EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MULTICULTURAL EFFICACY AND CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT SELF-EFFICACY AMONG K-12 TEACHERS

by

Shalise M. Taylor

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment Of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2020
EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MULTICULTURAL EFFICACY AND CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT SELF-EFFICACY AMONG K-12 TEACHERS

by Shalise M. Taylor

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment Of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

2020

APPROVED BY:

Jillian L. Wendt, Ed.D, Committee Chair

Antionette Stroter, Ph.D, Committee Member
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this multiple regression study was to examine the relationship between multicultural self-efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE). In addition, the study examined if attitude toward diversity and experience with diversity are significant predictors of teachers’ sense of CRCMSE. The Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) and CRCMSE Scale was distributed to a sample of K-12 public school teachers working in a large Virginia school division. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the relationship between the predictor variables (multicultural self-efficacy, attitude toward diversity, and experience with diversity) and the criterion variable (CRCMSE). Pearson $R^2$ was calculated to determine the effect size between the predictor and criterion variables, while descriptive statistics was calculated to determine frequencies, percentages, central tendencies, and variations. Prior research indicates that teacher beliefs influence student outcomes, particularly in settings with culturally and ethnically diverse students. The results found experience with diversity and multicultural efficacy to be statistically significant predictors of CRCMSE. Attitude toward diversity was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of CRCMSE.

*Keywords: culturally responsive classroom management, culturally responsive practices, disproportionalities, equity, multicultural efficacy, self-efficacy*
Dedication

Foremost, I dedicate this work to God the Father, the Holy Spirit, and my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, who has given me the strength, ability, and fortitude to accomplish such an endeavor. I also dedicate this work to my husband, JT, for his continuous love and support, and my children Jahkari, Jaden, Jayla, Josiah, and Jyra, for their patience through the process. To my parents Michael and Sherrita Fentress, my Focus Church family, and all my family and friends, I sincerely thank you for your prayers and encouragement.
Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the love and grace of God that has covered me and made this degree possible. I thank God for strategically ordering my steps and demonstrating his faithfulness throughout the dissertation process.

I thank my husband Jahkari for being my “purpose pusher”. His love for God and the field of education has truly inspired my journey, shaped my thinking, and made me a better wife and educator. Because of his contributions to the field of education and body of Christ, I wake up each day aspiring to live with a sense a purpose, dream big, and have a positive impact on the world.

I would also like to thank my committee, Dr. Jillian Wendt and Dr. Antionette Stroter for their willingness to take this journey with me. It is because of their wisdom and guidance that I was able to see my research actualized.
# Table of Contents

ABSTRACT .................................................................................................................. 3

Dedication .................................................................................................................. 4

Acknowledgements ................................................................................................... 5

List of Tables .............................................................................................................. 8

List of Figures ............................................................................................................ 9

List of Abbreviations ................................................................................................. 10

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ............................................................................. 11

Overview .................................................................................................................... 11

Background ................................................................................................................ 11

Problem Statement .................................................................................................... 2

Purpose Statement ..................................................................................................... 15

Significance of the Study ........................................................................................... 16

Research Question(s) ................................................................................................. 17

Definitions .................................................................................................................. 18

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ................................................................. 20

Overview .................................................................................................................... 20

Theoretical Framework ............................................................................................... 20

Related Literature ..................................................................................................... 40

Summary ..................................................................................................................... 48

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS .................................................................................. 51

Overview .................................................................................................................... 51
Design……………………………………………………………………………………51

Research Questions……………………………………………………………………52

Hypotheses………………………………………………………………………………52

Participants and Setting………………………………………………………………53

Instrumentation…………………………………………………………………………54

Procedures………………………………………………………………………………56

Data Analysis…………………………………………………………………………..57

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDING…………………………………………………………….64

Overview………………………………………………………………………………….64

Research Questions……………………………………………………………………64

Null Hypotheses……………………………………………………………………….64

Descriptive Statistics…………………………………………………………………65

Results…………………………………………………………………………………..71

Hypotheses………………………………………………………………………………74

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS……………………………………………………76

Overview…………………………………………………………………………………76

Discussion………………………………………………………………………………76

Implications…………………………………………………………………………….80

Limitations………………………………………………………………………………81

Recommendations for Future Research……………………………………………81

REFERENCES…………………………………………………………………………83

APPENDICES…………………………………………………………………………92
List of Tables

Table 1: Participants’ Years of Teaching Experience ................................................. 65
Table 2: Participants’ Teaching Level ........................................................................ 66
Table 3: Age Range of Participants ......................................................................... 66
Table 4: Gender Identity of Participants .................................................................... 67
Table 5: Race and Ethnicity of Participants ............................................................... 68
Table 6: Variable Inflation Factor ............................................................................. 73
Table 7: Model Summary and ANOVA ................................................................... 74
Table 8: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations ....................................................... 76
List of Figures

Figure 1: Experience with Diversity ........................................................................ 68
Figure 2: Attitude toward Diversity ........................................................................ 69
Figure 3: Teachers’ Efficacy Scores ....................................................................... 70
Figure 4: CRCMSE Scores ..................................................................................... 71
Figure 5: Scatterplot Matrix: Relationship between Variables .............................. 72
Figure 6: A Normal P-P of Standardized Residuals ................................................ 73
List of Abbreviations

Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CMSE)

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (CRCM)

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE)

Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES)
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

This chapter will introduce the background, history, and research related to the study. Moreover, this chapter will introduce the problem addressed in the study and the purpose of the research. Furthermore, a discussion of the study’s significance will provide an overview of the study and validate the necessity of the topic and research. Lastly, the chapter will provide a discussion of key terms and definitions related to the study.

Background

As the demographics of students enrolled in public schools become increasingly diverse, there is a growing need to employ teaching strategies that meet the needs of all students (Bonner, Warren, and Jiang, 2017). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2016), nearly 40% of the students enrolled in public school are students of color. Moreover, researchers expect students of color to make-up the majority of the ethnic groups enrolled in public school over the next five years (U.S Department of Education, 2016). While the student population is rapidly changing, the demographics of public-school teachers look much different. Currently, more than a third of public-school teachers are non-Hispanic white, and less than a quarter of the teachers entering the workforce are teachers of color (U.S Department of Education, 2016). Cultural and ethnic differences between teachers and students can lead to decreased student achievement and increased behavioral problems, if teachers do not have the skills needed to teach students from diverse backgrounds (Bonner et al., 2017). On the contrary, when teachers develop a strong sense of cultural awareness and competency, they may be more likely to engage in culturally responsive teaching (CRT) and use culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM) practices (Bonner et al., 2017; Fong, McRoy, & Detlaff, 2014; Herzik, 2015).
The concepts of culturally responsive teaching and culturally responsive classroom management are rooted in the theory of multicultural education. The theory of multicultural education emerged following the 1960s Civil Rights Movement and the desegregation of schools, in an effort to develop inclusive curriculum materials, resources, and teaching practices (Banks, 2013). Decades later, as the United States becomes more ethnically diverse, it is essential that teachers’ practices and pedagogy reflect all races, ethnicities, and cultures. Now, more than ever, there is a need for teachers who can reach across cultural bounds and meet the needs of diverse learners. Curricula materials and instructional resources that focus on the experiences of mainstream Americans has consequences for all students (Djonko-Moore, Jiang, & Gibson, 2018). The over-portrayal of white citizens in the textbooks, media, and literature misrepresents relationships between races in our society (Banks, 2013; Djonko-Moore et al., 2017). Likewise, a mainstream curriculum robs all students of the opportunity to share unique experiences and consider the perspectives of others. When students examine content through the eyes and experiences of one race, they may often have a skewed view of history (Banks, 2013; Ware and Ware, 2012). Furthermore, a curriculum that focuses on the majority race may cause other races to feel ignored or irrelevant, and in turn, negatively influence their achievement (Ware and Ware, 2012). Therefore, teachers must understand how to provide students with the opportunity to engage in multicultural education, while meeting their needs through culturally responsive practices.

Culturally responsive teaching and culturally responsive classroom management bridge the gap between the theory of multicultural education and the everyday pedagogy and practices of teachers. Culturally responsive teaching refers to instructional practices that reflect the ethnic and cultural attributes of students (Bonner et al., 2017; Bottiani, Larson, Debnam, Bischoff,
Bradshaw, 2017). Culturally responsive classroom management refers to techniques and management practices specifically designed to account for the ethnic and cultural variations in the classroom environment (Siwatu, Putman, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2017). Through culturally responsive teaching and management teachers can build relationships with students, develop culturally congruent communication, and incorporate students’ perspectives, backgrounds, and experiences into the classroom (Siwatu et al., 2017). Moreover, teachers can help to create a classroom environment in which students feel a sense of acceptance and belonging. By striving to meet the needs of all students, teachers can reduce disproportionalities in academic and discipline data, and further the achievement of students of color (Siwatu et al., 2017; Fong et al., 2014; Bottiani, Bradshaw, and Gregory, 2018). To do this, teachers must have the attitudes, skills, and dispositions needed to employ culturally responsive practices effectively (Fong et al., 2014; Siwatu et al., 2017). Furthermore, teachers must desire to reach diverse students and feel confident in their ability to do so.

Multicultural efficacy provides a means to assess teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and experiences regarding the practice and application of culturally responsive teaching. Grounded in the theories of self-efficacy and multicultural education, multicultural efficacy refers to the confidence one has in his or her ability to be successful when working in a multicultural setting or with diverse groups (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). The confidence a teacher has in his or her ability to be successful with diverse students will ultimately affect the teacher’s decisions and actions in the classroom (Morettini, Brown & Viator, 2018). When teachers become more culturally competent, they are likely to feel more confident in multicultural settings, and thus have a greater sense of multicultural efficacy (Guyton and Wesche, 2005; Morettini et al., 2018). Therefore, cultivating teachers’ cultural competence and strengthening their sense of
multicultural efficacy can have a positive impact on the achievement and outcomes of all ethnic groups (Bonner et al., 2017; Guyton and Wesche, 2005; Morettini et al., 2018). With this in mind, teachers must be aware of their level of multicultural efficacy and the impact that their beliefs and attitudes have on students. In addition, educational leaders should make it a priority to foster cultural competence and improve multicultural efficacy among teachers. Furthermore, educational leaders must have a better understanding of the relationship between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive practices to promote the academic and behavioral well-being of all students.

**Problem Statement**

A review of the literature found that gaps and disproportionalities in achievement and discipline data among students of color are continuing to widen as the percentage of K-12 students of color increase nationwide (Bottiani, Bradshaw, and Gregory 2018). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2019), the percentage of K-12 Hispanic students increased from 16 to 26 percent between the years 2000 and 2015 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). On the contrary, the percentage of white students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools decreased from 61 to 49 percent between the years 2000 and 2015. Furthermore, by 2024, students of color will make up about 56 percent of the student population (U.S Department of Education, 2016). Yet, the majority of teachers in the field and entering the field identify as non-Hispanic white (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019).

When there is cultural mismatch between teachers and students, teachers may sometimes misinterpret behaviors and struggle to build relationships with students (Bonner et al., 2017). Moreover, research has shown that when teachers are not adequately prepared to teach diverse students, cultural incongruence can occur, leading to further disproportionalities and
achievement gaps between white students and students of color (Bonner et al., 2018; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). While culturally responsive classroom management can prove effective in meeting the behavioral and academic needs of students, teachers must first have confidence in their ability to experience success when working with diverse students (Bonner, et al., 2017; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). The problem is that a disproportionate number of non-minority teachers to minority students can lead to academic and behavioral challenges if the teacher does not have the multicultural efficacy and cultural competence to interact positively with students (Bottiani, Bradshaw, and Gregory, 2018).

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study is to examine the relationship between teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. Multicultural efficacy refers to a teacher’s confidence in his or her ability to experience success when working in a multicultural setting, with diverse students (Guyton and Wesche, 2005). Culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy refers to a teacher’s confidence in his or her ability to implement and perform various culturally responsive classroom management tasks (Siwatu, Putman, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2017). Thus, the study will explore whether multicultural efficacy, and the subscales of multicultural efficacy, attitudes and experiences, are predictors of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among secondary teachers working in high-poverty schools.

While researchers have examined multicultural efficacy in preservice teachers and higher education, there is little to no research examining multicultural efficacy as a predictor in culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in the K-12 setting. Moreover, as teachers become aware of their multicultural and culturally responsive classroom management
self-efficacy, they will be more equipped to engage in self-reflection, and employ strategies to meet the needs of diverse students.

**Significance of the Study**

The intent of this study is to determine whether teachers’ multicultural efficacy has any relationship to their culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy, and to determine if teachers’ multicultural efficacy, attitudes, and experiences are predictors of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. With the increasing population of K-12 students of color, it is essential that teachers have a high sense of multicultural efficacy, and confidence in employing culturally responsive classroom management practices. As the majority of public-school teachers in the United States are non-white Hispanic, there is also a need to examine teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding culturally responsive classroom management (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Research has shown that cultural incongruence and low multicultural efficacy can lead to significant ethnic and racial disproportionalities and disparities in achievement data, discipline data, and student placement in programs such as special education and gifted and talented (Bottiani et al., 2018; Bonner, et al., 2018; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). Classroom management that is conducive to ethnically diverse students is an essential component of culturally responsive teaching and an effective means to reducing academic and behavioral disproportionalities among students of color (Bottiani et al., 2018; Siwatu, Putman, & Starker-Glass, 2017).

