Teaching Literacy in the Twenty-First Century Classroom

Teacher Knowledge, Self-Efficacy, and Minding the Gap

Edited by
Tiffany L. Gallagher · Katia Ciampa

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Editors
Tiffany L. Gallagher
Educational Studies
Brock University
St. Catharines, ON, Canada

Katia Ciampa
Literacy Education
Widener University
Chester, PA, USA

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Contents

1 **Introduction** 1
Tiffany L. Gallagher and Katia Ciampa

Part I Knowledge and Measuring of Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy

2 **Self-Efficacy Practices That Impact Effective Reading Instruction for Young Learners** 19
Lisa Minicozzi and Jennifer Dardzinski

3 **Do Teacher Candidates in English-Speaking Countries Understand the Structure of the English Language?** 39
Emily Binks-Cantrell, Erin K. Washburn, and R. Malatesha Joshi

4 **Exploration of American General and Special Education Teacher Candidates' Self-Efficacy to Teach Reading and Reading-Related Constructs** 63
Erin K. Washburn and Candace A. Mulcahy

5 **Exploring Teacher Candidates' Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Literacy Instruction in the Twenty-First Century** 83
Katia Ciampa and Tiffany L. Gallagher

Part II Practices to Build Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy

6 **Teaching Beyond a Print Mindset: Applying Multimodal Pedagogies Within Literacy Teacher Education** 103
Dane Marco Di Cesare and Jennifer Rowsell

7 **The Role of Critical Narratives in Broadening Teacher Candidates' Literacy Beliefs Around ELA Teaching Practice** 119
Katrina Bartow Jacobs

8 **Transforming Literacy Instruction in Second-Language Contexts: The Impact of Graduate Education in Colombia** 145
Raúl Alberto Mora, Claudia Cañas, Ana Karina Rodríguez, and Natalia Andrea Salazar

Part III In-Service Literacy Teachers' and Collective Efficacy

9 **Are We Minding the Gap? Examining Teacher Self-Efficacy as Teachers Transition from Teacher Candidates to Full-Time Teaching** 173
Sarah K. Clark

10 **Utilizing Relationships as Resources: Social and Emotional Learning and Self-Efficacy** 199
Sharyn Fisher

11 **Building Collective Teacher Efficacy Through Teacher Collaboration** 219
Vicki Park, Douglas Fisher, and Nancy Frey

12 Teachers' Collective and Self-Efficacy as Reform Agents: One Teacher Discusses Her Place in Reforming Literacy Instruction 239
Phillip Poulton, Mallihai Tambyah, and Annette Woods

13 Concluding Thoughts 267
Tiffany L. Gallagher and Katia Ciampa

Index 283

List of Contributors

Emily Binks-Cantrell Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA

Claudia Cañas Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin, Colombia

Katia Ciampa Literacy Education, Widener University, Chester, PA, USA

Sarah K. Clark Brigham Young University, Provo, UT, USA

Jennifer Dardzinski Five Towns College, Dix Hills, NY, USA

Dane Marco Di Cesare Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada

Douglas Fisher San Diego State University, San Diego, CA, USA

Sharyn Fisher Manalapan-Englishtown Regional School District, Manalapan, NJ, USA;
The College of New Jersey, Ewing, NJ, USA

Nancy Frey San Diego State University, San Diego, CA, USA

Tiffany L. Gallagher Educational Studies, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada

Katrina Bartow Jacobs University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

R. Malatesha Joshi Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA

Lisa Minicozzi Adelphi University, New York, NY, USA

Raúl Alberto Mora Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin, Colombia

Candace A. Mulcahy Binghamton University, Binghamton, NY, USA

Vicki Park San Diego State University, San Diego, CA, USA

Phillip Poulton Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

Ana Karina Rodríguez Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin, Colombia

Jennifer Rowsell University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

Natalia Andrea Salazar Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin, Colombia

Mallihai Tambyah Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

Erin K. Washburn University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Charlotte, NC, USA

Annette Woods Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

List of Figures

Fig. 3.1	Simple view of reading (from the *Rose Review*, 2006)	42
Fig. 3.2	Survey of basic language constructs: item breakdown	51
Fig. 7.1	Critical practice-based teacher education	122
Fig. 9.1	Mean scores of teachers at the teacher candidate (pre-service) and in-service stages related to number of required literacy methods courses	190

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Example of the components of reading instruction in learning objectives and practical applications 24
Table 2.2 Illustration of the components of reading instruction in coursework experiences and fieldwork applications 29
Table 3.1 Similarities and differences between the US's *National Reading Panel*, England's *Rose Review*, New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce*, and Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy* 48
Table 3.2 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: basic phonemic awareness knowledge and ability 52
Table 3.3 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: phonics terminology knowledge 52
Table 3.4 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: morphology knowledge and ability 53
Table 3.5 Mean percent correct scores and standard deviations for total survey, knowledge, ability, and categorical items 55
Table 3.6 Chart comparing US, England, New Zealand, and Canada survey results 56
Table 4.1 Teacher candidates' characteristics 68
Table 4.2 Results of *t*-tests and descriptive statistics for number of literacy courses by certification and grade-level focus 69
Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics for perceived ability to teach reading-related constructs 71
Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics for self-efficacy beliefs to teaching reading 72

Table 5.1 Factor analysis descriptives for 8 question sub-sets on *TBLI21*[c] 89
Table 5.2 *TBLI21*[c] scores by year of study 90
Table 7.1 Participants by year, gender, and race 126
Table 9.1 Descriptive statistics of teacher candidates' self-efficacy by teacher education program 181
Table 9.2 Descriptive statistics of mastery experience and teacher candidates' self-efficacy 186
Table 9.3 Descriptive statistics of novice teachers' self-efficacy by teacher education program 187
Table 9.4 Descriptive data for teacher candidate and novice teacher self-efficacy of matched participants 188
Table 11.1 Sources of efficacy beliefs in PLCs 225

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Tiffany L. Gallagher and Katia Ciampa

> If I have the belief that I can do it, I shall surely acquire the capacity to do it even if I may not have it at the beginning. —Mahatma Gandhi (1962)

Isn't becoming literate all about the student's skills and ability to master a complex process of decoding, making meaning, and producing text? So, why is this book about teachers' literacy knowledge and self-efficacy so important? There is an inexplicable connection among what the teacher knows about teaching literacy, how confident and affirmed the teacher feels about teaching literacy, and how well the students are performing. Therefore, in this era of heightened educational accountability to ensure that all learners are literate, the relatively recent pursuit of understanding the perspectives of teacher candidates' and teachers' self-efficacy and beliefs to teach literacy, as well as the collective efficacy to impact literacy achievement, is essential.

T. L. Gallagher (✉)
Educational Studies, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada
e-mail: tgallagher@brocku.ca

K. Ciampa
Literacy Education, Widener University, Chester, PA, USA
e-mail: kciampa@widener.edu

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Teachers are a critical factor in K-12 students' literacy performance. The quality of a teacher's instruction has the greatest effect on students' literacy achievement outcomes and is critical to their development of essential literacy skills (Moats, 2014). All children have a right to well-prepared teachers who provide literacy instruction that meets their individual needs (International Literacy Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 2017). According to the 2015 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results in reading performance, on average across the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, students' mean reading proficiency has not improved since 2000. Among the 42 countries/economies with valid data in at least five rounds of PISA, 12 saw an improving trend in performance, six observed a declining trend, and the remaining 24 experienced a non-significant improvement or deterioration in performance. Furthermore, on average across OECD countries with comparable results across all six PISA assessments since 2000, students' mean reading proficiency has remained flat. Demand for reading skills and significant investment in education have not (yet) been followed by improvements in students' results, on average across countries. This issue is exacerbated by aging policy documents that inform literacy curricula. As both the twenty-first-century literacy demands within our society and the diverse needs of students increases, it is critical that our teacher candidates are effectively prepared and our in-service teachers are professionally supported to be highly effective and efficacious literacy teachers. In accordance with the Clinical Practice Commission (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 2018, p. 12), teacher candidates are "individuals enrolled in teacher preparation programs."

Since colleges and universities prepare 80% of today's teachers, increased attention to the formal training of teacher candidates in the area of literacy is crucial (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013). Accordingly, examining the quality and content of teacher preparation programs that prepare literacy teachers is an increasingly relevant area of study. It is important to note, however, that content knowledge acquisition and a college degree does not necessarily equate to a highly effective literacy teacher who has the requisite knowledge and skills to perform a task successfully (Bandura, 1986). What is often overlooked is the interaction between teacher candidates' literacy content knowledge and their beliefs about literacy instruction. There is a dearth of research that examines teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs, especially in the

specific area of literacy instruction (e.g., Clark, 2016; Helfrich & Clark, 2016; Leader-Janssen & Rankin-Erickson, 2013). Furthermore, previous studies are single-country or single-program studies, most of which have been carried out in the USA (e.g., Clark, 2016; Helfrich & Clark, 2016). Complementing this, there needs to be an ongoing examination of teachers' professional learning to ensure that practicing teachers are supported in delivering evidenced-based literacy instruction. Taken together, this is the integral knowledge that teachers need to continue to build into their practice.

This book turns the spotlight on a less than the concrete aspect of teacher candidates' and teachers' practice: their self-efficacy or confidence in their effect to promote students' literacy learning. "Self-efficacy is the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the sources of action required to manage prospective situations" (Bandura, 1986, p. 21). Unlike pedagogical or content knowledge for language instruction that presents as tangible, perhaps even quantifiable, self-efficacy is a malleable construct that ironically has the greatest impact of all factors (according to effect sizes) on student learning (Hattie, 2009). This is what is both compelling and urgent to appreciate in the study of teacher education.

Teachers' sense of efficacy has proven to be a powerful construct, related to teachers' motivation and behavior in the classroom as well as contributing to important student outcomes. Next to affecting the classroom quality, teacher self-efficacy has been found to exert influence over students' academic achievement, motivation, as well as their self-efficacy (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Positive teacher self-efficacy beliefs have been demonstrated to result in teachers' improved psychological well-being in terms of higher levels of job satisfaction and commitment and lower levels of stress and burnout (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014). Teacher efficacy is often asserted as a situation-specific and even subject-specific construct (Bandura, 1986; Cakiroglu, 2008; Enochs, Smith, & Huinker, 2000). Given that literacy instruction is a multifaceted and important responsibility (Moats, 2000) and arguably, all teachers support students' literacy skills, it is not surprising that to be effective in literacy instruction, teachers must hold a sense of confidence in their own knowledge and ability to do so (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011).

There is power in the confidence that one holds to make a positive difference. This strength and optimism is what inherently buoys teachers. Teachers are in the profession of making a difference in the lives

of their learners. This is often one of the reasons that beginning teachers cite as guiding their decision to pursue the profession of education. With reference to the quote above from Mahatma Gandhi (1962), the belief and determination to be the best teacher possible will guide educators through the early stages of learning their craft and challenges they incur along the way. At all career stages, teachers need to reflect on their self-efficacy and intentions to optimistically pursue how to sustain it.

Research has examined the effects of efficacy beliefs on teaching and learning in general as well as in selected subject areas. Yet, little research into teacher candidates' and teachers' literacy self-efficacy and collective efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction has been published. Moreover, there is little empirical evidence about how to cultivate stronger teacher self-efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction. This timely and significant edited chapter book will explore potential antecedents of teacher candidates' and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the realm of twenty-first-century literacy instruction that is culturally responsive and multimodal in nature. The chapter authors provide suggestions for the design of teacher preparation courses and programs, as well as in-service professional development for literacy instruction. This book also includes chapters on revised and validated measures of teacher candidates' and teachers' sense of efficacy for literacy instruction that reflect the changing definition of literacy in the twenty-first century. Herein, the chapter authors provide other researchers, teacher educators, teachers, professional learning facilitators, and school leaders with discussions about current issues in literacy teacher education that illuminate the complexity of supporting self-efficacious teachers to teach language and literacy in the 21st classroom. As well, chapter authors spotlight the transition between teacher candidates' and teachers' practice, the vulnerability of literacy teachers' self-efficacy, and the interplay between teachers' individual and collective self-efficacy for literacy instruction.

