining themes, the researcher can produce a more far-reaching analysis, going beyond the participants’ surface level responses (Connelly & Peltzer, 2016). This form of research could potentially give greater insight into teachers’ implicit bias as it relates to students and teacher efficacy. Further research has the potential to discover important factors that will lead to an increase in teacher efficacy.
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Appendix A. Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale Permission

Re: Permission to use TSES

Anita Woolfolk Hoy <anitahoy@me.com>

Mon 9/17/2018 9:14 PM

To: Parker-Hart, Kyria <kparkerhart@liberty.edu>

You are welcome to use the TSES in your research as you describe below. This website might be helpful to you:

http://l.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/

Best wishes in your work.

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, PhD
Professor Emerita
The Ohio State University
7655 Pebble Creek Circle, Unit 301
Naples, FL 34108
Appendix B. Pupil Control Ideology Permission

Re: Permission to use PCI

Wayne Hoy <whoy@mac.com>

Mon 9/17/2018 9:18 PM

To: Parker-Hart, Kyria <kparkerhart@liberty.edu>

Dear Kyria,

You have my permission to use the Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) Form in your research.

Good luck.

Wayne K. Hoy
Fawcett Professor Emeritus in Education Administration
The Ohio State University
www.waynehoy.com
Re: Permission to use CoBRAS

Neville, Helen & <hneville@illinois.edu>

Tue 9/19/2016 7:07 PM
Parlee Hart, Kyria

You replied on 9/27/2016 6:12 PM.

2 attachments (54 KB) Download all Save all to OneDrive - Liberty University

Kyria,

Thank you so much for your interest in the CoBRAS. I really like the topic of your dissertation and would love for you to use the CoBRAS. Please find attached the scoring and utilization forms.

Best of luck with the study and please keep me posted about your findings.

--helen

Helen A. Neville,
PhD | Professor | Educational Psychology and African American Studies | President, Society for the Psychological Study of Culture, Ethnicity, and Race (APA, Division 46), 2018
Appendix D. Informed Consent

CONSENT FORM

Teacher Beliefs
Kyria Parker-Hart
Liberty University
School of Community Care and Counseling

You are invited to be in a research study focusing on teacher beliefs regarding student success and behavior in the classroom setting. You were selected as a possible participant because you currently work as a certified classroom teacher within an urban school district in Texas. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Kyria Parker-Hart, a doctoral candidate in the School of Community Care and Counseling at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to determine teachers’ beliefs regarding students in the school setting.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

1. Complete an online survey consisting of demographic information and 64 survey questions. This survey will take approximately 15-minutes to complete. After completing the survey, you will have the option to enter your email address to be entered into a gift card raffle. This is completely optional.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Compensation: Participants may be compensated for participating in this study. Participants will have the option to be entered to win one of three twenty-five-dollar visa gift cards. There will also be a drawing for one $100 visa gift card. Email addresses will be requested for gift card drawing purposes, however, they will be pulled and separated from your responses by SurveyMonkey to maintain anonymity.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future research. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time, prior to submitting the survey, without affecting those relationships.
How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Kyria Parker-Hart. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact me at [redacted]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Dr. Daphne Washington, at [redacted].

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I affirm my consent to participate in the study by clicking continue and completing the survey.
Appendix E. Recruitment Letter

Dear Educator:

As a graduate student in the School of Community Care and Counseling at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of my research is to identify teachers’ beliefs regarding students in the school setting, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are a certified classroom teacher in an urban school district and are willing to participate, you will be asked to complete a 64-item survey. It should take approximately 15-minutes for you to complete the procedure listed. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate in this study, you will go to

https://liberty.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_6sw6LSu3Q8YxC3X and click on the link provided to complete a short screening survey and review informed consent. The informed confirmed consent page will contain additional information about my research, please click on the survey link at the end of the consent page to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

If you choose to participate, you will have the option to be entered in a raffle to receive one of three $25-dollar visa gift cards. There will also be a drawing for one $100-dollar visa gift card.
If you choose to enter you will be given the opportunity to enter your email addresses on a separate website. Your email address will be in no way linked to their responses.

Sincerely,

Kyria Parker-Hart

Doctoral Candidate
Appendix F. Screening Survey

Screening Survey

Are you a certified teacher in one of the following Texas school districts: Arlington, Austin, Dallas, Fort Worth, Houston, Northside, North East, San Antonio, or Ysleta ISD?

If yes, please continue to the informed consent page.
Appendix G. IRB Approval

March 29, 2019

Kyria Parker-Hart
IRB Exemption 3714.032919: A Correlational Study on the Relationship between Pupil Control Ideology, Color-Blind Racial Attitudes, and Teacher Efficacy among Urban Teachers

Dear Kyria Parker-Hart,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46.101(b):

(2) Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording) if the following criteria is met:

(i) The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Research Ethics Office

Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971