Much of the research on culturally responsive practices has examined teacher self-efficacy, self-efficacy, and culturally responsive teaching practices in preservice teachers (i.e Djonko-Moore et. al., 2018; Fitchett et al., 2012). However, examining culturally responsive classroom management will provide teachers and school leaders with a practical approach to
meeting the needs of diverse students. Furthermore, the study will provide school and district level leaders with a comprehensive assessment of teachers’ multicultural efficacy and use of culturally responsive classroom management practices to inform school and division level policies, practices, and professional development opportunities. Moreover, as teachers become aware of their multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy, they will be more equipped to engage in self-reflection, and employ strategies to meet the needs of diverse students.

**Research Questions**

The study seeks to determine whether a relationship exists between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. With the increasing percentage of K-12 students of color, it is pertinent for teachers to have high sense of multicultural efficacy and confidence in their ability to employ culturally responsive classroom management strategies. Moreover, this study seeks to provide schools with an understanding of the factors that influence a teacher’s beliefs and practices as it relates to culturally responsive classroom management, and to determine if these factors are predictors of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. Thus, the study will address the following research questions:

**RQ1:** Does teacher experience with diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ2:** Does teacher attitude toward diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ3:** Does multicultural self-efficacy predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers?
Definitions

1. *Cultural proficiency*- A measure of one ability to work effectively in cross-cultural situations by understanding various cultural norms, expectations, and behaviors, and accounting for cultural differences in one’s actions and beliefs (Morreettini et al., 2018).

2. *Culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy*- Classroom management strategies and techniques specifically designed to bring about positive behavioral and academic outcomes ethnically diverse students, by reflecting the characteristics, attributes, and norms of ethnically diverse students (Siwatu et al., 2017).

3. *Culturally responsive teaching*- effective instructional practices and strategies specifically designed to reflect the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students (Gay, 2002).

4. *Disproportionality*- Over- or underrepresentation of a group in a specific category or event, in comparison to the group’s population size (Bottiani et al., 2017; Herzik et al., 2015).

5. *Exclusionary discipline*- Discipline that results in the removal of a student from the classroom or school, such as out-of-school suspension and expulsion (Bottiani et al., 2018).

6. *Multicultural education*- “A democratic approach to teaching and learning that seeks to foster cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies and an interdependent world” (Bennett, Niggle, & Stage, 1990, p.244).
7. **Multicultural efficacy**- An individual’s belief and confidence in their own ability to bring about positive outcomes in multicultural settings or when working with ethnically diverse groups (Guyton and Wesche, 2005).

8. **Self-Efficacy**- An individual’s belief and confidence in their own ability to bring about a positive change or outcome in a given task or situation (Bandura, 2001).
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This literature review provides a theoretical understanding of multicultural efficacy, as well as related literature on multicultural education, teacher self-efficacy, culturally responsive teaching, and culturally responsive classroom management practices. The review of the literature highlights the current research pertaining to the study and demonstrates the need for further studies relating to multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management. Moreover, a theoretical understanding of Bandura’s (2001) social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory provide a framework for the study and a basis for the research methods. Through a synthesis of the literature, connections arise between teacher efficacy, multicultural efficacy, and the importance of culturally responsive classroom management practices in meeting the academic and behavioral needs of diverse students. After reviewing the current literature, a gap in the research will emerge and validate the significance of the study, and the need to understand the relationship between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management.

Theoretical Framework

The use of a theoretical framework is essential in quantitative research. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), theories provide a foundation and framework for explaining and interpreting the results of research. Moreover, a theoretical framework lends itself to the development of hypotheses and research questions (Gall et al., 2007). In this study, social cognitive theory highlights the value of an individual’s attitudes and experiences in understanding the relationship between variables (Bandura, 2001). Moreover, both social cognitive theory and self-efficacy provide a basis for understanding the relationship between
teachers’ attitudes, beliefs, and practices (Bandura, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 2001). Thus, these theories can help the researcher understand how teachers’ experiences, attitudes, and beliefs may relate to their sense of multicultural efficacy and willingness to employ culturally responsive classroom management practices to meet the needs of diverse learners.

**Social Cognitive Theory**

Social cognitive theory provides a framework for the research by theorizing the relationship between one’s beliefs and one’s practices and outcomes. According to Bandura (2000), social cognitive theory affirms an agentic perspective in which individuals are producers of experiences and shapers of events. To be an agent is to be intentional about producing a desired outcome based on one’s actions (Bandura, 2001). Thus, social cognitive theory asserts the idea that people can shape their experiences through their thinking and actions (Bandura, 2001). Likewise, the social and physical environment people are a part of, heavily influences their personal experiences. For this reason, it is important for researchers to consider the experience of the participants, as well as the environmental factors that contributed to those experiences.

Furthermore, there are three distinct modes of agency within the social cognitive theory: direct personal agency, proxy agency, and collective agency (Bandura, 2001). Direct personal agency is essential in understanding self-efficacy, as it focuses on the ability to exercise control over the quality and outcome of one’s life (Bandura, 2001). Efficacy beliefs shape a person’s perspective and dictates whether a person perceives an expected outcome as positive or negative. Through direct personal agency, a person is intentional about choosing their environments, shaping their outcomes, and controlling their learning (Bandura, 2000).
In contrast, proxy agency considers the aspects of a person’s experiences for which they do not exercise control. Through proxy agency, a person may utilize an outside entity or mediator to influence their well-being and sense of security. In addition, proxy agency considers the need for interdependence and social interaction in order to accomplish specific tasks or achieve desired outcomes. It is an essential component of the research, as it allows researchers to consider the external factors and influences that help to shape a teacher’s beliefs, actions, and experiences (Bandura, 2001). Moreover, proxy agency helps researchers consider the factors that mediate certain effects and outcomes within the study.

Different from personal and proxy agency, collective agency considers a group’s shared belief in their collective ability to bring about change or produce specific outcomes (Bandura, 2001). Collective agency is not the sum of individual efficacy beliefs, but rather the collective performance, transactions, and dynamics of a given group (Bandura, 2001). Thus, collective agency is a valuable component of the research, as it sheds light on the influence that social interactions and networks have on individual teacher efficacy. Moreover, collective agency considers how social relationships, culture within groups, and systems within schools contribute to the beliefs and actions of teachers (Bandura, 2001). As the research considers the beliefs and actions of teachers, social cognitive theory provides the framework and lens to interpret those beliefs and actions.

Thus, the basic premise of social cognitive theory is that people learn through their experiences, as well as through observing the experiences and actions of others. Moreover, people play a role in their own self-development, self-renewal, and adaptation over time. Thus, key constructs of social cognitive theory, such as self-efficacy and motivation, provide a basis
for understanding teacher motivation and the actions teachers take in order to produce positive outcomes within their students.

**Self-Efficacy**

Self-efficacy captures an individual’s beliefs about their ability to produce a desired result or have an impact in a specific area (Bandura, 1993; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy 2001). According to Bandura (2000), people will have little motivation to act unless they believe that their actions can produce desired results and reduce undesired results. Moreover, people have a role to play in their personal development, adaptation, and self-renewal (Bandura, 2001). For this reason, a person’s beliefs and self-regulations form the medium through which they exercise personal influence. Thus, the social cognitive theory helps to guide the research and the understanding that a teacher’s beliefs and efficacy can be a powerful tool in predicting a teacher’s practices and outcomes.

**Teacher self-efficacy.** Rooted in Bandura’s self-efficacy, Tschannen-Moran et al. (2001) describe teacher self-efficacy as a teacher’s assessment of his or her ability to bring about a positive change in students who were previously disengaged or unmotivated. Many studies have demonstrated how a teacher’s beliefs about teaching and learning directly affect their instructional practices and student outcomes (Djonko-Moore et al., 2018; Doménech-Betoret, 2006; Gordon, 2001; Lotter, Smiley, Thompson, and Dickenson, 2016; Siwatu & Starker, 2010; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001). As studies have shown, teacher self-efficacy is highly related to teacher burnout, job-related stress, and job satisfaction. Moreover, teachers across various grade levels experience less work-related stress and burnout when they have a higher sense of self-efficacy (Barouch, Adesopea, & Schroeder, 2013; Doménech-Betoret, 2006; Robertson & Dunsmuir, 2013). While teacher self-efficacy has proven to be an important factor in the
academic achievement of students (Lotter et al., 2016; Tchannen-Moran et al., 2001; Barouch et al., 2013), there is a need to further research the impact of ethnically diverse classrooms on teacher self-efficacy (Geerlings, Thijs, & Verkuyten, 2018; Siwatu & Starker, 2010; Tucker et al., 2005). In a recent study, Geerlings et al. (2018) found that teachers felt less self-efficacious when interacting with ethnic minority students in comparison to ethnic majority students. Teachers also had a more frequent tendency to mishandle problem behaviors in ethnic minority students in comparison to ethnic majority students (Geerlings et al., 2018). Additionally, several studies have found that teachers tend to exemplify biases in their expectations of minority students and view their relationships with minority students less favorable in comparison to majority students (Lotter et al., 2016; Tenebaum & Ruck, 2007; van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten & Holland, 2010). For this reason, there is a need to further the understanding of how teachers’ self-efficacy levels differ when interacting with minority students versus majority students. Thus, the present study will not only consider teacher self-efficacy, but also consider teacher self-efficacy in the context of multicultural education and multicultural efficacy.

**Collective teacher efficacy.** In the same manner, a number of studies have shown the impact of collective teacher efficacy on student achievement and positive teacher and student outcomes (Donohoo, 2018; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000; Hattie, 2016; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Collective teacher efficacy refers to the shared beliefs teachers hold about their ability to bring about positive outcomes through their collective actions (Donohoo 2018; Hattie, 2016). When teachers hold the belief that their shared actions can bring about a positive change, they are more likely to experience greater job satisfaction and commitment to the teaching profession (Donohoo, 2018; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000; Hattie, 2016; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Further, they are more likely to promote students’ emotional engagement and have
positive attitudes toward students with behavioral and academic challenges (Donohoo, 2018; Ramos, Silva, Pontes, Fernandez, & Nina, 2014). Various studies have linked the relationship between collective teacher efficacy and the understanding of individual teacher self-efficacy (Donohoo, 2018; Goddard et al., 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Collective teacher efficacy contributes to teachers’ openness to trying new approaches to meet the needs of students. Collective teacher efficacy can also help school leaders consider the systems, networks, and cultures within their school that influence not just the collective beliefs among their teachers, but the individual teacher beliefs as well. As the present study reveals opportunities for schools to develop their teachers in the areas of culturally responsive practices and multicultural efficacy, collective teacher efficacy may provide a pathway for school leaders to strengthen individual teacher self-efficacy and compel their teachers to be more responsive in meeting the needs of their students.

**Multicultural Education**

The theory of multicultural education first emerged in the United States following the 1960’s Civil Rights Movement and the desegregation of schools (Banks, 2013). Previously referred to as ethnic studies and multiethnic studies, multicultural education seeks to reform schools and educational institutions so that students from diverse racial, ethnic, gender, and social groups can experience educational equality (Banks, 2013). Moreover, Bennett, Niggle, and Stage (1990) define multicultural education as “a democratic approach to teaching and learning that seeks to foster cultural pluralism within culturally diverse societies and an interdependent world” (p. 244). Thus, the main goal of multicultural education is to reform schools and educational institutions so that students from diverse ethnic and social backgrounds receive an equitable education, with equal opportunities for educational achievement (Banks,
2013; Klein, 1985; Sadker & Sadker, 1982). Furthermore, multicultural education is the effort to produce professional educators who are both committed to the ideals of multicultural education, and competent in their practice of it (Banks, 2013).

As the United States becomes more ethnically diverse, it is essential for educational leaders to understand the most effective and practical methods for reforming the curriculum. Moreover, it is only sensible that curricular resources reflect diversity and encompass a range of experiences and points of views. By the year of 2050, African Americans, Latinos, and Asian Americans will make up a predicted 48 percent of the U.S population (Banks & Banks, 2010). Thus, the changing population is indicative of the need to diversify curricular and teaching resources. The curriculums that were relevant before the 1960’s civil rights era are not the curriculums that are relevant today. Moreover, the curriculums from just a decade ago are not sufficient for the students we have today. Likewise, without reform, the curriculums of today will not be sufficient for the students of tomorrow.

A curriculum that focuses on the experiences of Mainstream Americans has consequences for all students (Banks & Banks, 2010). When a curriculum focuses on the experiences of the majority, it creates a false sense of superiority among white students. The over-portrayal of white citizens in the textbooks, media, and literature misrepresents relationships between races in our society (Banks & Banks, 2010; Ware & Ware, 2012). Moreover, a mainstream curriculum robs all students of the opportunity to share in unique experiences and consider the points of views of others. When we examine content through the eyes and experiences of one race, we often have a skewed view of history. Furthermore, a curriculum that focuses on the majority race may cause other races to feel ignored or irrelevant, and in turn, negatively influence their achievement (Ware & Ware, 2012).
Approaches to curriculum reform. Banks and Banks (2010) proposed four approaches to curriculum reform: contributions approach, additive approach, transformation approach, and the social action approach. The four approaches to curriculum reform illustrate a spectrum of curriculum change and variations in how to diversify the curriculum.