Researchers Answer the Call

We sent out a call to contemporary researchers to glean the perspectives of international scholars from the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, Columbia, and USA who are using a range of methodological and theoretical approaches to study literacy teacher self-efficacy and beliefs in twenty-first-century literacy instruction. We noted that this volume

would aim to fill the gaps in the literature by providing further understandings on the following aspects, but not limited to:

- Teacher candidates' and teachers' self-efficacy and collective efficacy for literacy instruction
- The connection between teacher candidates' and teachers' content knowledge in: reading, writing, multimodal literacies, diversity (culturally responsive pedagogy), and oral communication.

This co-edited text includes a collection of writings (e.g., literature reviews, case studies, empirical studies) that shed light on the self-efficacy and beliefs that teacher candidates and teachers hold with respect to teaching English language arts and literacy in the twenty-first century. There is a selection of chapters in section "Structure of the Sections" dedicated to practical applications to engage teacher candidates and teachers in their own professional learning. Most anticipated is the discussion on teachers' collective efficacy and its impact on literacy teaching and learning. We believe that this text provides readers with a contemporary and comprehensive understanding of this topic at an international level. It is worth noting that while chapter authors represent only a cross-section of international scholars, they provide fulsome background on the teacher candidates' and in-service teachers' realities related to teaching literacy to diverse populations. This is discussed at length by the editors in the final chapter, "Concluding Thoughts."

Structure of the Sections

This text is structured into three sections that buttress each other. Part I, *Knowledge and Measuring of Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, provides four chapters that deal with the tension of what is necessary knowledge for teachers to hold to teach English language arts and literacy and how might we evaluate teachers' perceptions and beliefs of their knowledge and skills to do so. This is not an exact science. Over the past few decades, tools have been developed in education broadly (e.g., Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998), the literacy domain (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), and other areas of disciplinary instruction such as mathematics (e.g., Enochs et al., 2000) and science (e.g., Riggs & Enochs, 1990). In part I, three of the chapters propose

revised tools to assess teachers' knowledge of language constructs needed to teach early reading skills, pedagogical content knowledge, and self-efficacy beliefs about teaching reading and self-efficacy for literacy instruction in diverse and twenty-first-century classrooms. Each chapter offers an emphasis that is slightly different denoting varied purposes for tool application.

The three chapters in part II, *Practices to Build Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, uniquely offer considerations for methods to work with the constructs of self-efficacy within teacher education and in-service professional learning environments. In particular, practices that address the ways in which teachers engage in their own introspection are described as a means of validating the pursuit of bolstering self-efficacy. Alignment and advancement are key ideas here. With respect to the former key idea, the pedagogies that teachers and teacher candidates experience need to align with the ways our K-12 literacy learners engage with language through multimodal means. Advancement in the value and time dedicated to teacher reflection, writing and sharing narratives, and reflexivity are all practices that contribute to the buoying of self-efficacy in teachers. Why is this important?

Part III, *In-Service Literacy Teachers' and Collective Efficacy*, presents four chapters that describe the linkages between teacher candidates' and literacy teachers' self-efficacy and then ties to the collective efficacy of a school community. This is where the power resides with respect to impact on students' language and literacy performance—individual teacher self-efficacy and the efficacy of the school to believe in students' potential to learn, grow, and become literate citizens.

Overview of the Chapters

In Chapter 2, "Self-Efficacy Practices That Impact Effective Reading Instruction for Young Learners," co-authors Minicozzi and Dardzinski pose the question of whether teacher candidates understand the multifaceted nature of reading instruction that it is requisite to become confident and knowledgeable teachers. The co-authors point out that teachers who feel confident in their ability to teach all five essential reading components (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension) may have improved learning outcomes for their future students. This chapter addresses the challenges that early childhood teachers face

when enacting a comprehensive literacy plan which adheres to the development of all learning domains: physical, socio-emotional, and cognitive. Minicozzi and Dardzinski contend that this begins in literacy methods courses in teacher education. Teacher candidates need to understand how their self-efficacy plays a role in their ability to persist through difficult times and to seek help when needed. As well, in order to effectively teach reading to young children, teacher candidates also need time to develop their craft—hone strategies and skills learned through coursework with a clear focus on reading instruction. In this chapter, the co-authors discuss implications for practice such as improving the quality of teacher education programs by creating thoughtful, evidence-based effective reading instruction. This chapter is an apposite foundation to begin part I, *Knowledge and Measuring of Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, and indeed the text as a whole.

In Chapter 3, Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi skillfully review national reports from four English-speaking countries (Canada, England, New Zealand, United States) that outline the components of teacher knowledge in teaching reading. In their work titled, "Do Preservice Teachers in English-Speaking Countries Understand the Structure of the English Language?" Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi present a qualitative comparison of the four countries' recent and current literacy initiatives. The chapter authors contend that an understanding of the structure of the language is essential to delivering the explicit and systematic literacy instruction that is needed especially for students at-risk for reading difficulties. Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi cite research reports (e.g., National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000; Rose, 2006; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) that stress the need for teachers to have content knowledge of both bottom-up skills related to reading acquisition at the word level (i.e., phonemic awareness and the alphabetic principle/phonics generalizations) and top-down holistic processes (i.e., comprehension). The three authors developed, validated, and administered a knowledge survey of basic language constructs to compare teacher candidates', primary education teachers' performance from the four different countries. Overall, findings show that teacher candidates from all four countries and in general lack knowledge of certain basic language constructs needed to teach early reading skills. They offer suggestions regarding how to improve teacher preparation to teach reading in English language arts.

Washburn and Mulcahy's work in Chapter 4, titled, "Exploration of American General and Special Education Teacher Candidates' Self-Efficacy to Teach Reading and Reading-Related Constructs" examines teachers' content knowledge, which has been found to be an important factor at various key junctures in a teacher's preparation and professional development. The authors acknowledge that teachers' self-efficacy in their ability to promote students' learning is also an important factor in effective reading instruction. Moreover, Washburn and Mulcahy join the growing number of researchers who are examining teacher candidates' perceptions about teaching reading and writing and how their perceptions and beliefs change with coursework, fieldwork, and over the span of a teacher preparation program. The co-authors explored general and special education teacher candidates' perceptions and beliefs about reading-related concepts and teaching reading using a published survey. Their findings reveal that the majority of teacher candidates held "moderate" or "very good" perceptions about their ability to teach reading-related concepts. Teacher candidates also indicate that they have "some" or "quite a bit of influence" to teach reading in a variety of ways. Interestingly, when these authors examined certification levels, elementary teacher candidates report high levels of perceived ability to teach constructs related to beginning literacy and to teach struggling readers. Significant associations were observed for previous exposure to reading-related content on certain perception items and self-efficacy items (e.g., teaching struggling readers) but not on others (e.g., teaching comprehension). Washburn and Mulcahy conclude their chapter with implications for teacher preparation and future research.

The final chapter in Part I, Chapter 5, "Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction in the 21st Century: A Revised Scale" presents the findings of the first administration of a revised *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction (TSELI)* scale that reflects the changing definition of literacy in the twenty-first century. Co-authors, Ciampa and Gallagher, created a pool of 42 items specific to various aspects of twenty-first-century literacy instruction by drawing on the *National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Framework for 21st Century Curriculum and Assessment* (2013), the updated *International Literacy Association* (2017) *Standards for Reading Professionals*, *Canadians for 21st Century Learning & Innovation* (2014), *Action Canada Task Force* (2013), and *Media Awareness Network* (2010). Survey items tap such aspects of literacy instruction as reading, writing, viewing, listening,

communicating using visual, audible and digital materials, vocabulary, comprehension strategies, motivation, differentiated instruction, assessment, diversity, and culturally responsive teaching. Teacher candidates in both countries reported higher self-efficacy regarding twenty-first-century competencies and diversity. Items receiving the lowest ratings from the teacher candidates related to early literacy skills. On open-ended items, teacher candidates noted the following challenges: assessment, planning, and levels. By contrast, their successes with literacy instruction included planning, creativity, and lessons. Ciampa and Gallagher offer implications for literacy teacher educators for use of this instrument with literacy teachers in today's twenty-first-century classroom.

Next, part II, *Practices to Build Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, includes three chapters that explore alternatives for reimagining literacy teacher education work with teacher candidates and (graduate) teachers to build their self-efficacy. This builds on part I, of the text by presenting alternatives and augmentations to the work that literacy teacher educators do to enhance the practices and self-efficacy of teachers. The chapter authors in part II provide fodder for teacher educators (at all levels) of ELA curriculum, pedagogy, and practicum experiences. Di Cesare and Rowsell, co-authors for Chapter 6, "Teaching Beyond a Print Mindset: Applying Multimodal Pedagogies Within Literacy Teacher Education," begin their chapter with a big idea: with our society being more digitized, knowledge of multimodal literacies has become an asset and indeed a part of how educators view their own acumen and efficacy. These co-authors point out that this is particularly relevant to teacher candidates and classroom teachers as they have access to a host of technological tools and devices to use in the classroom for representation of content and ideas, support for student engagement, and shaping curriculum and planning around multimodal forms of expression. The reality, as Di Cesare and Rowsell cite, is that multimodal literacies are currently challenging traditional notions of schooling, giving rise to questions regarding the prevailing, print-based models of literacy as related to the technology and digital literacies of our current digitized society. They point to the irony in the abundance of technology, yet school literacy is still focused overly on traditional print and language-based views on literacy development. This charges teachers with the task to offer students opportunities to engage with multimodal literacies, digital text, and communication channels that they would engage within their lives

outside of school time. Di Cesare and Rowsell point out that this task is not readily embraced by in-service teachers and is a trial to their self-efficacy. Moreover, they state that teacher educators also need to be versed in the complex set of new literacies (i.e., principles of multimodality and technologies) in which K-12 students are immersed. In Chapter 6, the co-authors focus on how to teach teacher candidates how to navigate the meaning-making process through a multimodal lens. These are the methods that will build their identities and self-efficacy as beginning teachers.

Chapter 7, "The Role of Critical Narratives in Broadening Teacher Candidates' Literacy Beliefs Around ELA Teaching Practice" by Bartow Jacobs offers her research rationale to address literacy teachers' beliefs around how to equitably and thoughtfully situate their practices in relation to schools, communities, and their own positionalities. Bartow Jacobs contends that teacher candidates are asked to often reflect on their own direct instruction, with little to no connection to issues of context or equity. Teacher candidates learn about specific, procedural teaching practices without adequate opportunity to engage in thinking about critical pedagogy and teacher beliefs. Bartow Jacobs followed three cohorts of English language arts teacher candidates as they wrote narratives around a critical moment of practice from their practice teaching. Narratives were shared as a central text for class discussion and then teacher candidates reflected on the experience. As the teacher educator-researcher, Bartow Jacobs wanted to focus on unpacking beliefs around practice, not on solving specific problems of practice. She collected data including their stories; transcripts of class-based discussions of the texts; sample lesson plans and reflections for comparison; teaching notes from all of the course meetings; and interview transcripts. This author reports that the findings point to the ways that engaging in critical storytelling and narrative writing pushed the focus—both individually and programmatically—of teacher preparation teaching to involve the complex sociocultural and sociopolitical aspects of practice that is often left out of discussion of field experiences. Bartow Jacobs states that her implications are broad for any teacher preparation programs and offer a unique theoretical and practice-based approach to broadening teacher candidates' perspectives and beliefs around the core of professional practice and identity.