The contributions approach. The contributions approach refers to the insertion of ethnically diverse historical figures and artifacts into the curriculum in an effort to highlight their similarities to mainstream historical figures and contributions to society. With this approach, historical figures who are controversial or promote ideologies that are contrary to mainstream figures are seldom included in the curriculum. Thus, a contributions approach to curriculum reform would insert figures such as Martin Luther King Jr. and Rosa Parks during a civil rights unit rather than figures like Malcolm X and Marcus Garvey. While the contributions approach seeks to diversify the curriculum, the mainstream curriculum remains intact and unaltered in this approach. Moreover, the contributions approach often disregards key information related to diverse ethnic groups.

The additive approach. The additive approach to multicultural curriculum reform integrates content, concepts, themes, and perspectives relating to a diversity of ethnic groups, into the curriculum, without changing its existing content and structure (Suriel & Atwater, 2012; Banks, 2002). Thus, the additive approach seeks to be inclusive of a variety of ethnic groups, without completely transforming the purpose and meaning of the original curriculum. For example, the additive approach would not call a unit on Westward Expansion “Invasions from the East” although the Natives inhabiting the West during this time may have seen Westward expansion in this way. Thus, much of the United States history is lost when writers tell history through the lens of the conqueror rather than the conquered, victimized, or powerless (Banks &
Banks, 2010). For this reason, the additive approach usually results in viewing ethnic cultures through the perspectives of mainstream culture, and consequently does not give a true voice to individuals who are not the majority ethnic group. Further, if teachers do not have the pedagogical knowledge or background information of a diversity of cultures they could unintentionally misinterpret historic events, concepts, or themes, from other cultures (Banks & Banks, 2010).

**Transformation approach.** The transformation approach is a more comprehensive and holistic approach to multicultural curriculum reform. According to Gorski (2001), “the goal of multicultural curriculum transformation is for a diversity of voices, experiences, and perspectives to be woven seamlessly with current frameworks of knowledge, providing fuller understandings of all subjects” (p. 43). Thus, the transformation approach to curriculum reform seeks to move the curriculum away from a euro- and male-centric point-of-view, to a balanced multicultural point-of-view (Gorski, 2001). While the contributions and additive approaches seek to maintain the current structure and content of the curriculum, the transformation approach seeks to revise the current structure and content of the curriculum (Banks & Banks, 2010). Thus, the transformation approach does not seek to maintain the points of views of mainstream thinkers. The transformation approach seeks to provide different points of views and interpretations of the content, by changing the basic assumptions of the curriculum (Banks & Banks, 2010). Further, the transformation approach allows diverse cultures to tell their own stories through the lens of their own culture, rather than the lens of a mainstream worldview (Banks & Banks, 2010).

**Social action approach.** The social action approach includes all of the elements of the transformation approach but takes the approach a step further to include social action and real-world problem solving (Banks & Banks, 2010). With the social action approach, the curriculum would require students to analyze real-world problems and issues connected to the curriculum,
and then make decisions and actions plans to address the issues. The major goals of this approach are to educate students in the social and political factions of society, and to help students develop skills in problem solving and social critique. Through the social action approach, students have the opportunity to recognize, understand, and address discrimination, prejudices, and social inequities; thus, becoming well-rounded citizens who are adept in multicultural issues.

**Multicultural efficacy.** The theory of multicultural efficacy is rooted in both the theories of multicultural education and self-efficacy (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). As teachers seek to meet the needs of all students, it is important to consider how confident teachers are in their ability to diversify the curriculum through multicultural education. Thus, the concept of multicultural efficacy seeks to capture teachers’ beliefs and ideologies relating to the implementation and practices of multicultural education (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Beliefs play an important role in a teacher’s ability to engage in multicultural education. According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), a teacher’s effectiveness in reaching minority students is based on a teacher’s beliefs and priorities related to multicultural education. Thus, multicultural efficacy provides insight into the beliefs teachers hold about their ability to be successful in a multicultural setting (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Furthermore, multicultural efficacy moves beyond self-efficacy, as it does not just measure a teacher’s beliefs that they can make a difference in the lives of their students, but it measures a teacher’s belief about the difference they can make in the lives of culturally and ethnically diverse students. Thus, the theory of multicultural education and multicultural efficacy add value to the current research by broadening the understanding of multicultural efficacy in relation to a teacher’s ability to be responsive to the needs of diverse ethnic groups.
**Cultural Proficiency**

Undergirding the current research is the idea that teachers must become culturally proficient to build their sense of multicultural efficacy, and ability to employ culturally responsive teaching practices in the classroom. In essence, culture is varied and difficult to observe, as it involves the values, beliefs, and worldviews of a particular group that are often unconscious (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016). While ethnic identity is a significant predictor of values, beliefs, and worldviews, significant variations still exist within individuals of the same ethnic group (Desmet, Ortuño-Ortín, & Wacziarg, 2017). Thus, teachers must become competent in their understanding of culture, while acknowledging that even students of the same ethnic group can have varying needs and cultural norms (Desmet et al., 2017).

According to Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, and Curran (2004) “multicultural competence is directly related to an understanding of one’s own motives, beliefs, biases, values, and assumptions about human behavior” (Weinstein et al., 2004, p. 29). Thus, cultural proficiency involves developing cultural skills and beliefs that are responsive to and mindful of cultural differences and similarities (Nelson & Guerra, 2012). Teachers who are culturally proficient view cultural diversity as an asset and intentionally utilizes cultural differences as a means to enrich learning and engage students (Nelson & Guerra, 2012). Moreover, culturally proficient teachers understand and value the cultural dynamics of race, language, socioeconomic status, and gender. Furthermore, culturally proficient teachers do not just hold beliefs that support diversity, but rather is willing to act on behalf of underrepresented cultures and support equitable practices and policies that benefit culturally diverse students (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016). Culturally proficient teachers are also aware of changes in cultural dynamics and are sensitive to the norms, values, and beliefs that are significant to both the dominant culture and
underrepresented cultures (Linsey & Lindsey, 2016). As the concept of cultural proficiency is considered, it is important to recognize cultural proficiency as an ever-developing goal, rather than a fixed destination. As teachers interact with a range of cultural groups, their level of cultural proficiency is likely to move up and down the cultural proficiency continuum, in relation to their experiences and knowledge of a particular cultural group.

**Barriers to cultural proficiency.** Recognizing and acknowledging the barriers to cultural proficiency is a necessary step in becoming more culturally proficient. As teachers strive to make a positive change toward becoming more culturally proficient, barriers are the forces that hinder professional growth and foster resistance to change (Lindsey & Lindsey 2016). Barriers have the potential to affect the attitudes, behaviors, policies, and practices of teachers (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016). Moreover, when teachers do not address the barriers in their daily lives, they may unconsciously embrace a deficit concept and belief about students and their cultures (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016). According to Lindsey and Lindsey (2016), the forces that serve as systemic barriers include:

- Being resistant to change and holding the belief that deficits exist within students who are unsuccessful, rather than in the current system.
- Having an unawareness of the need for personal change, while emphasizing the need for those who are unsuccessful in the current system to change.
- Failing to acknowledge the existence of systematic and institutionalized oppression such as racism, sexism, and systematic injustices.
- Benefiting from privilege within the current systems while being blinded or unaware of the groups that are not benefiting from privilege; and ignoring the impact privilege has on schools.
When teachers do not address the barriers to cultural proficiency, they remain in the harmful categories of the cultural proficiency continuum and fail to move toward cultural competence and proficiency (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016).

**Cultural proficiency continuum.** The cultural proficiency continuum encompasses six categories: cultural destructiveness, cultural incapacity, cultural blindness, cultural pre-competence, cultural competence, and cultural proficiency (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016; Quezada & Alexandrowicz, 2019). Cultural destructiveness is an unhealthy point on the cultural proficiency continuum and involves removing the reference of non-majority cultures from instructional and curricular material (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016; Nelson & Guerra, 2012; Quezada & Alexandrowicz, 2019). Likewise, cultural incapacity is also an unhealthy point on the cultural proficiency continuum and involves making non-majority groups and cultures feel less significant and wrong in their belief systems (Nelson & Guerra, 2016; Ward, 2013). Similarly, cultural blindness is an unhealthy point on the cultural proficiency continuum as it refers to ignoring the status, culture, and experiences of underrepresented groups. Cultural incapacity, blindness, and destructiveness are often the result of compliance-based diversity training that emphasizes tolerance, rather than value and appreciation (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016; Nelson & Guerra, 2012; Ward, 2013). Moreover, the lack of information or misinformation about particular cultural groups often contribute to the development of cultural incapacity, blindness, and destructiveness (Ward, 2013).

In contrast, cultural pre-competence, cultural competence, and cultural proficiency all emphasize equity and respect for diverse cultures and are all healthy points on the continuum (Ward, 2013). When teachers are in the pre-competence stage, they become increasingly aware of their own cultural competence levels (Linsey & Lindsey, 2016; Ward, 2013). The pre-
competence stage is an important point in a teacher’s development, as teachers could move
toward cultural proficiency or regress into cultural blindness, incapacity, or destructiveness
(Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016). In the cultural competence stage, teachers began to demonstrate
inclusivity toward marginalized cultures and communities within their own personal values and
behaviors (Nelson & Guerra, 2012; Quezada & Alexandrowicz, 2019; Ward, 2013). As teachers
develop in their cultural competence, they become more self-reflective, and open to practices
that lead to the success of ethnically and culturally diverse students (Lindsey & Linsey, 2016;
Ward, 2013). Further, in the cultural proficiency stage, teachers move beyond beliefs and began
to demonstrate inclusivity in their actions. At this point, teachers began to advocate for
marginalized cultures, and become more effective in serving the educational need of culturally
diverse students (Lindsey & Lindsey, 2016; Nelson & Guerra, 2012; Quezada & Alexandrowicz,
2019; Ward, 2013). To reach cultural proficiency, teachers must be willing to assess their own
beliefs about culture and be willing to empower diverse cultures through their actions (Lindsey
& Lindsey, 2016). Thus, the goal for all educators is to strive for culturally proficiency so that
practices and procedures within the classroom reflect a range of cultures and effectively meet the
needs of diverse students.

**Culturally Relevant Pedagogy**

Gloria Ladson-Billings (1994) first set the stage for culturally responsive teaching
through the development of *culturally relevant pedagogy*. The theory of culturally relevant
pedagogy acknowledges, celebrates, and empowers the cultural identities of students and utilizes
students’ cultural identities as a means to learning (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Ladson-Billings
(1994) first developed the theory to address the specific concerns associated with educating
teachers for success with African American students. Thus, the goal of culturally relevant
pedagogy is to redefine the meaning of student success, inclusivity, and cultural compatibility. According to Ladson-Billings (1994) student success is not determined by how well a student demonstrates achievement in the context of mainstream cultural norms and constructs present in schools. Furthermore, inclusivity and cultural compatibility should not involve making students considered minority by race, ethnicity, social class, or language, “fit” into the construct of those considered majority. Many times, African American students face the dilemma of meeting academic demands and becoming culturally competent. African American students often set aside their own cultural norms to conform to the cultural schemas already set by schools. Thus, research over time has shown that the success of African American students often comes at the expense of their own cultural and psychosocial wellbeing (Fine, 1986; Fordham, 1988; Lindsey and Lindsey, 2016; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 2010).


Ladson-Billings (1994) observed six high achieving classes at predominantly black, low-performing schools. The researcher found that the students in the six classrooms were demonstrating success despite the overall achievement of the schools, because the teachers employed the use of culturally responsive teaching practices to meet the needs of students. In
one instance, the researcher observed a teacher’s use of rap as a means to engage students in poetry (Ladson-Billings, 1994). In another instance, the researcher observed a teacher extending leadership opportunities to a student who typically exhibited behavior problems, in an effort to promote positive behaviors. Ladson-Billings (1994) found that students had positive behavioral and academic outcomes when the teacher used students’ cultural identities as a basis for teaching and learning. Thus, culturally relevant pedagogy affirms that students need the opportunity to maintain their cultural integrity while succeeding academically. Further, when students are encouraged to be themselves in dress, language style, and interactions, while achieving in school, other students are more likely to achieve as well by watching their example (Ladson-Billings, 1994).

**Cultural critique.** The theory of culturally relevant pedagogy enforces the notion of cultural critique. Cultural critique refers to helping students recognize and understand the social and political occurrences in society, so they are able to analyze current social inequities and their causes. To do this however, teachers must first be aware of social inequities and their causes. Thus, there is the implication of professional development and teacher recruitment. Professional development helps teachers become culturally responsive and competent in the sociopolitical happenings of society. Moreover, there is a need to recruit teachers who are willing to engage in the work of cultural critique. Teachers who engage in the work of cultural critique must strive to understand the interactions produced within social relations and to assess how these interactions influence moral character. Thus, culturally responsive teachers are not resistant to identifying the political influences of a student’s community and social world. Culturally responsive teachers are willing to engage students in real-world problems and their society.
Culturally Responsive Teaching

Therefore, to be effective in the multicultural classroom, teachers must have more than content and pedagogical knowledge. Teachers must be able to facilitate learning in a way that is relevant and meaningful to students (Gay, 2000). Thus, the concept of culturally responsive teaching refers to “using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively” (Gay, 2002, p. 106). To be culturally responsive, teachers must understand the values, priorities, and protocols within different cultures that may affect how students behave, learn, and interact (Gay, 2002). Teachers must not rely on biased, distorted, or misrepresented information about cultural groups, but rather information that depicts various cultures in a way that is factual and realistic (Gay, 2002). In addition, teachers must have knowledge of a wide range of contributions of various cultural groups and be able apply this knowledge across a range of content areas and topics (Gay, 2002). Thus, culturally responsive teachers know how to assess the multicultural strengths and weaknesses of curricula and instructional materials and make adjustments to meet the cultural needs of their students (Gay, 2002). Moreover, culturally responsive teachers understand that symbols and images are powerful and are willing to bring multicultural images and resources into the classroom, in order to inspire a positive, self-identify within their students (Gay, 2002).