This is where the next chapter extends this recommendation around reflection on action to encourage teachers to pursue graduate literacy

programs to build on their beliefs and practices. The co-authors Mora, Cañas, Rodriguesz, and Salazar in Chapter 8, "Transforming Literacy Instruction in Second Language Contexts: The Impact of Graduate Education in Colombia," provide a perspective on enhancing self-efficacy of in-service teachers through encouraging teachers to pursue master's and even doctoral degrees in second language education. They focus on how to transform literacies into second language contexts and believe that the change of perspective around literacy helps address the need for an extended reflexivity toward transformative teacher education practices. This chapter mixes auto-ethnographic and collaborative ethnographic accounts to detail how the four authors (teacher educators) used a literacies graduate seminar as a springboard to transform their own practice in elementary and higher education. There is a summary of the context of language education and professional development in Colombia and how the literacies course has framed them as contributors to the transformation of teachers' beliefs and practices. The authors each feature their distinct accounts about the impact of the graduate course on their own practices. This chapter ends with an extended conversation about the lessons they have learned as their literacy beliefs and practices have changed by virtue of engaging in literacies research, the challenges that lie ahead, and some final considerations for pre- and in-service English education programs who want to have a stronger emphasis on literacies theory, practice, and self-efficacy in their curricula.

The final section, part III, *In-Service Literacy Teachers' and Collective Efficacy*, includes four chapters that extend our discussion about literacy teachers' self-efficacy from teacher preparation to in-service and the school collective as a whole. Clark in Chapter 9, "Are We Minding the Gap? Examining Teacher Self-Efficacy as Teachers Transition from Preservice Teaching to Full-Time Teaching" hones in on the critical juncture from teacher preparation to in-service teaching practice with respect to the malleability of teacher self-efficacy. In particular, one area that has been largely ignored in the research literature is what Clark calls the "gap" when teacher candidates leave their teacher education programs and begin teaching in the first year of practice in a classroom of their own. She questions: Does teacher self-efficacy remain high in the first year of teaching? What factors seem to correlate with and/or influence both teacher candidate and novice teacher self-efficacy? Results indicate that overall, teacher candidates reported higher perceptions of their ability to perform instructional tasks at the conclusion of their

program than they did at the completion of the first year of teaching. For those teacher candidates with the highest scores, there was even a greater drop in their self-efficacy score by the end of their first year of teaching. These findings raise additional questions about what the recommended level of scores should be at the end of teacher training: Are lower scores reflective of more realistic expectations and abilities? How can schools support novice teachers in building high teacher self-efficacy? Clark provides implications and recommendations for school leaders and teacher educators in this chapter.

Chapter 10 author, Fisher, encourages readers to consider, "Utilizing Relationships as Resources: Social and Emotional Learning and Self-Efficacy." In particular, she points out that there is pressure on teachers to increase student academic achievement, yet there is not a similar pressure for students' social and emotional development and mental health. These factors are important if teachers are to positively affect student outcomes, including those who are disengaged or disadvantaged. Classrooms are sites for more than academics; they are environments for specific cultural and language practices where students come together to give and take meaning and understanding. The author purports that language and literacy learning entail behaviors, attitudes, unique tools, skills, and the ability to interact in different settings and to rely on multiple identities. We express our identity through language, the books and multiple forms of media we choose, and the artifacts around us. Fisher cites the literature on collective teacher efficacy and the shared belief that educators have in their students' abilities to achieve and grow in their identities. By acknowledging existing identities, students can be stretched in their learning of language, which then becomes a tool for developing new identities. Through placing value on students' identities, teachers can achieve more, especially if they collectively believe that they can do so.

Co-authors, Park, Fisher, and Frey in Chapter 11, "Building Collective Teacher Efficacy Through Teacher Collaboration" pick up on the premise in Chapter 10 related to the importance of collective efficacy. The co-authors for Chapter 11 state that both individual and collective efficacy are often overlooked in discussions about school improvement, despite the fact that these constructs exert significant influence on students' literacy learning and achievement. Based on their experience, Park, Fisher, and Frey focus on how efficacious high school English teachers in urban schools feel and in particular if they believe that their efforts

impact students' literacy lives. There is little literature specifically related to ELA teachers of adolescents. In this chapter, Park, Fisher, and Frey have profiled four high school English teachers, drawing upon interviews and observations. The chapter authors explore which teachers are self-efficacious and the collective efficacy of the teachers as a group. Key to this is the ways in which the teachers come together and how they build their collective efficacy. Then, in a pro-active stance, the authors consider how to engage themselves and their teacher colleagues in increasing efficacy and thus student literacy learning. Most importantly, the authors provide a series of recommendations that ELA teachers and their leaders can use to mobilize the impact of efficacy in their schools. Ultimately, the message is that improving teacher efficacy, individually and collectively, supports teachers to develop their agency and identity, and as a result, their job satisfaction and impact on students.

That sense of agency and identity is a key factor in the case study that is featured in the final chapter, Chapter 12, "Teachers' Collective and Self-Efficacy as Reform Agents: One Teacher Discusses Her Place in Reforming Literacy Instruction" by co-authors, Poulton, Tambyah, and Woods. In this chapter, they draw on the concepts of individual and collective self-efficacy to consider how teachers are positioned within literacy curriculum reform processes in the current education context, where accountability and standardization are key drivers in what is framed as "quality" education. They note that much of the current research in teacher efficacy aims to define and measure individual self-efficacy and collective efficacy comparing dimensions and measuring similarities between the two concepts. Chapter 12 takes the discussion in a different direction as it takes the two concepts forward through an investigation of how a teacher talks about herself as a teacher, her relationships with other teachers and leaders, and her work within a school that was in the process of implementing a reform to school-based English curriculum. In this chapter, in contrast to the tradition of many school reform researchers, these authors aim to tell a counter-story as a way to resist deficit discourses which currently circulate about teachers and teacher quality. The data collected with one teacher demonstrate high levels of self-efficacy about both herself as an individual and the teacher collective in which she works. The chapter investigated dimensions of her talk and her perspective to consider individual and collective teacher efficacy and its links to successful school-based literacy curriculum development.

This text expands on the literature examining teachers' efficacy beliefs with respect to teaching in general with a modern compilation that precisely hones in on the integral domain of twenty-first-century literacy instruction. Herein, authors add to the slight body of research into both teacher candidates' and in-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction and how to cultivate stronger teacher and collective efficacy beliefs. In this time of educational culpability, it is apparent that the development of teachers' sense of efficacy for century literacy instruction warrants attention.

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PART I

Knowledge and Measuring of Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy

CHAPTER 2

Self-Efficacy Practices That Impact Effective Reading Instruction for Young Learners

Lisa Minicozzi and Jennifer Dardzinski

Contextual Awareness

"Why do I only need to take six semester hours of literacy when a large part of my day will be spent teaching students to read?" "How do I actually teach students to read; does the school district show you how?" "When will I learn something about teaching literacy skills to the kids who are having trouble?" pre-service teachers "I'm in a school that implements 90- minute literacy blocks for kindergarten through second graders. The mentor teacher says there is a big focus on assessment, to see if the students are meeting their grade level benchmarks. Is this true?" "Professor, will you teach us how to balance all of these literacy expectations from the Common Core State Standards (CCSS)?"

These are just a few common questions we have heard over the years during advisement or course-related discussions with teacher candidates in our New York State institutions. We continue to be baffled by the

L. Minicozzi (✉)
Adelphi University, New York, NY, USA
e-mail: lminicozzi@adelphi.edu

J. Dardzinski
Five Towns College, Dix Hills, NY, USA

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lack of preparedness our teacher candidates perceive. Many have only two to three semesters of coursework, and then, they begin their student teaching experiences. These novice teachers will be immersed in primary schools that focus on teaching emergent literacy skills and reading development. In many of these classrooms, teacher candidates will see an emphasis on foundational reading and writing skills across the curriculum, a focus on text complexity and greater attention given to informational text. In addition, teacher candidates must also understand the role of content learning standards in the teaching of reading.

Effective literacy teaching is like assembling a puzzle—locating pieces (coursework, field experiences, reflection), and determining how they fit together, all in an effort to create a more complete picture. In this chapter, we will explore ways that teacher education programs can improve the self-efficacy of teacher candidates thus enhancing the pursuit of literacy for all students.

Contemporary K-2 classrooms are dynamic learning environments with lots of moving parts. Not only do teacher candidates feel underprepared to teach foundational literacy skills, but they also feel genuinely ill-equipped to assess students' reading abilities. We have heard teacher candidates ask, "What are running records," or "How often am I supposed to track students' progress…will you show me how to do this?" Comments like these have cropped up semester after semester, indicating just how uneasy teacher candidates feel about teaching literacy across early childhood and primary-level classrooms.

Maybe these students felt unprepared because in New York State teacher education programs only require teacher candidates to take a minimum of six semester hours in the teaching of literacy skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing to native English speakers (Office of College and University Evaluation, 2014). It is time to take a closer look at what essential learning objectives are being addressed in foundational literacy courses for teacher candidates at the program level in New York State as well as other jurisdictions. According to the National Council on Teacher Quality (2018), fewer than four in ten professors taught the components of effective reading instruction. In addition, a 2013 UNESCO report affirms that teacher training fails to prepare teachers with specific pedagogical content knowledge in the areas of math and reading. This is further corroborated by a Canadian study which called attention to the lack of appropriate literacy preparation for teacher candidates (Gambhir, Broad, Evans, & Gaskell, 2008). Dissatisfaction

with teacher quality has become a global concern, sparking reform initiatives aimed at increased clinical or field-based learning opportunities (Puryear, 2015). As responsive teacher educators, we find ourselves concerned about the transferability of what teacher candidates learn through coursework and how they apply those skills in their own classrooms during field-based experiences and student teaching. From a practical standpoint, this chapter will address the following questions:

How impactful are teacher education programs in building teacher candidates' self-efficacy?

What is the relationship between teacher candidates' self-efficacy and their knowledge of teaching early literacy?

Introduction

For most children, learning to read is a developmental process that follows a sequence of behaviors. Foundational reading skills are generally developed by students in the primary grades (Brown, 2014). Teachers of young children know that in order for students to master reading, there needs to be a comprehensive approach that aims to guide students toward proficiency in written as well as oral communication. These skills serve as a literate foundation for later learning. Generally, successful early readers have been shown to retain such skills which lead to improved learning outcomes across multiple domains (Strickland & Riley-Ayers, 2006). Moreover, the literacy and language skills students need to understand narrative texts differs from the skills required to understand reading and writing in different academic disciplines (Brownell, Sindelar, Kiely, & Danielson, 2010). It is not surprising that reading in particular can be a difficult task for many young children and consequently, in the United States, are not meeting basic proficiency on state reading assessments. According to the 2017 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP), 65% of eighth-grade students scored, "below proficient," which indicates that many children are reading below-accepted grade-level benchmarks.

It is a well-established through research (Strickland & Riley-Ayers, 2006) that children who gain early reading proficiency will meet with greater academic success than their peers who struggle with reading skills. Yet, teacher candidates recognize that teaching a struggling reader is not a simple task (Kindle & Schmidt, 2011). Therefore, understanding

the multifaceted nature of reading instruction requires confident, knowledgeable, and highly effective teachers. We have certainly found that highly effective teachers are educators who engage students with meaningful learning, create positive and joyful associations with school, and impact student achievement. Research supports these notions and confirms that teachers remain a vital factor in students' literacy performance (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2017). If teacher educators know this all to be true, why are so many teacher candidates feeling unprepared to teach literacy in K-5 classrooms?

Indeed, a review of the literature on literacy pedagogies taught at universities and how future teachers will implement effective literacy strategies into their daily practice reveals that many teacher candidates feel ill-prepared to teach literacy in their own K-5 classrooms (Moats, 1999; NCTQ, 2018). For decades, teacher educators have followed the historic trends in reading pedagogy known as the *reading wars*—the debate between emphasizing whole language (teaching word recognition) or phonics (teaching decoding). In 2000, the National Reading Panel published its seminal report, *Teaching Children to Read*, which identified effective or evidence-based practices for teaching young children to read. Despite this report, almost twenty years later, recent research has signaled concern over the growing gap that exists between teacher preparation and what empirical evidence says about the teaching of reading (NCTQ, 2018; Salinger et al., 2010).

Teacher educators are acutely aware of what is effective, recommended instructional practice to support the development of students' reading skills; however, it is unclear if teacher candidates are being taught all of the components of effective reading instruction. There also seems to be considerable variation among elementary teacher education program requirements for field-based learning. We have found that teacher candidates benefit from extended opportunities (fieldwork) to practice skills and strategies modeled through coursework with K-5 students.

Components of Effective Reading Instruction

According to the National Reading Panel (2000), effective reading instruction should address the domains of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. In addition to understanding the effective components for reading instruction, teacher candidates must also appreciate the developmental continuum for learning to read

and write. Teacher candidates should also have a strong knowledge base in syntax, semantics, and text structure in order to build comprehension and writing skills. Finally, having an awareness that individual students' needs and sociocultural contexts influence learning can better help teacher candidates differentiate instruction to meet the diversity evident in today's classrooms. Teacher education programs should emphasize a research-based core curriculum that focuses on best practices in all aspects of reading instruction (Moats, 1999).

How Should Teacher Educators Teach Reading?

The teaching of reading is a complex task. In our work with teacher candidates, we have observed many challenges and barriers in how they come to understand the practical aspects of planning and implementing effective literacy instruction. As a first step, teacher educators might clearly identify the five components of effective reading instruction for teacher candidates. Decades of research have shed light on what constitutes effective reading instruction: basic phoneme awareness (letter sound correspondence), systematic and explicit instructional strategies, engagement with a variety of texts which involves shared and independent reading activities, exposure to vocabulary rich environments, strategies to build reading comprehension skills, and ample opportunities to write to foster deeper understanding of what is read (Lyon, 1998; Moats, 1999). We recommend that all teacher candidates have exposure to initial coursework that focuses on the aforementioned core components of effective reading instruction. Coupled with coursework, teacher candidates need field-based experiences that enable them to apply the content-related skills to classroom learning.

Table 2.1 is an example of how one teacher educator aligned course learning objectives ("students" are teacher candidates) with the components of effective reading instruction. This chart also illustrates a practical application for teacher candidates to reference during fieldwork experiences.

The Role of Self-Efficacy in Teacher Education

Effective literacy teaching is about pedagogical and content knowledge as well as confidence in delivery. Strong literacy teachers have the ability to teach skills, strategies, and concepts to all young learners, and they are

Table 2.1 Example of the components of reading instruction in learning objectives and practical applications

Components of effective reading instruction	*Learning objective*	*Practical application*
Phonemic awareness	Students will be able to understand that words are made up of individual sounds (phonemes) c/a/t	Use multisensory approaches for recognizing sounds in words (tapping out words). Teach teacher candidates about explicit instruction—blending and segmenting sounds—make games
Phonics	Students understand the relationships between letters and sounds to speak and write words	Have teacher candidates create lessons for: word families, sorting, consonant blends, digraphs. Create sequential phonics lessons across a week to highlight the importance of systematic phonics instruction
Fluency	Students develop understanding of the importance of reading accurately, with meaningful expression and appropriate speed	Use strategies that focus on decoding and building on vocabulary. Introduce teacher candidates to appropriate fluency software applications (1-minute read app) to guide oral reading development
Vocabulary	Students learn the importance of oral language development	Work with teacher candidates to create lesson plans that focus on word recognition. Create opportunities for teacher candidates to see, hear, read, and write new words during read alouds, word walls, word sorts, (Frayer model)
Comprehension	Students understand that comprehension is one skill in building reading which includes decoding, encoding, and fluency	Engage teacher candidates in activities that model learning techniques to help monitor student progress. Use questioning and conferencing as a means to assess student understanding. Focus on story maps, main idea, concept development, details

affirmed in their ability to do so. Beginning teachers have a tendency to adopt a teaching style similar to the way their master teachers taught or to recall their past experiences as a learner (Alger, 2007). When teacher candidates model themselves after others who possess the skills and talents necessary to overcome challenges, this can boost their sense of self-efficacy and nurture their teaching capabilities (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). It is likely that when teachers believe they can meet the diverse learning needs in a class and are successful in doing so, their sense of self-efficacy improves. Teacher candidates would benefit from practical experiences with effective teachers to develop the necessary skills needed to teach emergent literacy, K-5. It is critical for teacher educators to understand the cyclical relationship between self-efficacy and teacher performance in order to better support teacher candidates. As Alger (2009) suggests, learned practice is an essential ingredient for improvement of any task. Given the complexities inherent in teaching literacy, K-5, how then do teacher educators support the development of teacher candidates' practice and strong sense of self-efficacy?

Most teachers express that they are not adequately prepared to take on the many challenges of daily classroom teaching. Teacher candidates need to appreciate how their self-efficacy plays a role in their ability to persist through difficult times and to seek help when needed. For the purposes of this chapter, self-efficacy is defined as beliefs teacher candidates hold about their direct abilities to teach within the context of literacy instruction.

What Is Self-Efficacy?

Self-efficacy is situated within a broader theoretical framework, social cognitive theory. Having been researched and explored for over 25 years, teacher efficacy, or the belief in one's ability to advance student learning, has been linked to teacher effectiveness and professional growth. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is the extent to which individuals believe in their ability to successfully execute a task. In turn, one's beliefs then influence behavior. This being said, teachers' behaviors can be influenced by personal beliefs about one's competency and then the course of action taken to execute a specific task. Within this framework, Bandura (1977) outlined four sources of influence in which self-efficacy can be developed: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological state. As applied to the field of teaching,

mastery experiences represent actual teaching, vicarious experiences involve a candidate observing another individual teaching (participant observations), verbal persuasion includes any teaching content communicated to a candidate, and physiological state refers to the emotional state a candidate feels while engaging in experiences related to the previous three sources of information. Bandura concludes that mastery experiences provide the most effective way of gaining self-efficacy.

Having the ability to successfully execute a task builds confidence and competence. Teacher educators have to build teacher candidates' self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation to become resilient teachers. In an era of accountability and rigorous content-based learning, teachers who believe they can successfully teach all children will demonstrate teaching behaviors that support this goal (Protheroe, 2008). Therefore, it is recommended that teacher educators include multiple direct experiences during coursework and program planning, for teacher candidates to work with a variety of learners in field-based environments to grow self-efficacy beliefs.

Developing Self-Efficacious Teachers of Literacy

Focusing on the teaching of literacy, teachers who feel confident in their ability to teach the essential reading components (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension) may have improved learning outcomes for their future students (Tetley & Jones, 2014). Our teacher candidates have shared, "having the time to really practice running records helped my confidence," and "once I understood how easy the iPad reading app was to work I was able to share it with a parent and together we guided the student to build his fluency over a very short time." As we have found anecdotally, with our teacher candidates, as they gain proficiency with their knowledge of effective reading strategies, and have directed hands-on experiences, their sense of efficacy grows.

Indeed, we have evidence from our own program delivery that teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs increased as a result of positive fieldwork experiences and in class interactive lessons. Our teacher candidates have defined positive experiences as "hands-on," "working one on one," and "having the opportunity to teach either whole group or small group reading lessons." These descriptions can be generalized to the literature on teacher self-efficacy more generally. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) teacher efficacy takes into consideration both the perceived

competence to teach and contextual features such as students' motivational levels, content-related materials, pedagogical approach, and school environment. For that reason, teacher efficacy is dependent upon the teaching task and its broader context. As illustration, a first-grade teacher in a progressive suburban district with ample resources would have a greater sense of self-efficacy than the same teacher in an inner-city urban environment which lacked adequate resources. This first-grade teacher might have the same level of teacher preparation but the context in which she finds herself teaching impacts her confidence and ability to successfully teach (due in part to limited resources).

In review, teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy:

- Plan thoughtful and well-crafted lessons;
- Tend to be open to new ideas;
- Demonstrate a willingness to experiment with a variety of pedagogical approaches to meet the diversity of needs in the class;
- Exhibit resiliency and persistence when faced with challenges;
- Take ownership of students' learning outcomes and try to meet their needs;
- Believe they can impact student achievement.

Redefining Fieldwork Experiences

Given the fact that mastery experiences provide the most effective way of gaining self-efficacy, field experiences need to include mastery level competencies to expand and challenge personal beliefs while providing growth opportunities for teacher candidates. Rethinking field experiences to enact more *learning by doing* and less participant observation could better prepare teacher candidates for the challenges and dilemmas of teaching literacy in K-5 classrooms. Having authentic field-based learning opportunities that are linked to literacy coursework outcomes would greatly benefit teacher candidates. For example, having teacher candidates conduct a reading assessment, write up a report, and determine the appropriate instructional reading level for a student, would contribute to their positive efficacy beliefs during teacher education and beyond.

In order to effectively teach reading to young children, teacher candidates need time to develop their craft—hone strategies and skills learned through coursework with a clear focus on reading and writing instruction. How then do we prepare teachers to be highly competent and

optimistic about supporting students' literacy development in today's K-5 classrooms? We begin by redesigning course syllabi to better align with the demands presently reflected in contemporary classrooms.

Table 2.2 illustrates an example of alignment between the components of effective reading instruction and coursework experiences (e.g., assignments) as well as fieldwork (practical) applications.

In order for teacher candidates to gain confidence in their teaching abilities, it becomes incumbent upon teacher educators to provide rich coursework opportunities (e.g., field-based experiences, immersion activities) that explicitly focus on the teaching of reading instruction. Teacher candidates grow their confidence as they gain both content and pedagogical knowledge. As Alger (2009) suggests, practice is an essential ingredient for improvement of any task. We recommend that teacher education programs regularly assess their current field-based partnerships to ensure a successful teacher candidate learning experiences. Contemporary classrooms need highly qualified teachers, ready and willing to take on the charge of teaching reading to all learners.

Field-based experiences should be constructive, consistent, and directly related to coursework. Cultivating improved opportunities for field-based learning is becoming a global concern. As recently outlined in a pan-European study, there is tremendous variance with regard to field-based practicums. For example, a prospective primary-level teacher candidate may be required to fulfill 40 hours of field-based learning in Latvia, as opposed to a teacher candidate's required 900 hours in Austria (Eurydice, 2011). Since we know that the more time a teacher candidate spends in the classroom the better prepared they feel, we advocate for coherent and continuing field-based learning opportunities.

Implications for Practice

Many colleges of education across the United States are experiencing teachers feeling underprepared to meet the diverse needs represented in today's classrooms. According to the National Council on Teacher Quality (2018), only 39% of undergraduate teacher preparation programs surveyed focused on the five essential components of effective reading instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension). We reiterate that teacher candidates should be exposed to consistent coursework that embraces all components. Yet, findings show that beginning teachers do not always embrace

Table 2.2 Illustration of the components of reading instruction in coursework experiences and fieldwork applications

Components of effective reading instruction	*Coursework experience*	*Fieldwork application*
Phonemic awareness	Create lesson plans that focus on phonemic awareness	Read big books, clapping syllables, and word families. Have teacher candidates conduct whole class lessons focusing on letter–sound correspondence
Phonics	Review common letter–sound relationships, including sounds for common letter patterns, so that readers can apply them in decoding unfamiliar words	Explicit instruction working with a small group of children. Have teacher candidates assess children and organize guided reading groups
Fluency	Read about fluency strategies, learn how to conduct a running record	Have teacher candidates practice enacting running records, repeated reading, paired reading, reader's theatre, audio-assisted reading
Vocabulary	Emphasize that vocabulary plays a key role in learning to read	Allow time for children to independently read. Explicit teaching of specific vocabulary words and dictionary use. Have teacher candidates practice reading aloud to whole group and small groups
Comprehension	Review behaviors that good readers use to make sense of text. Comprehension instruction to assist students to become purposeful, active readers that take control of their own reading comprehension	Use semantic organizers to assist students, monitor by asking specific questions. Have teacher candidates assess students to monitor reading progression

a theoretical approach to understanding pedagogy (Flynn, 2007). Over two decades ago, Commeyras and DeGroff (1998) asked, "how much and what practices constitute as enough, and to what degree are teaching practices being influenced by the new trends?" (p. 434). Without an understanding of teacher education learning, teacher educators cannot be confident that their efforts will be beneficial to prospective teachers.