As the early literature on culturally responsive teaching has shown, students perform better and experience greater academic achievement when taught in a way that connects information to their culture, background, and experiences (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Foster, 1995; Gay, 2000; Hollins, 1996; Kleinfield, 1975; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 1995). Moreover, teachers must have adequate knowledge of contributions and characteristics of different ethnic groups to meet the needs of diverse students (Hollins, King, and Hayman, 1994; King, Hollins, and
Hyman, 1997; Pai, 1990; Smith, 1998). Likewise, the recent literature on culturally responsive practices has also concluded that teachers should create a culture of acceptance and appreciation within their classroom so that all students feel a sense of belonging, regardless of their ethnic backgrounds (Cartledge & Kourea, 2008). Canfield-Davis, Tenuto, Jain, and McCurty (2011) found that students are more engaged in the curriculum when it accurately reflects the student population. Moreover, when the curriculum marginalizes minority groups and lacks a multicultural focus, students are less likely to relate to the content and experience positive learning outcomes (Bottiani et al., 2018; Canfield-Davis et al., 2011; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008).

Thus, teachers can employ culturally responsive practices by incorporating texts and assignments that include people from diverse languages, heritages, geographic locations, and backgrounds (Cramer & Bennett, 2015). Moreover, teachers should emphasize and celebrate the contributions of individuals from various cultures and connect those contributions to the success of our society as a whole. Utilizing strategies such as direct and explicit instruction, modeling, scaffolding, student-led instruction, and feedback are also ways that teachers can be culturally responsive in their practices (Cramer & Bennett, 2015; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008; Fallon et al., 2012). Furthermore, the use of peer tutoring, cooperative learning groups, and interest inventories provides the teacher with a better understanding of the cultures within their classroom, and students with the opportunity to express their own ideas and values (Crammer & Bennett, 2015).

**Culturally Responsive Classroom Management**

Establishing a classroom climate that promotes learning for ethnically diverse students is an essential component in culturally responsive teaching (Bottiani et al., 2018; Gay, 2002). Moreover, effective culturally responsive practices extend beyond curricular and instructional
materials and expands into classroom procedures and management practices. Thus, Weinstein et al. (2004) identifies five components that are essential to culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM): understanding and addressing one’s own ethnocentrism, developing a knowledge of students’ cultural backgrounds, understanding the broader social, economic, and political context of classroom teaching, developing an ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate management strategies; and having a commitment to building caring classrooms.

Understanding and addressing one’s own ethnocentrism involves self-reflection and awareness of one’s own biases (Weinstein et al., 2004). As teachers become mindful of their own ideas about superiority and culture, they can be intentional about their efforts to embrace cultures different from their own and value cultures that are often marginalized (Lindsey & Lindsey 2016; Ward, 2013; Weinstein et al., 2004). Moreover, developing knowledge of students’ cultural backgrounds allows teachers to develop management procedures and practices that are conducive to the success of all students (Weinstein et al., 2004). When teachers understand the cultures that exist within their classroom, they are able to incorporate students’ cultural experiences into the classroom environment and create a greater sense of belonging among diverse ethnic groups (Bottiani et al., 2018; Siwatu et al., 2017; Weinstein et al., 2004). Likewise, understanding the broader social, economic, and political context of classroom teaching can make teachers more effective in engaging students in learning and reducing behavioral problems (Bottiani et al., 2018; Weinstein et al., 2004). Furthermore, as teachers develop an ability and willingness to use culturally responsive management strategies they may be more confident in their ability to bring about positive outcomes in a multicultural setting and have a greater commitment to building caring classrooms (Guyton & Wesche, 2005; Siwatu et al., 2017; Weinstein et al., 2004).
Much of the earlier literature on classroom management and self-efficacy excluded issues relating to ethnically diverse students in a multicultural context (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001). Over time, the research has continued to broaden the understanding of self-efficacy and behavior management by considering the beliefs and expectations teachers to hold about managing classrooms with diverse groups of students (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Barouch, et al., 2014; Dell’Angelo, 2014; Gay, 2010). Thus, the concept of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE) expands the research of Weinstein (2004) and seeks to bridge the gap between culturally responsive classroom management and teacher self-efficacy beliefs (Siwatu et al., 2017).

**Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-efficacy**

CRCMSE refers to an individual’s belief about his or her ability to perform culturally responsive management tasks successfully (Siwatu et al., 2017). In essence, teachers with a higher sense of CRCMSE will be more likely to assess their own beliefs and effectiveness in performing culturally responsive management tasks (Siwatu et al., 2017). The idea that self-efficacy plays a role in culturally responsive classroom management is consistent with the research on self-efficacy and classroom management. Research shows that when teachers take time to assess their own beliefs and to value perspectives other than their own, they are less likely to engage in inequitable disciplinary practices (Cartlege & Kourea, 2008; Peters et al. 2014; Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013). Moreover, teachers with high sense of classroom management self-efficacy are often more successful at maintaining on task student behavior (Gordon, 2001; Main & Hammond, 2008). Additionally, Dell’Angelo (2014) found that when teachers perceive their students have greater obstacles to learning, their students are more likely to demonstrate behavioral and academic challenges, despite if those obstacles to learning
actually exist. Additionally, Almog and Schechtman (2007) found positive correlations between classroom management self-efficacy and the implementation of positive behavior supports, while Gordon (2001) found that lower classroom management self-efficacy was associated with the use of negative consequences and punishments to address behavior.

For this reason, it is essential that teachers understand the importance of utilizing culturally responsive management practices when working with students from ethnically diverse backgrounds. Moreover, teachers must understand how to use culturally responsive classroom management practices to decrease possible managerial and disciplinary problems in a multicultural classroom. Teachers must also be equipped with culturally responsive management skills and have the confidence to employ these skills within their daily management practices (Gay, 2010; Siwatu et al., 2017). When teachers are adequately prepared to work with diverse students, there will likely be fewer misinterpretations of student behavior and instances of discipline problems (Bottiani et al., 2017; Gay, 2010; Siwatu et al., 2017). As the research has shown, teacher beliefs about working with diverse students are an important factor in classroom management and the utilization of culturally responsive management practices. For this reason, there is a need to further the understanding of CRCMSE by exploring literature related to CRCMSE and by examining the relationship between CRCMSE and multicultural efficacy.

**Related Literature**

In a study conducted on elementary and middle school teachers, Larson, Bradshaw, Pas, Rosenberg, and Day-Vines (2018) found that teachers’ use of culturally responsive teaching practices were related to the occurrence of positive student behavior. Additionally, researchers found that “the cumulative use of culturally responsive teaching strategies could prove promising in helping to address the exclusionary discipline crisis” (Larson et al., 2018, p. 163).
Researchers describe these culturally responsive teaching strategies as connecting the curriculum to real world examples, incorporating cultural artifacts, and explaining concepts in a way that is relevant to students (Larson et al., 2018).

In a systematic review of literature relating to culturally responsive practices, Bottiani et al. (2017) found that the research involving interventions to improving culturally responsive practices was insufficient to draw conclusions regarding efficacy, effectiveness, and readiness for implementation. Djonko-Moore, Jiang, and Gibson (2018) suggest that future studies “ask teachers directly about their rationale for their diversity practices or use an experimental design to clarify the effects of multicultural education” (p. 309). Djonko-Moore et al. (2018) also found that higher self-efficacy and higher job satisfaction leads to frequent use of culturally responsive teaching practices to meet the needs of diverse students. Thus, determining whether multicultural efficacy is a predictor of culturally responsive classroom management practices will help to lay the foundation for teacher education and interventions that improve teachers’ culturally responsive management practices.

Disproportionality and Disparities

The need for culturally responsive classroom management is also evident in the research relating to ethnic disproportionalities and disparities in student discipline, achievement, and program placement (Bottiani & Gregory, 2018; Fong, McRoy, & Dettlaff, 2014; Herzik, 2015; Milner, 2015). “Disproportionality” refers to the “ratio between the percentage of persons in a particular racial or ethnic group at a particular decision point or experiencing an event (maltreatment, incarceration, school dropouts) compared to the percentage of the same racial or ethnic group in the overall population” (Fong et al., 2014, p.1). Thus, a disproportionality from overrepresentation occurs when there is a greater percentage of individuals represented in the
specific category than there is in the overall population. Likewise, underrepresentation occurs when there is a fewer percentage of individuals represented in the specific category than there is in a population (Fong et al., 2014; Kunesh & Noltemyer, 2019). Furthermore, disparity refers to unequal treatment and occurs when there is an unequal outcome for different groups in the same circumstance, using the same decision criteria (Fong et al., 2014).

**Discipline gaps.** Racial disproportionalities and disparities are evident in school discipline data across the nation. Significant gaps in the rate in which black and white students receive disciplinary referrals and out-of-school suspensions have been observed in school discipline reports since the 1970s (Bottiani, Bradshaw, & Gregory, 2018). Moreover, the discipline gaps between black and white students first reported in the 1970s has since quadrupled in number (Bottiani et al., 2018). According to the U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights (2016), black children are 3.6 times more likely to receive an out-of-school suspension in preschool, 3.8 times more likely to receive an out-of-school suspension in grades K-12, and 2.2 times more likely to be referred to law enforcement or subject to a school-related arrest. Among K-12 students, 18 percent of black males and 10 percent of black females received an out-of-school suspension in 2013-14, compared to only 5 percent of white males and 2 percent of white females. Barrett, McEachin, Mills, and Valant (2017) examined Louisiana’s statewide discipline data from 2000 to 2013. Barrett et al., (2017) found that a poor black student was 10 percent more likely than a poor white student in the same school, grade, and year to be suspended; and a poor black student was 16 percent more likely to be suspended than a white student who is not eligible for free and reduced meals. These findings are consistent with the discipline data across the United States. According to Milner (2015), mutual respect and positive personal relationships between teachers and students lay the foundation for successful
classroom management and for the reduction of exclusionary discipline in racially diverse, urban schools. Therefore, the research suggests that “cultural differences in assumed expectations and styles of communication, as well as implicit racial, ethnic, cultural, and gender biases, may potentially contribute to disparities in exclusionary discipline rates” (Bottiani et al., 2018, p. 110). Thus, there is a need to determine if culturally relevant classroom management strategies are associated with reducing disproportionate disciplinary actions between African American students and White students (Bottiani et al., 2017; Bottiani & Gregory, 2018), and to examine if multicultural efficacy is a predictor of the use of culturally responsive management strategies.

**Achievement gaps.** Current research on achievement gaps also give evidence to ethnic disproportionalities and disparities. In a study conducted by Paschall, Gershoff, and Kuhfeld (2018), researchers used the time-varying effect model to examine two decades of math and reading achievement among poor and non-poor white, black, and Hispanic students in three age groups: 5-6, 9-10, and 13-14. Researchers found longstanding disparities in reading achievement between poor white and non-poor black kindergarteners, 13–14 year old’s in math, and between 9–10 and 13–14 year old’s (Paschall et al., 2018). Moreover, there were persistent achievement gaps in math between poor Hispanic and white students over a 20-year period (Paschall et al., 2018). Furthermore, achievement gaps exist between non-poor black children and poor white children, indicating advantages that white children may have in comparison to black children, and disparities in resources between ethnic groups (Paschall et al., 2018). Due to the widening ethnic gaps in reading and math achievement, researchers suggest a “greater investment in quality instruction, high-quality teachers, curriculum, and adequate school resources across both of these dimensions, with particular attention paid to predominantly minority areas that are also economically disadvantaged” (Paschall et al., 2018, p.1175). Moreover, researchers consider
poverty, segregation, racism, inequitable distribution of resources, and differences in culture as potential sources of ethnic disparities (Paschall et al., 2018).

**Student placement.** There is also a disproportionate representation of various ethnic groups in programs such as special education and gifted and talented (Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). Students of white and Asian ethnicity make-up nearly 75 percent of all students enrolled in the gifted and talented programs in the U.S. (U.S Department of Education Offices of Civil Rights). As a result, there is a disproportionate representation of black, Hispanic, and American Indian students in gifted and talented programs (U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 2016). Moreover, while black students make-up 16 percent of the national enrollment of K-12 students, the percentage of black students in special education programs are double the percentage of the population size (Herzik, 2015). Additionally, black students are overrepresented among children identified as having a learning disability or emotional disturbance (Fong et al., 2014; U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 2016). Furthermore, congress has acknowledged that white teachers disproportionately recommend minority students for special education because of the cultural gaps that exists between black students and white teachers (Herzik, 2015; U.S Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 2014). In addition, Herzik (2015) found that teachers who have a different cultural background from their students tend to misinterpret cultural cues as evidence of intellectual and emotional disability and justification for the placement of minority students in special education (Herzik, 2015).

**Cultural Incongruence**

Recent research on cultural incongruence and mismatch has tried to capture the racial, ethnic, and cultural biases that often times contribute to the disparities observed among minority
and majority ethnic groups. According to Fong et al. (2014), “services that are embedded with ideas from the majority culture can be limited by a number of factors: conceptual mismatches, language barriers, differing values, or differences in the meaning and manifestation of emotions, each of which can lead to poor outcomes” (p. 8). Moreover, cultural mismatch theory proposes that inequalities occur when the cultural norms in mainstream institutions do not match the cultural norms among underrepresented ethnic groups (Bonner, Warren, & Jiang, 2018; Stephens and Townsend, 2015; Stephens, Fryberg, Markus, Johnson, & Covarrubias, 2012; Stephens, Townsend, Markus, & Phillips, 2012).

Currently, 82 percent of public-school teachers in the United States are non-Hispanic white, and only 21 percent of the teachers entering the workforce are teachers of color. Yet, students of color make-up 40 percent of the students enrolled in K-12 public education, in the United States; a number expected to increase 10 percentage points by the year 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). Gershenson, Hart, Lindsay, and Papageorge (2017) found that a black male student is significantly less likely to drop out and more likely to attend a four-year college if he has at least one black teacher in the third, fourth, or fifth grade. Moreover, a black male who is economically disadvantaged is 40 percent less likely to drop out of high school if he is exposed to at least one black teacher in elementary school (Gershenson et al., 2017). These statistics imply that students may perform better when they have a teacher who is able to be culturally responsive to their needs. Therefore, the need to train teachers in the use of culturally responsive classroom management practices is essential. Teachers must know how to build relationships with diverse students and how to employ culturally responsive strategies to meet the needs of ethnically diverse students.
Equity in Education

Blankstein, Noguera, & Kelly (2016) sought to address the disparities and disproportionalities often caused by cultural incongruence through the concept of “equity in education”. Equity in education involves a commitment to ensuring that every student receives what he or she needs to be successful (Blankstein et al., 2016). Moreover, equity considers both the academic and social needs of all students, and the practices and procedures that need to be in place to ensure that students have their needs met. Furthermore, researchers have identified three domains of equity that contribute to positive educational outcomes and opportunities for students of diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds. The three domains of equity include: (1) the design of the education system, including staffing and curriculum, (2) the educational practices used within classrooms and across school systems, and (3) the distribution of resources such as time, money, and human capital (Bishop & Noguera, 2019; Blankstein et al., 2016; Simon, Malgorzata, & Beatriz, 2007).

The design of the education system through curriculum and staffing are important to the current research because there is a need for curriculum materials and resources that are culturally responsive (Bottiani et al., 2017, Siwatu et al., 2017). Moreover, teachers need to understand the best way to utilize and modify curricular materials and resources to address the needs of culturally and ethnically diverse students (Larson et al., 2018). The educational practices used within the classroom and across school systems are also important factors in the current research, as the research examines the use of culturally responsive management practices within schools and classrooms. Further, the distribution of resources such as time, money, and human capital may be factors that contribute to teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy and use of culturally responsive classroom management practices.
Education policy. While equity in education has been a goal of public education for many years, recent research shows that US education policy has not been effective in reducing the academic disparities and disproportionalities between ethnic groups (Bishop & Noguera, 2019; Bottiani et al., 2018; Paschall et al., 2018). Moreover, there is little evidence to show that schools in America have taken an organized approach to meeting the academic and social needs of all students, or been provided with the structures, resources, and practices to truly achieve equity (Bishop & Noguera, 2019). Rather, decades of research has shown that public schools continue to manifest evidence of inequality based on race, class, culture, and language (Banks, 2013; Barton & Coley, 2010; Bishop & Noguera, 2019; Bottiani et al., 2018; Klein, 1985; Ladson-Billings, 1994). While race is a known variable in the manifestation of educational disparities and disproportionalities, most educational policies have been unsuccessful in addressing the presence of structural racism and discrimination in schools and communities (Bishop & Noguera, 2019; Bonilla-Silva, 2017). Further, US education policies such as the No Child Left Behind Act 2001 (NCLB) have even contributed to disparities in achievement among minority students by narrowly focusing on academic achievement on standardized tests while ignoring the social and emotional needs of students; and the traumatic effects of poverty (Bishop & Noguera, 2019). Moreover, US education policies that are “race neutral” tend to ignore the inequities in access to resources and opportunities that consistently leave low-income, students of color at a disadvantage (Bishop & Noguera, 2019). When educators do not have a clear understanding of the systematic and structural causes of disparities in academic achievement among students of color, they may be unable to put effective practices in place to meet the needs of these students (Bishop & Noguera, 2019; Bottiani et al., 2018). Likewise, educators may feel less efficacious in their ability to impact students of color when they do not understand why
certain gaps in achievement between majority and minority students. Thus, the goal of the current research is to gain a better understanding of the factors that contribute to teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy and their willingness to employ culturally responsive management practices to meet the needs of students. Moreover, the current research can provide schools and policy makers with more clarity on the types of policies and procedures needed to build teachers’ multicultural efficacy and capacity to be more culturally responsive to the needs of their students.

Summary

Between 2000 and 2015, the percentage of white students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools decreased from 61 to 49 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). In contrast, the percentage of Hispanic students enrolled in public schools increased from 16 to 26 percent, and the number of students enrolled who were Asian/Pacific Islander increased from 4 to 5 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). Thus, by 2024, students of color will make up about 56% of the student population (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Yet, the demographics of the teacher population is much different. Currently, 82% of public-school teachers in the United States are non-Hispanic white, and only 21% of the teachers entering the workforce are teachers of color (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

The changing population is indicative of the need for culturally responsive classroom management practices. When there is cultural mismatch between teachers and students, teachers may sometimes misinterpret student behaviors, and struggle to build relationships with students. Moreover, when teachers are not adequately prepared to teach diverse students, cultural incongruence can occur, leading to disproportionalities and achievement gaps between white students and students of color (Bonner et al., 2018; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). Moreover,
as the student population across the nation becomes increasingly diverse, the need for teachers to have a high sense of multi-culturally efficacy is more important than ever. When teachers feel confident in their ability to move beyond culturally responsive teaching to culturally responsive classroom management, they promote positive behavioral and academic outcomes for their students (Bonner, et al., 2018; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). Therefore, it is essential that teachers recognize their level of multicultural efficacy, and their confidence in implementing culturally responsive classroom management to meet the needs of all students.

In order for teachers to develop a sense of multicultural efficacy, teachers must first have a sense of their own cultural awareness. Teachers must be able to identify their level of cultural awareness and make strides toward cultural proficiency. As teachers began to reflect on their beliefs about cultural diversity, they will begin to develop their cultural competency and move forward on the continuum toward cultural proficiency. As teachers make strides to become culturally proficient, their focus will shift toward action and advocacy for marginalized cultural groups. As a result, they will be better equipped to meet the needs of culturally diverse students and employ culturally responsive teaching and management practices.

Moreover, as disproportionalities and disparities continue to arise between black and white and Hispanic and white students, teachers must understand how to employ culturally responsive classroom management practices to meet the academic and behavioral needs of students. Much of the research on culturally responsive practices has examined teacher self-efficacy, self-efficacy, and culturally responsive teaching practices in preservice teachers (i.e Djonko-Moore et. al., 2018; Fitchett et al., 2012). There is little to no research examining multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among in-
service teachers. Thus, there is a gap in the literature and a need to explore the relationship between culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy and multicultural efficacy.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This study examined the relationship between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE) by determining if there is a predictive relationship between teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy and their sense of CRCMSE. This chapter presents the study design, followed by the research questions and hypotheses. An explanation of the guiding research questions and hypotheses clarify the problem and purpose statement presented in the study. Moreover, this chapter includes a description of participants and setting, instrumentation, and procedures for data collection. The chapter concludes with a description of the data analysis that leads to the key findings.

Design

The purpose of this correlational study is to examine teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy in relation to their sense of CRCMSE. Multicultural efficacy is the belief a teacher has about his or her ability to be effective in a multicultural setting with students from diverse backgrounds (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). CRCMSE is a pedagogical approach that guides the management decisions a teacher makes as it relates to culturally responsive teaching and management practices (Siwatu, Putman, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran 2004). The correlational research design is appropriate as the researcher will measure teachers’ sense of multicultural efficacy and CRCMSE and determine if a relationship exists between the two variables. According to Creswell (2015), correlational research designs measure the relationship, tendencies, and patterns between two or more variables (Creswell, 2015). The independent, predictor variables will be measured in categories based on the components of multicultural efficacy: experience with diversity, attitude toward diversity, and multicultural self-efficacy (Guyton and Wesche, 2005). The dependent, criterion variable in the
study is the sense of CRCMSE among teachers. The relationship between the predictor variables (experiences, attitudes, multicultural self-efficacy) and the dependent variable, CRCMSE, will be examined to determine if multicultural efficacy is a predictor of CRCMSE.

**Research Questions**

The study seeks to determine whether a relationship exists between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. With the increasing percentage of K-12 students of color, it is pertinent for teachers to have high sense of multicultural efficacy and confidence in their ability to employ culturally responsive classroom management strategies. Moreover, this study seeks to provide schools with an understanding of the factors that influence a teacher’s beliefs and practices as it relates to culturally responsive classroom management, and to determine if these factors are predictors of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. Thus, the study addressed the following research questions:

**RQ1:** Does teacher experience with diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ2:** Does teacher attitude toward diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ3:** Does multicultural self-efficacy predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers?

**Hypotheses**

**H_{01}**: Experience with diversity will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.
**H₀2:** Attitude toward diversity will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.

**H₀3:** Multicultural self-efficacy will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.

**Participants and Setting**

**Population**

Convenience sampling was used to target full-time K-12 teachers within a large, suburban school division in Virginia. The division was selected because it is one of the largest divisions in Virginia, consisting of 38 elementary schools (grades K-5), 12 middle schools (grades 6-8), 11 high schools (grades 9-12) and a technical center. The school division was also selected because it serves over 62,000 students representing diverse racial and ethnic groups: 48.3% White, 25.4% Black, 17.6% Hispanic, 5% multiple races, 3% Asian, and 1% American Indian and Native Hawaiian (Virginia School Quality Profile, 2018). Thirty-nine percent of the students are eligible to receive free and reduced school meals based on Virginia’s guidelines for poverty determination (Virginia School Quality Profile, 2018). It was expected that the number of participants would exceed 59, the minimum number of participants required to achieve a medium effect size, with a statistical power of .7 (70%) at the .05 alpha level (Gall et al., 2007).

Currently 79% of teachers in Virginia are white, 11% are black, 2% are Hispanic, 2% are one or more races, and 6% did not report as any of the aforementioned races (VDOE, 2017). With the high percentage of minority students enrolled in the targeted school division, and the racial disparity among teachers in Virginia, the school division is an appropriate setting for
examining the relationship between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management.

Sample

The final sample of teacher participants included 219 females, 17 males, 2 gender variant/non-conforming, 2 self-identified as other gender, and 1 preferring not to disclose gender. 179 of the participants were White, 44 Black, 10 Hispanic or Latino, 6 Multiracial, and 1 self-identified other. The sample only included full-time classroom teachers. 58 teachers had more than 20 years of experience, 85 teachers had between 10 and 20 years of experience, 69 teachers had between 3-9 years of experience, and 29 teachers had less than 3 years of experience. Most of the sample population were white females with 10 to 20 years of experience.

The sample of teachers was taken from various Title I elementary schools and a Title I middle school within the division. Title I, is a provision within the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) that provides federal grant funds to schools with a large portion of students from low-income families (NCES, 2019). A school is considered Title I if 40% or more of the student population are from low-income families (Virginia Department of Education, 2020).

Instrumentation

Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES)

The Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) assessed the predictor variables, (experiences, attitudes, and multicultural efficacy) among the study’s participants. Guyton and Wesche (2005) developed the MES to assess teachers’ experiences with diversity, attitudes regarding diversity, and efficacy in their ability to be successful in multicultural settings. Moreover, the MES was designed to capture “multicultural teacher education dimensions of intercultural experiences, minority group knowledge, attitudes about diversity, and knowledge of teaching skills in multicultural settings” (p. 23). The MES was first piloted among 665 undergraduate and
graduate teacher education students from various regions across the United States. In a two-stage data analysis of the participants’ responses, the MES scale was reduced from 164 items to 80 items in the first stage, and 80 items to 35 items in the second stage (Guyton ad Wesche, 2005). Researchers deleted items from the scale that did not demonstrate a strong Cronbach’s alpha value or internal validity. The final and current version of the MES is a 35-item, Likert scale self-report instrument, which consists of three subscales: experience with diversity (7 items), attitudes regarding diversity (7 items), and efficacy (20 items) (Appendix A). The last question included in the MES (Item 35) classifies participants according to their view of multicultural teaching (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). The results from this item was not included in the final multicultural efficacy score.

**Reliability.** According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), the multicultural efficacy scale demonstrated a Cronbach’s alpha of .89, with subscale alphas of .78 for experiences, .72 for attitude, and .93 for efficacy (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Internal validity of the scale was assessed using a confirmatory factory analysis. The MES demonstrated strong reliability and validity based on the confirmatory factor and reliability analysis (Guyton & Wesche).