It is recommended that teacher education programs direct attention to developing programmatic fieldwork experiences that directly link with course learning objectives. Embracing such an approach may ensure that teacher candidates are realizing the full potential of field-based learning as authentic teacher preparation training. Research in this area highlights the *practice* aspect of teacher training as a scaffold for deeper understanding, increased notions of self-efficacy, and an essential component to feeling successful as a teacher (Tatar & Buldur, 2013).

Coursework in Emergent Literacy and Fieldwork

Teachers of young children need to have a solid theoretical understanding of how children learn, emphasizing the complexity of symbolic thinking and how it precedes phonemic awareness. Early childhood teachers benefit from preparation that explores how to effectively integrate a variety of developmentally appropriate curricula and methods for teaching early literacy skills (Bredekamp & Copple, 2009). When thinking about younger children, we recommend taking a multisensory approach so that young learners have kinesthetic experiences to build literacy skills. As espoused by the NAEYC and IRA (1998), teachers of young children must establish developmentally appropriate literacy goals and continually adjust instructional strategies for the variety of learning needs represented in K-2 classrooms. For example, foundational emergent literacy coursework should include exploration of developmentally appropriate curricula and methods for teaching early literacy skills, infancy through second grade. A primary focus of any emergent literacy course for early childhood teachers ought to emphasize the vital role of the early childhood teacher in supporting literacy development in young children, both in a home and/or school setting. Teacher candidates need to understand the intrinsic values of literacy in the home and in school and that emergent literacy begins well before kindergarten. In addition, teacher candidates would have ample opportunities to enact a variety of pedagogical strategies and approaches including, storytelling, remediation, enrichment, spelling and writing skills for both native and non-native English Language Learners. Linked directly with coursework, it is recommended that teacher candidates execute a minimum of 25 hours of fieldwork, in literacy learning settings, involving supervised participant-observer opportunities for students to both see and interact with young children in various stages of emergent literacy development.

Coursework in Informational Text and Fieldwork

Since the adoption of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), there is an emphasis on the teaching of literacy through the academic disciplines. Children use informational text well beyond the walls of the classroom throughout various aspects of their lives. Therefore, teachers today must consider instructional strategies to help young children master varied literacy skills and, at the same time, learn new content as they read. Children need to understand the overall organization of a text to make a meaningful connection between content items presented in the text, identify the main idea, and learn new content. In order for children to understand informational text, teachers need to effectively teach general text structures (text description, compare and contrast, problem/solution, cause/effect, and sequence) through examining the organization of text. Ultimately, we recommend that children receive explicit instruction for text structures along with reading a variety of texts. Teachers can provide this experience by defining concepts, use of various teaching methods, and providing a variety of ways to organize or map out the information in the text that highlights content connections such as with graphic organizers.

Informational text offers the potential for increased engagement by students. Students with limited reading ability can still access information about the natural world, local history, culture, or figures from history as they build their vocabulary and comprehension. More specifically, visual/spatial learners benefit from the use of organizers, maps, photographs, and charts in informational texts. In these forms, content information is offered and structured in concise pieces of information that may be manageable for students from special populations with evolving reading skills. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) analyses found that teachers who had more professional training were more likely to use teaching practices that are associated with higher reading achievement on the NAEP tests.

It is important for teacher candidates to be competent teaching informational text. Research indicates that today more than ever, adults are reading nonfiction, informational text material, including web-oriented resources (Smith, 2000). In order to prepare young learners for real-world reading practices and improved reading engagement, teacher preparation programs should look to focus on the importance of reading informational text. As we have discussed, learned practice is an essential

ingredient for improvement of any task (Alger, 2009). Having teacher candidates design lessons that define and identify the features of informational text during fieldwork experiences, would prepare them to meet the complexities of teaching literacy in today's K-5 classrooms.

Preparing for Diverse Classrooms

Preparing teacher candidates to be culturally responsive teachers requires colleges of education to have teacher candidates participate in diverse field placements. In doing so, teacher candidates have time to tutor and work individually with all learners to better understand the many factors of student difference that influence literacy learning. Research has indicated that new teachers need to be encouraged to engage in dialogue about language, literacy, and social justice and be prepared for the rich and diverse contexts they will encounter in their teaching career (Gross, Fitts, Goodson-Espy, & Clark, 2010). In addition to teaching the components effective reading instruction, teacher candidates must be knowledgeable about intervention protocols and systems to support literacy development for struggling readers. They need to understand research-based practices and effective instructional strategies to continually provide learning opportunities for all students, especially those from diverse backgrounds.

As the research suggests, literacy and language development is multifaceted, ideologically shaped, and content-specific (Eckert, Turner, Alsup, & Knoeller, 2004). We agree that effective literacy instruction is not a "one-size fits-all" approach to teaching and requires today's teachers to adapt their instruction to better meet the needs of students. Therefore, it is important for teacher educators to provide opportunities for teacher candidates to analyze strategies in identifying individual student learning needs and differences to be able to design effective literacy plans to accommodate growth. As the research suggests, it is beneficial for teacher candidates to have direct experiences working with diverse learners to bridge theoretical understanding and practical application to classroom learning (Voss & Bufkin, 2011). Essentially, teacher candidates benefit from ongoing trial and error—having the opportunity to enact an approach and assessing the impact on student learning.

Early in the teacher education program, teacher candidates need to understand the different skills, abilities, linguistics, and cultural characteristics in classrooms. This background knowledge can help shape

teacher candidates' instructional approaches and ensuing self-efficacy beliefs. Taken together, the components for effective literacy instruction, fieldwork experiences, and background on accounting for learning differences all contribute to essential elements for teacher education courses in literacy and English language arts. Teacher educators who effectively teach reading:

- Include course objectives that focus on the teaching of phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension;
- Underscore that reading is a developmental process;
- Introduce a range of pedagogical strategies;
- Introduce a range of assessment measures to monitor reading progress;
- Provide literacy-rich fieldwork experiences that allow teacher candidates to apply skills and strategies to practice;
- Prepare teacher candidates to be sensitive to the impact of race, class, culture, economic disadvantage, and disability in an emergent literacy program;
- Model effective strategies to incorporate instruction in multicultural, gender, class, global, and environmental issues.

Opportunities for Teacher Educators

Many colleges of education across the United States are full of teacher candidates feeling underprepared to meet the varied needs of students today. This chapter has offered recommendations for revisions to course syllabi and redefining fieldwork experiences, but other opportunities are also available. For example, one university in the Southeastern United States is taking action by increasing the amount of field experience for teacher candidates in low socioeconomic schools. Teacher candidates are assigned to mentor teachers for the entire fieldwork experience of two consecutive semesters. Mentors teachers act as liaisons between the university and school district and also serve as mentors to the teacher candidates. As reported by these teacher candidates, "I gained valuable insight from my college professors and mentor teachers, and was able to apply what I learned during the student teaching experience." Another teacher candidate stated that "the most beneficial aspect of the literacy coursework at the university was that it integrated fieldwork, we gained valuable practical experience, we were required to teach lessons that revolved around writing, fluency, language development using props, morphology,

and read aloud." "I really liked how there was an emphasis on the importance of oral language, books and print knowledge and phonological awareness in emergent reading and how these domains may be scaffolded in the upper grades." Overall, teacher candidates reported they felt very prepared to teach in diverse classrooms. Whether implementing strategies to struggling readers or challenging students to read at a higher level, teacher candidates developed a deeper understanding of the integration of theory and practice as compared to the traditional teacher candidates. Not surprisingly, the school district administrators stated these teacher candidates were better prepared to teach the diversity of learners present in today's classrooms, then the more traditional graduates.

Reimagining literacy coursework to include direct fieldwork experiences to create a focused practicum experience with supported mentoring will engender an environment based on evidence-based literacy instruction (Rogers, Marshall, & Tyson, 2006; Ronfeldt, Schwartz, & Jacob, 2014). Teacher candidates need opportunities to challenge their assumptions, broaden their belief systems, and develop a more complex understanding of literacy, diversity, and schooling.

Not surprisingly, we recommend that teacher education programs emphasize collaboration between university faculty, mentor teachers, and teacher candidates. Faculty members need to better understand the real-world teaching demands placed on teacher candidates in order to prepare them throughout their program of study. We have seen too many teacher candidates feel disconnected and criticize program experiences with comments like, "When was the last time Professor Duncan taught in a second grade classroom?" or "My university supervisor doesn't understand how much time is really spent on literacy." Collaboration in conjunction with critical reflection remains the key to creating dynamic preparatory experiences for today's teacher candidates.

As is the case of most teacher education programs, emphasis should be placed on having teacher candidates understand the importance of critical reflection. As teacher candidates begin to make autonomous classroom decisions, they refine their teaching identity and develop their sense of self-efficacy. As part of their preparation, teacher candidates are often asked to challenge traditional pedagogical methods to further enhance their ability to grow as educators. Fostering critical reflection within the context of the content-driven learning standards is an important aspect of bridging the divide between theoretical understanding and effective classroom reading practices.

Concluding Thoughts

This we know to be true—as teachers, when the lesson goes well on any given day, we feel almost unbeatable. When students have engaged with the material, worked through challenges, and shown a level of mastery, there isn't a better reward for teachers. Teacher educators have a vital role to play in developing knowledgeable, confident, and well-prepared teacher candidates to meet the diverse reading needs in contemporary K-5 classrooms. By arming teacher candidates with theoretical knowledge and evidence-based literacy practices, they will have the ability to implement and support instruction for all readers. The current educational classroom climate has a heavy focus on literacy development, typically students spend between 60 and 90 minutes a day just on skill building. Therefore, preparing teacher candidates to understand and more importantly be able to enact the components of effective reading instruction will increase self-efficacy beliefs and in turn promote positive learning outcomes for classroom learners.

Yes, the teaching of reading is a complex task—one that requires a shared responsibility between mentor teachers and university educators. By equipping teacher candidates with the necessary knowledge and hands-on experiences necessary to support literacy learning, teacher education programs can better prepare new teachers to meet the many challenges that are essential with educating students today. In doing so, colleges of education can build teacher candidates' sense of self-efficacy which in the age of accountability and standards is of critical importance. Teachers who genuinely believe they can reach all students demonstrate a commitment to education that is inclusive and ultimately successful for all children.

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CHAPTER 3

Do Teacher Candidates in English-Speaking Countries Understand the Structure of the English Language?

Emily Binks-Cantrell, Erin K. Washburn, and R. Malatesha Joshi

Over the past two decades, English-speaking countries in the world have experienced major national reading initiatives aimed at improving the way its students learn to read through the implementation of "research-based reading instruction" (RBRI), including the United States' *Report of the National Reading Panel* (NICHD, 2000), England's *Rose Review* (Rose, 2006), New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce* (1999), and Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy* (2009). At the same time however, numerous studies have begun to highlight a critical missing component in the

E. Binks-Cantrell (✉) · R. Malatesha Joshi
Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA
e-mail: aggieemily@tamu.edu

R. Malatesha Joshi
e-mail: mjoshi@tamu.edu

E. K. Washburn
University of North Carolina, Charlotte, NC, USA
e-mail: ewashbu1@uncc.edu

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implementation of RBRI: teacher knowledge (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001; McCutchen, Harry, et al., 2002; Moats, 1994, 2000; Moats & Lyon, 1996; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2003). It is obvious that in order for these initiatives to be successful in their premises of implementing RBRI in their nations' classrooms, the nations' teachers must be prepared with the knowledge necessary to do so.

The aims of this chapter are threefold: (1) a qualitative comparison of the recent and current literacy initiatives in the United States, England, Canada, and New Zealand; (2) a quantitative comparison of results from a survey of basic language constructs of teacher candidates from the United States, England, Canada, and New Zealand, and; (3) a discussion about the potential influences national reading initiatives might play in affecting teacher candidates' performance on the surveys, as well as potential influences on teacher candidates' self-efficacy and beliefs regarding literacy instruction. Further, an instrument for assessing teacher knowledge of basic language constructs necessary for RBRI will be discussed in terms of its validation for research purposes.