In a study conducted on teacher self-efficacy, Nadelson et al., (2012) reported the MES subscales to have Cronbach alpha values of .76 for experiences, .68 for attitude, and .91 for efficacy. Nadelson et al. (2012) reported the internal reliability of the MES instrument to have a Cronbach’s alpha of .89.

In a study examining multicultural efficacy and attitudes, Strickland (2018) reported Cronbach alpha values of .79 for experiences, .65 for attitude, and .95 for efficacy. Strickland (2018) reported an internal reliability of .91, which is consistent with previous research. Based on previous research, the MES is a useful tool in measuring teachers’ multicultural efficacy.
In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha was .79 for experiences, .60 for attitude, and .96 for efficacy which indicates an internal reliability consistent with previous studies.

**Measuring experiences with diversity.** The experiences with diversity subscale of MES (Subscale A) addressed RQ1 by measuring teachers’ experience with diversity. The experience with diversity subscale contains questions such as “as a child, I played with people different from me” and “a diverse person was one of my role models when I was younger”. Guyton and Wesche (2005) recommended assigning numerical values between 1 and 4 to each response. For the experiences with diversity subscale, the possible responses were: A=Never, B=Rarely, C=Occasionally, and D=Frequently. Thus, “A” was assigned a value of 1, “B” was assigned a value of 2, “C” was assigned a value of 3, and “D” was assigned a value of 4. Guyton and Wesche (2005) noted that the experiences subscale should not be included when scoring multicultural efficacy, but rather used for comparison. In the current study, the experiences subscale was used to assess if a relationship exists between experiences with diversity and CRCMSE. The current study did not include scores from the experience subscale when calculating multicultural efficacy.

**Measuring attitudes toward diversity.** The attitude subscale of MES (Subscale B) addressed RQ2 by measuring teachers’ attitude toward diversity. The attitude subscale contains affirmative statements such as, “teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom” and “discussing ethnic traditions and beliefs in school leads to disunity and arguments between students from different cultures”. The possible responses to the attitude subscale scale were: A=Strongly Disagree, B=Disagree Somewhat, C=Agree Somewhat, and D=Agree Strongly. Responses were given the following numerical
values: A=1, B=2, C=3, and D=4. According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), a score of 1 or 2 on an item is a low score, a score of 3 is average, and a score of 4 is a high. Moreover, total subscale scores can range between 7 and 28. The closer the subscale to total to 28, the more positive the attitude toward diversity (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). As recommended by Guyton and Wesche (2005), items that reflected negative attitudes toward diversity were reverse coded.

Measuring multicultural efficacy. The multicultural efficacy subscale addressed RQ3 and provided a measure of multicultural efficacy. The efficacy subscale contains statements such as “I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups” and “I can provide instructional activities to help students develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations”. The possible responses on the efficacy subscale were: a) I do not believe I could do this very well; b) I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me; c) I believe I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare; and d) I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do. Based on the recommendations of Guyton and Wesche (2005), responses were given the following numerical values: A=1, B=2, C=3, and D=4. According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), scores between 0 and 54 are low, scores between 55 and 66 are average, and scores between 67 and 80 are high. The researcher obtained permission to use the MES instrument from the instrument’s developers (see Appendix A).

CRCMSE Scale

The CRCMSE scale was used to assess the criterion variable, culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in the study’s participants. Siwatu et al. (2015) designed the CRCMSE scale to obtain self-efficacy information from both pre-service and in-service teachers regarding their ability to implement and perform various culturally responsive classroom management tasks. The CRCMSE scale was developed in accordance with
recommended guidelines of Bandura (2006) for developing self-efficacy assessment instruments. The first draft of the CRCMSE scale was administered to 30 in-service and preservice teachers through a pilot study (Siwatu et al., 2015). Following the data collection from the pilot study, items on the scale were omitted or reworded for accuracy and clarity (Siwatu, et al., 2015). The final draft of the CRCMSE scale was administered to 380 preservice and in-service teachers in North Carolina and Texas to assess the psychometric properties of the scale. Based on the data collected through the initial validation study, the researchers calculated an average score ($M = 80.73; SD = 11.53$) on the CRCMSE scale (Siwatu et al., 2015).

The CRCMSE scale contains 35 “I am able to” questions in which the participant self-reports on whether or not they are able to perform the task described, on a scale from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident) (Appendix B). Furthermore, the scale describes teachers’ confidence in implementing management tasks associated with culturally responsive teaching practices and contains phrases such as, “I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom” and “I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.” According to Siwatu (2017), the closer the score to 3500, the higher the confidence. Thus, scores between 0-1166 may indicate less confidence, scores between 1167-2333 may indicate medium/average confidence, and scores between 2334-3500 may indicate high confidence.

**Reliability.** The CRCMSE scale demonstrated strong internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha value of .96 (Siwatu et al., 2015). Validity of the scale was determined through a Pearson product moment correlation of two existing scales: Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) Scale (Siwatu, 2007) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSE) Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The results indicated a strong, positive
correlation between the CRCMSE and CRTSE scale ($r = .77$, $n = 370$, $p < .001$) and a moderate, positive correlation between the CRCMSE and TSE Scales ($r = .51$, $n = 379$, $p < .001$). Thus, the CRCMSE demonstrated a strong construct validity based on the correlational analysis between the scales. In the current study, the CRCMSE scale demonstrated a Cronbach’s alpha value of .97 indicated strong internal reliability and a value consistent with previous studies.

According to Siwatu et al. (2015) the CRCMSE scale is useful in studies relating to culturally responsive classroom management because the scale assesses aspects of classroom management that existing scales do not. Duncan (2017) utilized the CRCMSE scale to examine the culturally responsive practices among 15 elementary educators in a focus group study. Based on the data collected, the participants indicated a mean score of 81.55 per question, equating to a total mean score of 2854.25 on the CRCMSE scale (Duncan, 2017). Santiago-Rosario (2019) utilized the CRCMSE scale in a study examining the relationship between a teacher’s culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy and their tendency to administer office disciplinary referrals. Based on the responses to the CRCMSE scale, the researcher calculated a per question average score ($M = 73.11; SD = 17.29$), equating to a total mean score ($M = 2558.85$) slightly lower than the average score reported in the initial study (Santiago-Rosario, 2019).

Unlike most classroom management scales, the CRCMSE assesses teachers’ confidence level with implementing strategies specifically designed to meet the cultural needs of students (Siwatu, 2015). Written permission to use the CRCMSE instrument was obtained from the developers of the CRCMSE instrument (see Appendix C).

**Procedures**

Upon obtaining IRB approval, the researcher sent approval forms and consent letters to the Research Specialist of the targeted Virginia school division requesting permission to
research. Once the research department approved, the designated school division personnel distributed the electronic survey via Survey Monkey to K-12 teachers within the division. The electronic survey included the MES and CRCMSE instruments, and demographics such as, number of years teaching, current teaching level or subject, age, gender, race, and ethnicity.

Electronic consent forms were attached to the surveys and data was collected anonymously, with no identifiers. The consent forms informed participants of the purpose of the research and the terms of confidentiality. IP address tracking was disabled to protect the identity of the participants, and each participant was assigned a random number. Participants were invited to complete the survey through email and was given three weeks to complete the survey. Reminders were sent to the targeted participants each week during the three-week research window. Once the three-week window was complete, the researcher determined that an adequate number of surveys were collected. Once the data was collected in Survey Monkey, the data was populated into a spreadsheet and entered into Excel database to organize. Digital data was stored on a password protected computer and no identifying `deinformation was collected from participants.

**Data Analysis**

Once the data was organized in the Excel database, the Statistical Package for the Social Science- Version 25.0 (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the criterion variable, CRCMSE and the predictor variables: experiences, attitudes, and multicultural efficacy. According to Creswell (2015), a multiple regression research design is appropriate when examining the effect of multiple independent variables on the dependent variable, and when examining the relationship between multiple variables.
The demographic information for the sample was analyzed and compiled into frequency tables. Pearson correlation coefficient $R$ was computed to determine the degree to which each predictor variable (experiences, attitude, and multicultural efficacy) is related to the dependent variable, CRCMSE. According to Gall et al. (2007) $R$ can assume values between 0 and 1. According to Patten (2009), $R$ and $R^2$ are effective in determining the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables in a correlational predictive study. In the analysis, the predictor variables were entered at once, but each was assessed independently, in relationship to the criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The multiple regression analysis was conducted at an alpha level of 0.05 and 95% confidence interval to evaluate the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between experience, attitude, and multicultural self-efficacy and CRCMSE. The null hypotheses were rejected when $p$-values were significant (<0.05) and accepted when $p$-values were insignificant (>0.05) (Gall et al., 2007). A $p$-value that is significant indicates a relationship exists between one or more of the independent variables and the dependent variable. The multiple regression statistical analysis produced a linear equation predicting the values of the dependent variable in relation to each independent variable:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + ... + b_pX_p.$$  

The regression coefficients $B$ determined the direction of the predictive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. When the $B$ coefficient is positive, the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is positive (Gall et al., 2007). When the $B$ coefficient is negative, the relationship is negative. When the $B$ coefficient is equal to 0, there is no relationship between the variables (Gall et al., 2007).

Pearson $R$ was used to calculate effect size and determine the strength of the relationship between the predictor variables and criterion variable. According to Cohen (1988, 1992), a value
of 0.1 indicates a low effect size, a value of 0.3 indicates a medium effect size, and a value of 0.5 indicates a large effect size. Based on an alpha of 0.05, there should be a minimum of 15 participants per predictor variable (Gall et al., 2007). To achieve a medium effect size, with an alpha of 0.05 with a power of .07 (70%) for multiple regressions, a minimum of 59 participants needed to participate in the study (Gall et al., 2007). The closer the effect size to 0.5, the stronger the relationship between the predictor and criterion variable. Descriptive statistics was conducted in SPSS to identify frequencies, percentages, central tendency, and measures of variation.

The credibility of the results of a multiple regression required that certain assumptions be met (Warner, 2013). According to Warner (2013), multiple regression analysis assumes a linear relationship between the outcome variable and the independent variables. Moreover, multiple regression assumes that the residuals are normally distributed and that the independent variables are not highly correlated with each other; thus, there is no multi-collinearity. Multiple regression also assumes independence of observations, or that responses are not counted more than once. Furthermore, multiple regression also assumes homoscedasticity, and that the variance of error terms is similar across the values of the independent variables.

The researcher conducted analyses to test assumptions. The linearity assumption was assessed using scatterplots. When data on a scatterplot follows a curve, a curvilinear relationship is indicated between the variables. When data on the scatterplot follows a straight line, the assumption of linearity is tenable. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were conducted to test the assumption of multi-collinearity. Multi-collinearity occurs when the independent variables are highly correlated (Gall et al., 2007). VIF values higher than 10 indicate that the assumption is not tenable and multi-collinearity is present. Variables identified as causing multi-collinearity
were removed from the regression. A bivariate scatterplot was used to assess for linearity and homoscedasticity (Gall et al., 2007). A plot of standardized residuals versus predicted values were conducted to show whether points were equally distributed across all values of the independent variables (Gall et al., 2007). The scatterplot was examined for shape and distribution. The distribution of points on the scatter plot indicated no clear pattern. Finally, multiple regression requires normal distribution of data. A P-P plot was used to assess tenability for normality and review any skewness associated with the data (Gall et al., 2007). The data in the P-P plot had normal distribution and the assumption was tenable.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable (CRCMSE), and the linear combination of predictor variables (experience with diversity, attitude toward diversity, and multicultural efficacy). In this chapter, the research questions and hypotheses for the study are restated. Assumptions were met for the multiple regression analysis and descriptive statistics for the research population are also provided. The chapter concludes with a statement of the results and key findings regarding the statistical significance of each of the predictor variables in relation to CRCMSE.

Research Question(s)

**RQ1:** Does teacher experience with diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ2:** Does teacher attitude toward diversity predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers?

**RQ3:** Does multicultural self-efficacy predict culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers?

Null Hypotheses

**H₀₁:** Experience with diversity will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.

**H₀₂:** Attitude toward diversity will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.
**H₀3:** Multicultural self-efficacy will not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales.

**Descriptive Statistics**

Three hundred and thirty-one \((N = 331)\) surveys were obtained during the three-week window of data collection. The data was screened for blank or incomplete surveys. Surveys with a total score of zero indicated no response and were removed from the data set. Thus, 241 \((N = 241)\) data sets were included in the analysis.