United States' Reading Initiatives

During the late 1980s through the 1990s, reading instruction in the United States was largely influenced by the "whole language" approach (Goodman & Goodman, 1979). This approach emphasized the importance of making meaning from reading, while often overlooking the necessary prerequisites of decoding through alphabetic and phonetic knowledge. As children were taught to read words as wholes or by sight, the United States saw statistically significant declines in student achievement nationwide (NAEP, 1990).

In 1998, a groundbreaking study conducted by the National Research Council found three topic areas central to learning to read: alphabetics, fluency, and comprehension (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Alphabetics includes the ability to hear the sounds of spoken language (phonological awareness) and connect these sounds to written letters and letter combinations (alphabetic principle and phonics). Fluency entails the ability to recognize words at a reasonable rate and with proper expression. Comprehension, the ultimate goal of reading, which is to make meaning from what is read, is best attained when the first two areas are successfully mastered.

Two years later, the *National Reading Panel* (*NRP*, NICHD, 2000) released its findings from a meta-analysis on research in reading. The

studies included in the *NRP*'s meta-analysis meet the following criteria: (1) published in English in a refereed journal; (2) focused on children's reading development in the age/grade range from preschool to grade 12; and (3) used an experimental or quasi-experimental design with a control group or a multiple-baseline method. The *Panel* identified the five most-researched (and also essential) components of effective reading instruction to be phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The findings highlighted the importance of "explicit" and "systematic" instruction in: the blending and segmenting of the individual sounds in words (phonemic awareness) as a critical prerequisite, the direct teaching of synthetic phonics (also critical, but not an entire program), fluency training through guided and repeated oral reading, vocabulary development through repeated and rich exposure, and comprehension training in the use of strategies such as question answering, question generation, and summarization.

From this research, the US Department of Education implemented, *Reading First*, a part of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, which required the use of reading instruction based on scientifically based research (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003). The criteria of scientifically based research include: (1) employ systematic, empirical methods that draw on observation or experiment; (2) involve rigorous data analyses that are adequate to test the stated hypotheses and justify the general conclusions; (3) rely on measurements or observational methods that provide valid data across evaluators and observers, and across multiple measurements and observations; and (4) be accepted by a peer-reviewed journal or approved by a panel of independent experts through a comparatively rigorous, objective, and scientific review. While part of this movement entailed professional development for in-service teachers regarding the use of scientifically based reading research in relation to classroom instruction, very limited professional development for teacher educators was provided, with programs such as the *Higher Education Collaborative* being implemented in only a handful of states.

England's Reading Initiatives

In 1997, England implemented the *National Literacy Strategy*, which required all primary schools to teach the "literacy hour," a structured hour devoted each day to literacy for all pupils. This was followed by a national curriculum for Initial Teacher Training that required teacher

education programs to give "top priority" to ensuring that all trainee primary teachers could "teach literacy well" (DfEE, 1998). While the premises of these initiatives seem admirable, weaknesses remained in that there was no clear distinction between word recognition and language comprehension activities. While phonics was emphasized, there was no provision regarding the specifics about the most effective type of or approach to phonics instruction.

Nearly ten years later, Sir Jim Rose conducted an independent review of the teaching of early reading entitled the *Rose Review* (Rose, 2006). This report highlights the "simple view of reading" (first proposed by Gough and Tunmer in 1986), which states that reading is comprised most simply of two major components: word recognition (or, decoding) and language comprehension. Rose states that abilities in these two components are "generally achieved as a result of direct instruction" and that deficit in one or both of these components accounts for reading disabilities such as dyslexia (decoding deficit) and hyperlexia (comprehension deficit) (see Fig. 3.1). Although the *Rose Review* focuses on the teaching

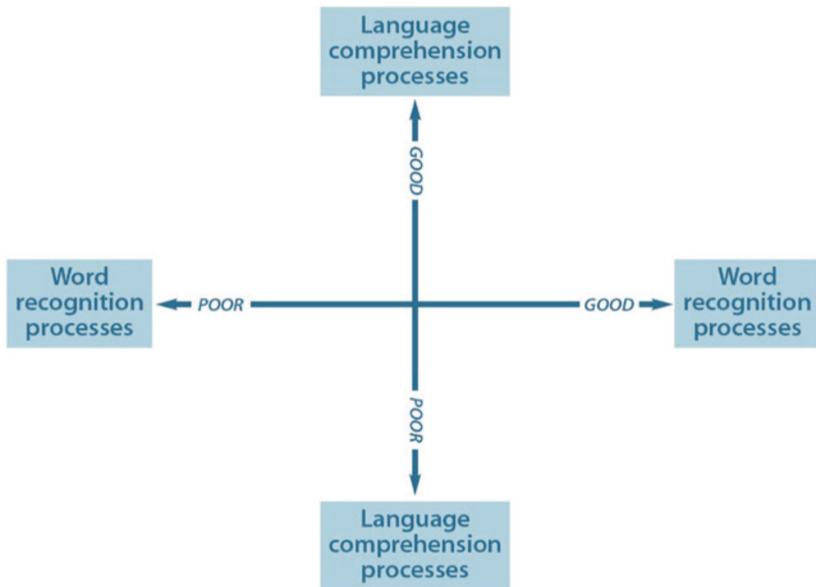

Fig. 3.1 Simple view of reading (from the *Rose Review*, 2006)

of early reading, Rose does highlight that "developing the abilities necessary to understanding and appreciating written texts in different content areas and literary genres continues throughout the lifespan" and discusses the importance of transitioning students from the "learning to read" stages to the "reading to learn" stages (Chall, 1983).

Rose was more specific than the previous National Literacy Strategy in discussing "high-quality phonic work." The *Rose Review* discusses the specifics of introducing and teaching grapheme–phoneme correspondences in a clearly defined, incremental sequence. It also highlights the synthetic phonics approach and the ability to apply this highly important skill of blending phonemes in the order in which they occur, all through a word, to decode it. Conversely, the *Rose Review* also emphasizes teaching the ability to apply the skills of segmenting words into their constituent phonemes to spell and that blending and segmenting are reversible processes. In terms of instruction, the report emphasizes a multisensory approach to the teaching of reading, such as manipulating magnetic or other solid letters to build words or activities involving physical movement to copy letter shapes. The sequential stages highlighted by Rose include: (1) introduction of grapheme–phoneme correspondences; (2) reading and spelling simple regular words; (3) introduction of sounds that are represented by more than one letter; (4) introduction of alternative grapheme–phoneme correspondences; and (5) introduction of "tricky" words.

England has incorporated the findings from the *Rose Review* into the revised Primary Framework for Literacy as well as the *National Curriculum*. Following this, England's Teacher Development Agency (TDA) began to provide optional training for teacher educators in such strategies, and this teacher educator training became mandatory in the 2009–2010 school year.

New Zealand's Reading Initiatives

Much like the organization of the *NRP* and *Rose Review*, the New Zealand government commissioned the formation of a government committee to explore widespread concern over literacy standards (NZ House of Representatives, 2001). Additionally, a *literacy taskforce*, consisting of teachers, school principals, and consultants and a literacy experts group of university-based academics convened to provide guidance to

the taskforce. Prior to this commissioned committee, the teaching of reading was based on handbooks for teaching reading (Department of Education, 1985; Ministry of Education, 1996) in which the teaching of phonic knowledge and word decoding strategies were de-emphasized and context cues were given preference for word recognition. As illustration, the premise was that, "trying to 'learn' to read printed words out of context, where their meaning is not clear, can be confusing for students" (Ministry of Education, 1996, p. 43), and "using grapho-phonic cues, therefore, as the *first* method of dealing with a problem often interferes with understanding … It is better that children predict meaning from other cues at the outset" (Department of Education, 1985, p. 48).

The taskforce itself did not make specific suggestions regarding teacher knowledge of phonics, but more generally suggested that the teaching of reading should be better, and that teacher education entry standards should be higher (*Literacy Taskforce*, Ministry of Education, 1999). The *Literacy Taskforce's* report was more specific in its recommendations that phonics instruction be included in teacher education programs and be implemented by in-service teachers. Following these recommendations, the Ministry of Education in their curricular guidance document, titled, *Literacy Learning Progressions: Meeting the Reading and Writing Demands of the Curriculum*, noted that "literacy learners need to learn the code of written language" (p. 4) and refer to phonic knowledge use as a strategy for identifying unknown words, and as a form of knowledge that children should use, and be taught, as they develop as readers (Ministry of Education, 2010). However, there is little specific guidance on what should be taught and even less on how to teach it, relying on a patchwork of private professional development providers to supply it if a school decides to use it.

Canada's Reading Initiatives

In Canada, *The Canadian Language and Literacy Research Network (CLLRNET)* was formed by a group of education, literacy, and public interest organizations to coordinate efforts to improve literacy skills in Canadian youth. CLLRNET's report entitled the *National Strategy for Early Literacy* (NSEL, CLLRN, 2009) acknowledged the importance of effective classroom instruction and suggests fundamental activities include:

> … balanced teaching of skills, literature, and writing; scaffolding and matching demands to student competence/encouragement of student's abilities; self-regulatory learning (i.e., students actively monitor their learning); cross-curricular connections (e.g., reading and writing instruction in all subjects); and lessons that are broken down into clearly related components. (CLLRNET, 2009, p. 30)

The report and recommendations published by the *NSEL* were also heavily influenced by the *Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children* (Snow et al., 1998), prepared by leading academics in the United States. As such, the *CLLRNET* also endorses that Canadian teachers focus on: (1) print awareness; (2) decoding which includes letter knowledge, phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, and understanding the alphabetic principle; (3) vocabulary; (4) reading comprehension; and (5) fluency (*NSEL*, 2009, p. 31). However, explicit recommendations regarding teacher preparation were not included in the report. Canada has 13 provincial/territorial jurisdictions in which departments or ministries of education are responsible for the organization, delivery, and assessment of education. While national strategies such as the *NSEL* provide some unified guidance for education, the actual implementation of such strategies can widely vary by provinces and territories.

Comparison of the Initiatives

While both the findings of the US's *NRP* and England's *Rose Review* emphasize the importance of phonics, specifically systematic and synthetic approaches to phonics instruction, the two also entail marked differences. While the *NRP* highlights the importance of phonemic awareness as a prerequisite skill to learning phonics (although also emphasizes incorporating the two together in instruction), the *Rose Review* does not emphasize phonemic awareness as a unique prerequisite to phonics (and makes no real clear distinction between the two skills). Further, while the *Rose Review* discusses literacy as a lifelong learning process with the goal of moving from "learning to read" to "reading to learn," it does not devote as much focus to the teaching and skills of fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, even in early reading, as the *NRP* does. The *Rose Review* seems to emphasize phonics as an entire beginning reading program, which the *NRP* advises against.

Interestingly, Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy* aligns very closely with the US's *NRP*, whereas New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce*

aligns more closely with England's *Rose Review*. Perhaps the alignment between the US's *NRP* and Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy* is in part due to the common influence from the National Research Council (Snow et al., 1998). Both the *National Strategy for Early Literacy* and *NRP* emphasize the need for explicit and systematic instruction in phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension as part of an effective, comprehensive early literacy program. The main difference between the *NRP* and *National Strategy for Early Literacy* is that, similar to the *Rose Review* and unlike the *NRP*, the *National Strategy for Early Literacy* does not emphasize phonemic awareness as its own unique component of a reading program but rather as part of phonics instruction.

On the other hand, New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce* does not emphasize phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary, or comprehension as unique, essential components of an effective literacy program, but, very similar to England's *Rose Review*, places almost all emphasis on phonics as an early reading program. Both the *Rose Review* and *Literacy Taskforce* seemed to take a 180° turn from the previous emphasis on context clues and semantics as a primary strategy for decoding unknown words. However, unlike England's *Rose Review*, which emphasizes the need for direct, systematic phonics instruction and lays out a very explicit sequence for doing so, New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce* does not provide much specific information about what and how to teach phonics effectively.

The *NSEL* in Canada noted a need for balance across multiple components (e.g., print awareness, letter knowledge, phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle, etc.) and did not seem to privilege one component over the other. Further, the *NSEL* did not provide specific recommendations for teacher preparation but did highlight the need for home- and community-based programming designed to support young children's language and literacy development. The latter suggestion was unique in comparison with the US's *NRP* and England's *Rose Review*. Researchers have noted that initiatives surrounding the teaching of reading in New Zealand have been, historically, focused heavily on a top-down approach to reading (e.g., Patel, 2010; Tumner, Chapman, & Prochnow, 2004) with a greater emphasis on using context clues to predict, guess, and/or confirm unknown words in text. However, the curricular guidance provided by the Ministry of Education (2010) acknowledged a need for children to develop code-focused skills and notes that phonological awareness and the alphabetic principle are important components

to learning how to break the code. However, differing from the United States (to some extent) and greatly from England, neither initiatives in New Zealand or in Canada have provided explicit guidance on teacher preparation of such skills. An examination of the initiatives from the four countries revealed that the *NRP* and *Rose Review* were much more detailed and explicit about what (and how) essential components are needed for learning how to read.

In England, training in explicit phonics instruction as outlined by the *Rose Review* became mandatory a few years after the report was released. In the United States, initiatives such as *Reading First* made various efforts to include the findings of the *NRP* in K-12 schools and teacher training programs. The Higher Education Collaborative specifically targeted teacher educators and provided multiple resources and trainings for incorporating RBRI from the *NRP* into teacher education programs. However, participation in such programs was voluntary and inconsistent. New Zealand recognized the need to improve the teaching of reading and teacher standards, but no specific recommendations were made and most changes in teacher preparation were implemented inconsistently among private professional development agencies. In Canada, no specific recommendations for teacher training were made and influence on teacher training was also inconsistent.

Table 3.1 provides a chart which summarizes the main similarities and differences among the US's *NRP*, England's *Rose Review*, New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce*, and Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy.*

Teacher Candidate Knowledge

Multiple studies have indicated correlated relationships between teachers' reading knowledge, classroom reading instruction, and student reading achievement (McCutchen, Abbott, et al., 2002; McCutchen, Harry, et al., 2002; Moats & Foorman, 2003; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2004). Further, the reading development of a child is highly dependent upon the quality of early reading instruction, as Snow et al. (1998) state, "quality classroom instruction in kindergarten and the primary grades is the single best weapon against reading failure" (p. 343).

Given the importance of teacher knowledge for effective classroom instruction, which in turns leads to successful student reading achievement, it is disappointing that so many teachers appear to lack such knowledge. In the United States, Bos et al. (2001), Cunningham, Perry,

Table 3.1 Similarities and differences between the US's *National Reading Panel*, England's *Rose Review*, New Zealand's *Literacy Taskforce*, and Canada's *National Strategy for Early Literacy*

	National Reading Panel	*Rose Review*	*Literacy Taskforce*	*National Strategy for Early Literacy*
Phonemic awareness	Highlights the importance of phonemic awareness before phonics	Does not emphasize phonemic awareness as a unique prerequisite to phonics; included as part of systematic phonics instruction	Not a focus	Does not emphasize phonemic awareness as a unique prerequisite to phonics; included as part of systematic phonics instruction
Phonics	Emphasizes the importance of phonics; emphasizes synthetic and systematic approach	Emphasizes the importance of phonics; emphasizes synthetic and systematic approach	Emphasizes importance; little specific guidance on what should be taught and even less on how to teach it	Emphasizes importance; emphasizes systematic approach
Fluency	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program	Not a focus	Not a focus	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program
Vocabulary	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program	Not a focus	Not a focus	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program
Comprehension	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program	Not a focus	Not a focus	Emphasizes as a critical component of an early literacy program
Teacher training	Reading first attempted to align teacher training with *NRP* but inconsistently implemented	Mandatory teacher educator training created in alignment with *Rose Review*	Teaching of reading needs improvement; higher standards for teacher preparation programs; no specific suggestions regarding what teachers need to know	Explicit recommendations not included

Stanovich, and Stanovich (2004), Mather, Bos, and Babur (2001), McCutchen, Abbott, et al. (2002), McCutchen, Harry, et al. (2002), Moats (1994, 2004), Moats and Foorman (2003), Moats and Lyon (1996), and Spear-Swerling and Brucker (2003) are just *some* of the researchers who have found both teacher candidates and in-service teachers generally lack knowledge of the components essential to RBRI. Similar findings have been replicated in Australia by Fielding-Barnsley and Purdie (2005). However, few to no studies have investigated the RBRI knowledge of teacher candidates in England, Canada, and New Zealand.

Participants

There were 279 teacher candidate participants from four traditional university-based teacher preparation programs that were conveniently sampled for this study. Of the US sample, there were 118 elementary education majors from university teacher education programs ranked as Top 5 Reading Education programs by the National Council on Teacher Quality (Walsh, Glaser, & Wilcox, 2006). US teacher candidates, on average, had completed two literacy courses (at the time of survey distribution), in a program that required four literacy courses. Specifically, the courses include a variety of topics pertaining to elementary reading instruction in which there was an emphasis on the five *NRP* components as well as elementary reading assessment, writing instruction, children's literature, and teaching English language learners.

In the England sample, there were 55 primary teaching majors from university teacher education programs with an Ofsted Grade 1 rating (Ofsted, 2008). In these teacher preparation programs, teacher candidates are required to take two courses related to literacy and during the time of survey distribution were in their second literacy course. In their courses, teacher candidates are informed about literacy initiatives and were taught to use a synthetic approach to teach reading.

The New Zealand sample consisted of 26 teacher candidates that were education students in three- or four-year bachelor degree programs qualifying them to teach in junior primary or primary school education, or one-year graduate programs for those with a bachelor degree in any major. Students are required to take at least one course in literacy or primary level English. On average, New Zealand teacher candidates had completed a total of 2.95 (SD = 1.65) literacy or primary level English education courses. The courses include content knowledge for teaching

literacy, approaches for reading instruction, approaches for teaching writing, literacy assessment, children's literature, and teaching for diversity and differentiation.

And lastly, the Canadian sample included 80 teacher candidates that were enrolled in an Early Childhood and Elementary Education (ECEE) certification program from an urban university in eastern Canada. Teacher candidates in this preparation program were required to complete two literacy-focused classes and at the time of survey distribution, approximately half had taken one course and the other half had taken two courses. The first course focuses on the requisite skills needed to teach word identification skills in grades K-2 and the second course focuses more heavily on the content knowledge necessary to teach comprehension skills in grades 3–6.

Survey of Basic Language Constructs

In the present study, teacher candidates in the United States, England, Canada, and New Zealand were administered the *Survey of Basic Language Constructs* (Binks-Cantrell, Joshi, & Washburn, 2012) at the end of their teacher preparation program. The administration took place in person or online through the use of Qualtrics. On average, the participants completed the survey in approximately 20–25 minutes.

The *Survey of Basic Language Constructs* consists of 46 items designed to assess teachers' self-perceptions of their preparation as well as their actual knowledge of basic language constructs related to RBRI, including phonology, phonics, and morphology. The 38 knowledge items were multiple-choice or fill-in-the-blank, which were scored as either right (1) or wrong (0). This survey was originally based upon surveys and questionnaires used by other researchers in the field (Bos et al., 2001; McCutchen, Harry, et al., 2002; Moats, 1994) and further refined from a former 52-item survey used in initial pilot studies (Joshi et al., 2009). Reliability was measured with Cronbach's alpha at 0.90, with no deleted item resulting in a higher alpha. In terms of item difficulty, 14 of the 38 knowledge items fall within 0.10 of the optimal 0.66 difficulty coefficient, with $\mu = 0.63$ (0.23). In item discrimination, 30 of the 38 knowledge items have discrimination indexes ranging from 0.30 to 1.00 (good range).

As previously mentioned, the survey was designed to assess perceived preparation in and actual knowledge of the basic language constructs related to RBRI: phonology, phonics, and morphology. The rationale for

emphasizing these three constructs is based on a large body of research. Phonology includes phonological and phonemic awareness, which serve as powerful predictors in early reading success (Adams, 1990; Bos et al., 2001; Ehri, 1984; Griffith & Olson, 1992). Further, numerous studies have indicated a causal relationship between explicit alphabetic instruction (phonics) and student achievement (Ball & Blachman, 1991; Cunningham, 1990; Foorman, Francis, Fletcher, Schatschneider, & Mehta, 1998; Foorman, Francis, Shaywitz, Shaywitz, & Fletcher, 1997; Lundberg, Frost, & Petersen, 1988; McCutchen, Abbott, et al., 2002; O'Connor, 1999; Torgesen, 1997; Vellutino et al., 1996). And finally, morphology refers to the knowledge of word structure, which is also important to effective decoding instruction (Brady & Moats, 1997; McCutchen & Berninger, 1999; Moats, 1994, 2000; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2004).

The items of the survey can be further analyzed by specificity of knowledge/ability assessed as depicted in the item breakdown in Fig. 3.2. The phonology items can be further specified as either measuring phonemic awareness (the ability to hear and manipulate the individual sounds of spoken language, or phonemes) or other phonological awareness skills (such as rhyming, sentence segmentation, syllabication, and onset/rime). The items can also be specified as to what types of skill

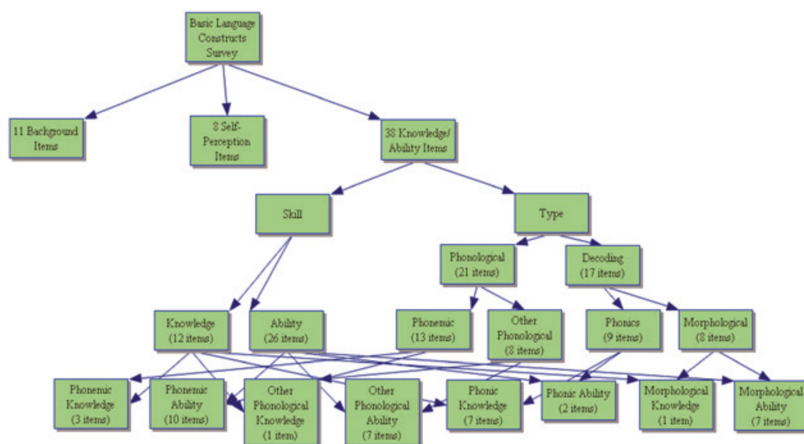

Fig. 3.2 Survey of basic language constructs: item breakdown

they assess, whether it is the explicit knowledge (such as of a phonics generalization) or the implicit ability (such as to read a pseudo word based upon a phonics generalization).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to analyze theoretical models for the latent factors of basic phonemic awareness knowledge and ability, phonics terminology knowledge, and morphology knowledge and ability. The rotated factor loadings for the items included in each of these factors are displayed in Tables 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4. These moderate to large factor loadings indicate that these items tend to hang together, suggesting that they assess the same ability or skill.

A varimax orthogonal rotation was used, resulting in uncorrelated factors and thus aiding in the interpretation of the factors. Moderate to large rotated factor loadings for the third factor from the EFA are presented in Table 3.2. All items deal with phonemes: identifying the definition of "phoneme," counting the number of phonemes in given words, identifying the same initial phonemes in given words, and reversing the order of phonemes in given words—thus, representative of measuring the latent variable of basic phonemic awareness knowledge and skill.