**Number of Years Teaching**

Participants were asked to indicate their years of teaching experience from the following range: less than 3 years, 3-9 years, 10-20 years, and more than 20 years. 11.9% of teachers indicated less than 3 years, 30% indicated 3-9 years, 35% indicated 10-20 years, and 23.1% indicated more than 20 years of teaching experience. The years of teaching experience among participants represented in the Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Participants’ Years of Teaching Experience*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Years Teaching</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3 years</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-9 years</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-20 years</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teaching Level**

Participants were asked to indicate their current teaching level from the following
categories: elementary, middle school, high school, and multiple levels. 88% of the participants indicated elementary, 10.4% indicated middle, 0.4% indicated high, and 1.2% indicated multiple levels. The current teaching level among participants is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

*Participants’ Teaching Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Level</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Levels</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Age Range of Participants**

Participants were asked to indicate their age range from the following categories: 18-26 years of age, 27-35 years of age, 36-48 years of age, and 49 years of age or older. 6.6% of participants indicated 18-26 years of age, 24.5% indicated 27-35 years of age, 36.1% indicated 36-48 years of age, and 32.78% indicated 49 years of age or older. The age range of participants are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

*Age Range of Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-26 years of age</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-35 years of age</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-48 years of age</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49 years or older</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender Identity of Participants

Participants were asked to indicate their gender identity from the following categories: male, female, transgender male, transgender female, gender variant/non-conforming, other, and prefer not to answer. The participants’ gender identity selections comprised of 7% male, 91% female, 0.8% gender variant/non-conforming, 0.8% other, and 0.4% prefer not to answer. The gender identity selections among participants is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Identity</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgender Female</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgender Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Variant/Non-Conforming</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer Not to Answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants’ Race and Ethnicity

Participants were asked to indicate their race/ethnicity from the following categories: Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, Multiracial, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, White, and Other. The participants’ race/ethnicity selections comprised of 18.2% Black or African American, 4.1% Hispanic or Latino, 2.5% Multiracial, 0.4% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 74% White, and 0.4% other. Participants’ race/ethnicity is shown in Table 5.
Table 5

*Race and Ethnicity of Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race and Ethnicity</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black or African American</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic or Latino</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Teachers’ Experience with Diversity**

Experience with diversity is a 7-item subscale of the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) and one of three predictor variables in the multiple regression model. The subscale uses a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 with the descriptions: never, rarely, occasionally, and frequently. Each data set had a total score for experience with diversity. Participants’ scores ranged from 9 to 28, with a mean of 20.91 and standard deviation of 4.065 (see Figure 1).

![Experiences with Diversity](image)

*Figure 1. Experiences with Diversity (7-item subscale ranging from 1 to 4 with descriptions: never, rarely, occasionally, frequently)*
Teachers’ Attitude toward Diversity

Attitude with diversity is a 7-item subscale on the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) and one of the predictor variables in the multiple regression model. The subscale uses a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 with the descriptions: disagree strongly, disagree somewhat, agree somewhat, and agree strongly. Each data set had a total score for experience with diversity. In this sample, scores for attitude toward diversity ranged from 14 to 28, with a mean of 22.07 and standard deviation of 1.99 (see Figure 2).

![Attitudes toward Diversity](image)

*Figure 2. Attitudes toward Diversity (7-item subscale ranging from 1 to 4 with descriptions: disagree strongly, disagree somewhat, agree somewhat, agree strongly)*

Teachers’ Efficacy

Teachers’ efficacy is a 20-item subscale on the Multicultural Efficacy Scale (MES) and one of the predictor variables in the multiple regression model. The subscale uses a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4 with the descriptions: I do not believe I could do this very well; I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me; I believe I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare; and I am quite confident that this would be easy for me
to do. Each data set had a total score for experience with diversity. In this sample, scores for efficacy ranged from 35 to 80, with a mean of 64.24 and a standard deviation of 8.77 (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Teachers’ Efficacy Scores (20-item subscale ranging from 1 to 4 with the descriptions: I do not believe I could do this very well; I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me; I believe I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare; and I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do)

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy

Scores on the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE) Scale were the criterion variable in the multiple regression model. The CRCMSE scale has 35 items and a possible scoring range: 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident). Thus, total scores can range from 0 to 3500 (Siwatu, 2017). Total scores for each data set were collected. In this sample, scores ranged from 1313 to 3500 with a mean of 2915.25 and standard deviation of 390.38 (see Figure 4). According to Siwatu (2017), the closer the score to 3500, the higher the confidence. Thus, scores between 0-1166 indicate less confidence, scores between 1167-2333 indicate average confidence, and scores between 2334-3500 indicate high confidence.
Figure 4. CRCMSE Scores (20-item subscale ranging from 1 to 4 with the descriptions: I do not believe I could do this very well; I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me; I believe I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare; and I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do)

Results

A sample of 241 participants (N = 241) was obtained during the three-week window of data collection (April 20-May 9, 2020). Using Survey Monkey, participants’ scores on the MES and CRCMSE scale were calculated and exported into an Excel database. Using an Excel database, data set totals for each variable were calculated. The raw data was examined for data sets with no response. Incomplete data sets were filtered and deleted from the sample. Once the data was sorted and organized, it was exported into SPSS Version 26 for analysis.

Assumption Tests

The researcher conducted analyses to ensure the assumptions for multiple regression were met. The credibility of the results of a multiple regression requires that certain assumptions be met (Warner, 2013). One assumption is that a multiple regression analysis must analyze more
than one continuous or categorical independent variable in relation to a dependent variable (Creswell, 2015). Three independent variables (experience, attitudes, and efficacy) were measured on a continuous Likert scale, in relationship to CRCMSE. Thus, this assumption was met.

Multiple regression also assumes a linear relationship between the outcome variable and the independent variables (Warner, 2013). The linearity assumption was assessed using scatterplots (see Figure 5).

![Figure 5. Scatterplot Matrix: Relationship between Variables](image)

Multiple regression assumes that the residuals are normally distributed and that the independent variables are not highly correlated with each other or multi-collinear (Gall et al., 2007). Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were conducted to test the assumption of multi-collinearity. Each variable had VIF values less than 10, thus the assumption is tenable and multi-collinearity is not present (see Table 6).
Table 6

*Variable Inflation Factor*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiences with Diversity</td>
<td>1.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes Toward Diversity</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy</td>
<td>1.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple regression also requires normal distribution of data and homoscedasticity. A P-P plot was used to assess tenability for normality and review any skewness associated with the data (Gall et al., 2007). The data in the P-P plot lies on a straight, diagonal line (see Figure 6). Thus, the data has normal distribution and the assumption of homoscedasticity is tenable.

*Figure 6. A Normal P-P Plot of Standardized Residuals*
Hypotheses

Once the assumptions were met, a multiple regression was carried out to determine if experiences with diversity, attitudes toward diversity, and efficacy could predict participants’ CRCMSE scores. The results of the regression indicated the linear combination of the predictor variables was significantly related to CRCMSE scores $F(3, 237)=34.101, p = .000$. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .549, with 29.3% of the variance in CRCMSE score explained by the linear combination of the experiences with diversity, attitude toward diversity, and efficacy scores. Thus, the overall regression model was a significant predictor of CRCMSE scores (see Table 7). The final predictive model was:

$$\text{CRCMSE Score} = 894.926 + (18.226 \times \text{Experiences}) + (13.524 \times \text{Attitudes}) + (20.869 \times \text{Efficacy})$$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.549</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>34.101</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H$_01$ Experience with diversity and CRCMSE. The first null hypothesis stated that experience with diversity would not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales. The results of the regression indicated experience with diversity contributed significantly to the model ($B= 18.226, p = .000$). Thus, experience with diversity is a significant predictor of CRCMSE. The correlation coefficient was .274 indicating a medium effect size at an alpha of 0.05 and power of .07, according to Cohen (1988, 1992). Thus, the researcher rejected the first null hypothesis (see Table 8). Participants’ mean scores for
experiences with diversity was ($M= 20.91$, $SD = 4.065$) (see Table 9). According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), the closer the subscale total to 28, the more childhood and adolescent experiences the participants have had with diverse ethnic and cultural groups.

**H$_0$2 Attitude toward diversity.** The second null hypothesis stated that attitude toward diversity would not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy among K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales. While the overall regression model was significant to CRCMSE scores, attitude toward diversity did not contribute significantly to the model ($B = 13.524, p = .209$). Hence, attitude toward diversity is not a significant predictor of CRCMSE. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the second null hypothesis (see Table 8). Based on the assigned values for the attitude subscale, scores that range between 0 and 15 are low, scores between 16 and 24 are average, and scores between 24 and 28 are high and positive (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Participants’ mean scores for attitude toward diversity was ($M = 22.07$, $SD = 1.99$) falling within the average range (see Table 9).

**H$_0$3 Efficacy and CRCMSE.** The third null hypothesis stated that multicultural self-efficacy would not be a statistically significant predictor of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy in K-12 public school teachers as shown by the CRCMSE and MES scales. The results of the regression indicated that efficacy contributed significantly to the model ($B = 20.869, p = .000$). Thus, efficacy is a significant predictor of CRCMSE. The correlation coefficient was .514 indicating a large effect size. Thus, there is sufficient evidence to reject the third null hypothesis (see Table 8). According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), scores between 0 and 54 are low, scores between 55 and 66 are average, and scores between 67 and 80 are high.
Participants’ mean score for efficacy was ($M = 64.24$) indicating an average level of multicultural efficacy (see Table 9).
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

Chapter Five will review the purpose of the study and highlight related literature, theories, and studies in light of the current research. The chapter also discusses key findings and conclusions from Chapter Four. Additionally, the implications and limitations of the study will be addressed. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable, CRCMSE, and the predictor variables (experiences with diversity, attitude toward diversity, and multicultural efficacy). The null hypotheses stated that there is no statistically significant predictive relationship between each of the predictor variables and criterion variables. The regression analysis found the linear combination of the predictor variables to be a significant model for predicting CRCMSE scores. However, only experiences with diversity and efficacy were found to have a significant predictive relationship with CRCMSE independent of the model. Attitudes toward diversity did not demonstrate a significant predictive relationship with CRCMSE. Thus, the first and third null hypotheses were rejected, and the second null hypothesis was accepted.

CRCMSE

The CRCMSE scale assesses an individual’s belief about his or her ability to be successful in performing culturally responsive management tasks (Siwatu et al., 2017). Culturally responsive classroom management involves addressing one’s own ethnocentrism, being knowledgeable of students’ cultural backgrounds, understanding the socio-economic and political contexts of classroom teaching, having the skills and ability to use culturally appropriate
management strategies, and a desire to create a caring classroom (Weinstein et al., 2004). The
sample population in the current study demonstrated a mean score and standard deviation of ($M$
$=2915.25$, $SD =390.38$) on the CRCMSE scale, which is slightly higher than the mean score and
standard deviation ($M =2,825.57$, $SD = 403.67$) of participants in the study conducted by Siwatu
et al. (2017). According to Siwatu et al. (2017), the closer a teacher scores to 3500 on the
CRCMSE scale, the more likely the teacher will be to reflect on his or her beliefs and
effectiveness in performing culturally responsive management tasks. In the current study,
teachers scored highest for being able to do general management tasks such as, “clearly
communicate policies”, “establish routines”, and “encourage students to work together.” These
results are consistent with a recent study conducted on a group of elementary teachers by
Santiago-Rosario (2019), which also showed high scores for “encouraging students to work
together”. Teachers scored lowest for being able to “modify the classroom to match students’
home culture”, “Establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents” and
“Communicate with students’ parents whose primary language is not English.” Thus, although
teachers feel confident in general classroom management practices, they felt less confident in
culturally responsive management practices, and interactions with non-English speaking parents.
This finding is consistent with the research conducted by Bishop and Noguera (2019), which
suggested the need to address inequities present in school affecting families of color, particularly
Black and Hispanic. Participants also scored lowest for being able to, “Use culturally responsive
discipline practices to alter the behavior of a student who is being defiant” and “Implement an
intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a students’ culturally based behavior is
not consistent with school norms.” This finding is consistent with the research on discipline gaps
and disproportionalities which showed that students of color are more likely to be referred and
experience exclusionary discipline when there is cultural incongruence between the teacher and student (Bonner et al., 2018; Fong et al., 2014; Herzik, 2015). The finding also provides insight on the increases seen in discipline gaps between White and Black students across the United States (Bottiani et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, 2016).

**Experience with Diversity and CRCMSE.** The experience subscale of the MES assessed the experiences individuals have had interacting with individuals of different ethnic and cultural groups (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Experience with diversity was shown to be a significant predictor of CRCMSE, with a medium effect size. Participants’ mean scores for experiences with diversity was ($M = 20.91$, $SD = 4.065$) (see Table 8). According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), the closer the subscale total to 28, the more childhood and adolescent experiences the participants have had with diverse ethnic and cultural groups. On average, the participants scored on the higher end of the experience subscale, indicating that they have had more childhood experiences and interactions with diverse ethnic and cultural groups. The questions with the lowest average score among participants were, “Diverse people lived in my neighborhood when I was a child growing up” and “A diverse person was one of my role models when I was younger.” According to Guyton and Wesche (2005) teachers who have had more interactions with diverse ethnic and cultural groups may be more confident in diverse settings. However, experiences alone do not indicate a teachers’ level of multicultural efficacy (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Teachers’ higher scores on the CRCMSE scale despite fewer experiences with diversity support this claim. However, the finding does support the need to build cultural proficiency among teachers so that teachers have a higher sense of multicultural efficacy. If teachers have not had enough interactions with diverse groups to build their cultural proficiency, they will be less likely to have positive interactions with diverse students (Linsey & Lindsey,
Attitude toward Diversity and CRCMSE. The attitude subscale of the MES assessed the attitudes and beliefs of individuals regarding diversity (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Participants’ mean scores for attitude toward diversity was ($M = 22.07, SD = 1.99$) falling within the average range (see Table 8). Based on the assigned values for the attitude subscale, scores that range between 0 and 15 are low, scores between 16 and 24 are average, and scores between 24 and 28 are high and positive (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Attitude toward diversity was shown to have a positive correlation with CRCMSE with a low effect size, but not a predictive relationship. On average, the participants on the higher end of the subscale indicated that they hold more positive beliefs about diversity. While the overall average subscale score was fairly high, teachers scored lowest on questions such as, “Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom” and “Curricula and textbooks should include the contributions of most, if not all, cultural groups in our society.” While teachers had overall positive beliefs about diversity, this belief did not translate into the belief that instructional or curricular materials should reflect diverse cultures.

Multicultural Efficacy and CRCMSE. The efficacy subscale of the MES assessed an individual’s confidence to be successful in a diverse setting (Guyton & Wesche, 2005). Multicultural efficacy was shown to be the greatest predictor of CRCMSE, with a large effect size. This is consistent with the research conducted by Siwatu (2017), suggesting that a teacher’s confidence in their ability to be successful with diverse students, plays a major role in their ability to be culturally responsive. Participants’ mean score for efficacy was ($M = 64.24$) (see Table 8). According to Guyton and Wesche (2005), scores between 0 and 54 are low, scores between 55 and 66 are average, and scores between 67 and 80 are high. Participants’ mean score indicated an average level of multicultural efficacy. Based on the efficacy subscale responses, teachers scored highest on
the affirmation, “I can get students from diverse groups to work together” and lowest on the affirmation, “I can identify the societal forces which influence opportunities for diverse people.” Thus, teachers felt efficacious in their ability to create a collaborative environment among diverse students in the classroom, but less efficacious to identify racial barriers in society. The finding is consistent with Lindsey and Lindsey (2016) who found that non-minority teachers may be more blind or unaware to the impact of privilege on schools and to the existence of systemic, institutionalized racism.

Table 8

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviation for Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CRCMSE</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>2915.25</td>
<td>390.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiences</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>20.91</td>
<td>4.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>22.07</td>
<td>1.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>64.24</td>
<td>8.767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Role of Demographics in CRCMSE.** Most of the sample population was comprised of white females, 36 years of age or older, with 10-20 years of teaching experience. It is important to note that most respondents indicated that diverse people did not live in their neighborhood when they were growing up as a child. The demographics of the sample population may be indicative of why most respondents did not believe instructional or curricular material needed to include the contributions of diverse ethnic groups and cultures. According to Djonko-Moore et al. (2018), curricular materials and instructional resources that focus on the experiences of mainstream Americans can have a negative effect on all students. Moreover, the over-portrayal of white citizens in instructional material is not representative of race interactions in our society (Banks, 2013; Djonko-Moore et al., 2017). The demographics of the population
may also shed light on why respondents felt less able to communicate effectively with parents of English Language Learners, and address student behavior in a culturally responsive manner. More research is needed to determine if race, gender, teaching level, or years of teaching experience is a predictor of CRCMSE.

**Implications**

By 2024, students of color will make up over half of the student population in the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Moreover, the percentage of Hispanic students enrolled in public schools are expected to increase significantly (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). The changing student population is indicative of the need for culturally responsive classroom management practices. Most public-school teachers in the United States are non-Hispanic white (U.S. Department of Education, 2016), similar to the sample population in the current study. Based on the findings in the current study, there are several implications for school and division leaders.

Multicultural efficacy was found to be the greatest predictor of CRCMSE, as indicated by the large effect size. Thus, there is a need to develop teachers’ sense of confidence in working in multicultural settings. If teachers are more confident in multicultural settings, they are more likely to be culturally responsive. Experiences with diversity was found to be the second greatest predictor of CRCMSE. Experiences with diversity indicated the quantity and types of interactions participants had with diverse groups and cultures. Therefore, if teachers have had few interactions with diverse groups, they will be less efficacious in being culturally responsive. Moreover, if teachers have had negative experiences with diverse groups, those experiences may influence the way they support students. While it is not possible to change past experiences that teachers have had with diverse groups, it is possible to facilitate more cross-cultural
conversations and experiences so that teachers become more knowledgeable of diverse cultures. Stereotypes and negative perceptions of diverse cultures must also be addressed when reshaping teachers’ experiences and understanding of diverse groups. If teachers have a more accurate understanding and perception of diverse groups, they may be more effective in supporting diverse students. While attitudes toward diversity was not a significant predictor of CRCMSE, attitudes toward diversity do help to shape a person’s overall multicultural efficacy.

Thus, for school leaders to develop CRCMSE among teachers, there must be a greater focus on building teacher efficacy and reshaping experiences and understanding of diverse cultural groups. Teachers must see the value in creating culturally responsive classrooms and understand the importance of diversity in instructional and curricular material. Building efficacy and reshaping experiences, will help to improve cultural proficiency among teachers and lead to more positive interactions between teachers and students of diverse cultures and ethnic groups.

Furthermore, the majority of the respondents felt least confident to handle behavior and support English Language Learners. While the current study did not examine these factors, it could mean that there is a need for school leaders and teachers to receive training in culturally responsive behavior management and English Language Learner support. Further research should be conducted to examine these factors.

**Limitations**

One limitation in the current research is that the study used self-report surveys. With self-report surveys, there is an increased likelihood that a participant’s responses will contain biases or misrepresentations. Steps were taken to reduce the likelihood that participants would inflate responses. Participants were made aware of the anonymity of the study. In addition, only non-identifying demographic information was collected in the study.
Another limitation is that a solely quantitative study may not capture all aspects of CRCMSE. One way to address this limitation in future studies is to collect qualitative data in addition to quantitative data. Observations of participants’ interactions with diverse students could be compared to the self-reported data to limit biases in self-reporting.

Moreover, most of the sample population was taken from elementary teachers working in high poverty schools. The role of poverty in CRCMSE was not analyzed in this study. There may be a need to examine how working in high-poverty schools could affect teachers’ CRCMSE. In addition, the study may need to be replicated at the middle and high school level for consistency.

In addition, the study did not analyze the relationship between demographic factors such as race/ethnicity, gender, years of experience, age range and CRCMSE. More research is needed to determine if demographic factors that contribute to teachers’ CRCMSE.

Furthermore, in considering Cronbach’s alphas for the MES subscales and CRCMSE Scale, further examination may be needed to ensure that MES and CRCMSE scale are the most reliable measurement instruction for assessing multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy.

Recommendations for Future Research

Attitude toward diversity, experience with diversity, and multicultural efficacy all contribute to a teacher’s ability and willingness to engage in culturally responsive classroom management practices. However, experiences with diversity and multicultural efficacy are significant predictors of culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy. Thus, opportunities need to be provided for teachers to engage in experiences outside of their own cultural norms and self-reflection regarding their own biases. Therefore, it is important to
facilitate cross-cultural experiences within schools and to train teachers in supporting diverse students. School leaders must be willing to educate all teachers on other cultures and ethnic groups. In light of the current study, the following are recommendations for future research:

Research is needed to examine the relationship between race, gender, teaching experience, and teaching level and CRCMSE. It would be valuable to the research to determine if any of these variables are predictors of CRCMSE. Most of the sample population was taken from the elementary teaching level. Thus, this study should be replicated at the secondary level to see if the current study findings are replicable across school levels. Further research is also needed to examine how new experiences with diversity impact a teacher’s CRCMSE. While experiences with diversity was shown to be a strong predictor in CRCMSE, many of the teachers in this study had few childhood experiences with diverse cultural and ethnic groups. As we consider the demographics of teachers across the nation, it is essential to research strategies for increasing multicultural efficacy and CRCMSE by providing teachers more experience with diverse ethnic groups and cultures.

Qualitative research is needed to examine aspects of CRCMSE that may not be captured in a quantitative study. Observing teachers in a multicultural setting, interacting with diverse students could add to our understanding of the relationship between MES and CRCMSE.
References


[http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155](http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155)


https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124514531042


https://doi.org/10.1108/JME-07-2017-0041


doi: 10.1177/0013164491513027


New York, NY: Macmillan.

doi:10.1080/00220670209598789


http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543068002202


Appendix A: Multicultural Efficacy Scale “Removed to comply with copyright”

Definition: The authors intend the terms “diversity” and “people different from me” to include people of different races, ethnic groups, cultures, religions, socio-economic classes, sexual orientations, and physical abilities.

Directions: Please choose the word that best describes your experience with people different from you by filling in the corresponding oval on your NCS answer sheet.

Section A
1) As a child, I played with people different from me.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
2) I went to school with diverse students as a teenager.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
3) Diverse people lived in my neighborhood when I was a child growing up.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
4) In the past I chose to read books about people different from me.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
5) A diverse person was one of my role models when I was younger.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
6) In the past I chose to watch TV shows and movies about people different from me.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently
7) As a teenager, I was on the same team and/or club with diverse students.
   A) never  B) rarely  C) occasionally  D) frequently

Section B
Directions: Respond to each statement by choosing one answer that best describes your reaction to it. Since we are simply trying to get an accurate sense of your opinions on these matters, there are no right or wrong answers.

Key: A) agree strongly  B) agree somewhat  C) disagree somewhat  D) disagree strongly
8) Teachers should adapt lesson plans to reflect the different cultures represented in the classroom.
9) Teachers should provide opportunities for children to share cultural differences in foods, dress, family life, and beliefs.
10) Discussing ethnic traditions and beliefs in school leads to disunity and arguments between students from different cultures.
Children should be taught mostly by teachers of their own ethnic and cultural background.

It is essential to include the perspectives of diverse groups while teaching things about American history that are common to all Americans.

Curricula and textbooks should include the contributions of most, if not all, cultural groups in our society.

The classroom library should reflect the racial and cultural differences in the class.

Section C

Directions: To the best of your knowledge, self-assess your own ability to do the various items listed below.

Key:
A = I do not believe I could do this very well.
B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.
C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.
D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

15) I can provide instructional activities to help students to develop strategies for dealing with racial confrontations.
16) I can adapt instructional methods to meet the needs of learners from diverse groups.
17) I can develop materials appropriate for the multicultural classroom.
18) I can develop instructional methods that dispel myths about diverse groups.
19) I can analyze instructional materials for potential stereotypical and/or prejudicial content.
20) I can help students to examine their own prejudices.
21) I can present diverse groups in our society in a manner that will build mutual respect.
22) I can develop activities that increase the self-confidence of diverse students.
23) I can provide instruction showing how prejudice affects individuals.

Key:
A = I do not believe I could do this very well.
B = I could probably do this if I had to, but it would be difficult for me.
C = I believe that I could do this reasonably well, if I had time to prepare.
D = I am quite confident that this would be easy for me to do.

24) I can plan instructional activities to reduce prejudice toward diverse groups.
25) I can identify cultural biases in commercial materials used in teaching.
26) I can help students work through problem situations caused by stereotypical and/or prejudicial attitudes.
27) I can get students from diverse groups to work together.
28) I can identify school practices that may harm diverse students.
29) I can identify solutions to problems that may arise as the result of diversity.
30) I can identify the societal forces which influence opportunities for diverse people.
31) I can identify ways in which various groups contribute to our pluralistic society.
32) I can help students take on the perspective of ethnic and cultural groups different from their own.
33) I can help students view history and current events from diverse perspectives.
34) I can involve students in making decisions and clarifying their values regarding multicultural issues.

Note: The following item is different from the others in this section.

35) Choose the position which most closely reflects your strongest beliefs about teaching:

A = If every individual learned to accept and work with every other person, then there would be no intercultural problems.
B = If all groups could be helped to contribute to the general good and not seek special recognition, we could create a unified America.
C = All cultural groups are entitled to maintain their own identity.
D = All cultural groups should be recognized for their strengths and contributions.
E = Some groups need to be helped to achieve equal treatment before we can reach the goals of a democratic society.
Appendix B: CRCMSE Scale “Removed to comply with copyright”
28. Use culturally appropriate methods to relate to parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

29. Model classroom routines for English Language Learners.

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

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

32. Implement an intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a student’s culturally based behavior is not consistent with school norms.

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

34. Manage situations in which students are defiant.

35. Prevent disruptions by recognizing potential causes for misbehavior.
May 26, 2019

Dear Professor Siwatu,

I am a doctoral student at Liberty University completing a dissertation through the School of Education, Educational Leadership program. I am writing to ask written permission to use the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE) Scale in my research study. My research will examine the relationship between multicultural efficacy and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy.

I plan to use the entire instrument, and to target secondary teachers working in high poverty schools, within an urban school division. The instrument will be administered through Survey Monkey, and responses will be anonymous. In the study, the subscales (experiences, attitudes, and efficacy) of the Multicultural Efficacy Scale will serve as the independent variables, while culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy will serve as the dependent variable.

I would like to use your CRCMSE scale under the following conditions:

- I will use the CRCMSE scale only for my research study and will not sell or use it for any other purposes
- I will include a statement of attribution and copyright on all copies of the instrument. If you have a specific statement of attribution that you would like for me to include, please provide it in your response.
- At your request, I will send a copy of my completed research study to you upon completion of the study and/or provide a hyperlink to the final manuscript.

If there are any scoring procedures, instructions for administering the test, or supplemental materials that would be helpful in analyzing the results from the scale, please feel free to attach those materials. If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through smtaylor18@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

Shalise M. Taylor
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University
Permission To Use Instrument(s)

Dear Researcher:

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

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

- **Culturally Responsive Teaching Outcome Expectations Scale**

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

Best wishes with your research.

Sincerely,

[REDACTED]

Kamau Oginga Siwatu, PhD
Professor of Educational Psychology