Table 3.2 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: basic phonemic awareness knowledge and ability

Items	*Rotated factor loadings*
9: definition of phoneme	0.567
12c: number of phonemes in "ship"	0.72
12d: number of phonemes in "moon"	0.762
15: identify pair of words with same beginning sound (chef-shoe)	0.748
16: reverse order of sounds in "ice" (sigh)	0.381
17: reverse order of sounds in "enough" (funny)	0.524

Table 3.3 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: phonics terminology knowledge

Items	*Rotated factor loadings*
14 example of a "soft c"	0.504
20: example final stable syllable	0.451
21: example of closed syllables	0.513
22: example of open syllable	0.632

Table 3.4 EFA theoretical model for latent factor: morphology knowledge and ability

Items	*Rotated factor loadings*
19am: number of morphemes in "disassemble"	0.803
12bm: number of morphemes in "heaven"	0.841
12cm: number of morphemes in "observer"	0.737
12dm: number of morphemes in "spinster"	0.593
12em: number of morphemes in "pedestal"	0.793
12fm: number of morphemes in "frogs"	0.524
12em: number of morphemes in "teacher"	0.544
27: definition of morpheme	0.554

Moderate to large rotated factor loadings for the fourth factor from the EFA are presented in Table 3.3. All items deal with being able to identify examples of various phonics terminology: "soft c" and different syllable types (final stable, closed, open). The fourth factor is therefore representative of measuring the latent variable of phonic terminology knowledge.

Moderate to large rotated factor loadings for the first factor from the EFA are presented in Table 3.4. All items deal with morphology: counting the number of morphemes in a word or identifying the definition of the term "morpheme." The first factor is therefore theoretically representative of measuring the latent variable of morphological knowledge and skill.

"Knowledge" was used to refer to items that assessed terminology and rules, whereas "ability" was used to refer to items that required the participant to perform a task such as count phonemes or morphemes or read nonsense words. However, the EFA models reveal that knowledge and skill are not always easy to separate. In Factors 1, 3, and 5, knowledge and skill in morphology and phonemics are combined together. The EFA models also reveal that the type of knowledge and skill assessed in phonemics and phonics is often more specific (such as phonics terminology or rules and basic and advanced phonemic awareness) rather than just overall phonemics and phonics. The theoretical models formed from the EFA provide insight into the relationships between items on the survey.

Results

Since the reports of the US's *NRP* and the subsequent initiative of NCLB's *Reading First* preceded England's *Rose Review* and subsequent initiatives in the *Primary Framework* and *National Curriculum*

by six years, one might guess the US teacher candidates would outperform England's teacher candidates. While in some cases this was true, it was not always the case. The rows in Table 3.5 represent the different ways in which the items were classified and grouped for analyses. The US teacher candidates outperformed the England teacher candidates in phonological-based items (0.73 and 0.45, respectively) and in phonemic-based items (0.53 and 0.24, respectively). However, the English teacher candidates outperform the US teacher candidates on phonics-based (0.58 and 0.80, respectively) and morphological-based (0.20 and 0.49, respectively) items. In terms of total survey performance, the US and English teacher candidates performed very similarly (0.50 and 0.49, respectively), though there was less variance among the English teacher candidates.

Interestingly, the teacher candidates from Canada and New Zealand tended to outperform both the US and England teacher candidates, despite Canada's more recent implementation of a national literacy initiative and New Zealand's lack of specificity in its initiative. Canadian teacher candidates outperformed all other groups in knowledge, ability, and total survey items. In phonological items, Canadian teacher candidates performed very similar to US teacher candidates (0.74 and 0.73, respectively), and New Zealand teacher candidates performed right in between US/Canadian and English teacher candidates at 0.63. Similarly, Canadian teacher candidates performed very similar to the US teacher candidates, whereas New Zealand was in the middle. Phonics and morphological items were the only categories in which Canadian teacher candidates did not outperform all others; the English teacher candidates performed the highest in phonics and morphological items, and New Zealand again performed in the middle on both categories, with the United States being the lowest in phonics and morphology.

Results of the four samples by item skill and by item type are displayed in graphical form in Table 3.5.

Discussion

While none of the groups of teacher candidates in this study displayed a mastery of the knowledge of basic language constructs necessary for the implementation of RBRI, there seem to be potential correlations between the patterns in their knowledge and the trends in their

Table 3.5 Mean percent correct scores and standard deviations for total survey, knowledge, ability, and categorical items

Survey items (number of items)	*CAN* (*n* = 80)		*ENG* (*n* = 55)		*NZ* (*n* = 26)		*U.S.* (*n* = 118)		*All participants* (*n* = 278)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Total survey −38	0.67 (0.45)		0.49 (0.12)		0.56 (0.50)		0.50 (0.49)		0.56 (0.08)	
Total knowledge −12	0.64 (0.46)		0.37 (0.48)		0.52 (0.44)		0.40 (0.48)		0.48 (0.12)	
Total ability (26)	0.68 (0.45)		0.55 (0.50)		0.58 (0.50)		0.54 (0.49)		0.59 (0.64)	
Phonological −8	0.74 (0.311)		0.45 (0.48)		0.63 (0.42)		0.73 (0.36)		0.63 (0.13)	
Phonemic −13	0.69 (0.43)		0.24 (0.41)		0.63 (0.44)		0.53 (0.48)		0.52 (0.20)	
Phonics −9	0.63 (0.46)		0.80 (0.34)		0.50 (0.42)		0.38 (0.46)		0.58 (0.18)	
Morphological −8	0.46 (0.43)		0.49 (0.50)		0.33 (0.47)		0.20 (0.30)		0.37 (0.13)	

countries' national initiatives. These similarities and differences in performance trends and patterns of the four samples are highlighted in Table 3.6.

Overall, no sample of teacher candidates demonstrated a strong understanding of basic language constructs necessary to deliver RBRI. Mean percent correct scores on the total survey were all below 70% and ranged from 49 to 67%. Generally, Canadian teacher candidates outperformed the other samples, which may be reflective of the type and quality of coursework the Canadian teacher candidates completed, including a strong focus on basic language constructs.

The US teacher candidates performed their best in both phonemic-based and phonological-based items, whereas the English teacher candidates performed their lowest in these categories. This coincides with one of the key differences between the *NRP* and the *Rose Review* as the *NRP* places a higher emphasis on phonemic awareness as a separate prerequisite than the *Rose Review*. The Canadian teacher

Table 3.6 Chart comparing US, England, New Zealand, and Canada survey results

	US	*England*	*New Zealand*	*Canada*
Phonological	Performs very similar to Canada; a noted strength for US as compared to other categories	Performs lowest of all 4 groups; a notable weakness compared to other categories	Performs in the middle of the 4 groups	Performs very similar to US; highest category
Phonemic	Performs in the middle of all 4 groups; notably higher than performance on phonics and morphology	Performs markedly lower than other 4 groups; a notable weakness compared to other categories	Performs the second highest	Performs the highest of all 4 groups
Phonics	Performs the lowest of all 4 groups; a notable weakness	Performs the highest of all 4 groups; a notable strength	Performs second lowest of all 4 groups; second lowest category for NZ	Performs second highest of all 4 groups; second lowest category for Canada
Morphological	Performs lowest of all 4 groups; a notable weakness; lowest category for US	Performs the highest of all 4 groups; a notable strength	Performs second lowest; lowest category for NZ	Performs very similar to England; lowest category for Canada
Knowledge	Performs very similar to England (second lowest of all 4 groups); markedly lower than ability item performance	Performs very similar to US (lowest of all 4 groups); markedly lower than ability item performance	Performs in the middle of all 4 groups, but not as high as hoped for effective teaching; slightly lower than ability	Outperforms all, but not as high as hoped for effective teaching; slightly lower than ability
Ability	Perform very similar to England and New Zealand; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Perform very similar to US and New Zealand; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Perform very similar to US and England; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Outperforms all, but not as high as hoped for effective teaching
Total	Perform very similar to England and New Zealand; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Perform very similar to US and New Zealand; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Perform very similar to US and England; does not demonstrate knowledge for effective teaching	Outperforms all, but not as high as hoped for effective teaching

candidates also performed very high on the phonological- and phonemic-based items, which may have been influenced by their coursework. The Canadian teacher candidates in our study came from a program in which there was an explicit emphasis on teaching phonological and phonemic awareness instruction.

One commonality lies in the tendency of all samples to score higher on implicit ability than explicit knowledge items. This pattern is perhaps reflective of the way these teacher candidates learned to read themselves—when explicit phonics instruction was less emphasized in the national reading initiatives and more attention was given to making meaning and learning the intricacies of the reading process implicitly through mere exposure. Being able to perform a task (such as syllable counting) does not necessarily require an explicit understanding of the concepts (e.g., definition of a syllable); however, this type of explicit knowledge is necessary to effectively teach others how to do the task through direct, explicit, and systematic instruction. Further, all samples tend to perform better on phonological-based items rather than purely phonemic-based items, although this is probably less related to national initiatives and more related to phonemic awareness being the most advanced (and difficult) form of phonological awareness.

All samples also perform higher on phonics-based items than morphological-based items. This is perhaps indicative of the fact that none of the national initiatives explicitly discuss morphology as much as phonics. Along the same lines, however, morphology is a notable area of relative strength for the English teacher candidates, which might have to do with England's tendency to place more emphasis on the history and grammar of the English language in their reading education coursework. Phonics was the other category in which English teacher candidates outperformed the other samples, which might be related to the high emphasis the *Rose Review* places on phonics, almost to the exclusion of other components of reading such as phonemic awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Further, teacher education programs in England seem to have taken more proactive actions to incorporate the premises of the *Rose Review* into its teacher education programs (e.g., the mandatory training for teacher educators), and this seems to be reflected in the heightened performance in phonics.

In conclusion, as the four countries move forward with their research, initiatives, and efforts to improve reading instruction, we believe they can learn from one another. In the most recent Progress in International

Reading Literacy Study (IEA, 2016), Canada and the United States have almost identical scores (U.S.: 549; Canada: 543), whereas England is performing above the other three countries (559) and New Zealand lower than the other three countries (523). While many factors are at play in influencing the PIRLS scores, England's notably higher score may be at least partially attributed to its specific guidance and proactive implementation of its national initiative and New Zealand's lower score may be at least partially attributed to its lack of specificity in guidance and implementation of its national literacy initiative. As English-speaking countries such as Canada, England, and New Zealand continue to implement national literacy initiatives into practice, educators can take lead from the teacher knowledge studies that have been primarily conducted in the United States, in terms of both consideration and expansion of similar studies into other countries. Conversely, as we see the effects of the *Rose Review* seeming to take more rapid effect in teacher education and preparation of teacher candidates, other countries can take lead from England's initiative alignment with teacher development agencies and local education authorities in teacher education programs. Finally, there is a need to expand this investigation into teacher knowledge to cover the other important components of effective reading instruction, such as fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension.

As we begin to devote more attention to what our teachers know and how we prepare them to implement research into practice, we believe that only then these initiatives to improve reading instruction, and hence achievement, can be fully successful. National literacy initiatives have the potential to influence the coursework of teacher preparation programs and thus ultimately the knowledge and beliefs of future reading teachers. The degree of success seems to be at least partially dependent upon the specificity of the initiative and the steps taken to implement the initiative into teacher education. Learning to read a regular but complex orthography such as English requires teachers who have an understanding of the phonological, phonetic, and morphological structure of the language in order to deliver the direct, explicit, and systematic instruction in basic language constructs that is critical for many students' success in learning to read. What is emphasized in national literacy strategies, and thus emphasized in teacher education coursework, communicates to teacher candidates what is important about literacy instruction, and if implemented successfully, can prepare them with the knowledge base to teach reading effectively and thus ultimately positively influence

their self-efficacy. Teachers who enter the classroom for the first time "not knowing what they don't know" may have their self-efficacy quickly deflated; but those who enter with a strong foundation of basic language constructs both believe they can teach reading effectively and *can* teach reading effectively.

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CHAPTER 4

Exploration of American General and Special Education Teacher Candidates' Self-Efficacy to Teach Reading and Reading-Related Constructs

Erin K. Washburn and Candace A. Mulcahy

Teaching reading is not for the faint of heart. Moats (1999) coined the phrase "teaching reading is rocket science" when describing the complex nature of teaching reading and the role that teachers and their content knowledge play in a child's reading success. Thus, teacher knowledge, specifically content and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) related to beginning reading instruction, has been investigated at various key junctures in a teacher's preparation (Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, Joshi, & Hougen, 2012; Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard,

E. K. Washburn (✉)
University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Charlotte, NC, USA
e-mail: ewashbu1@uncc.edu

C. A. Mulcahy
Binghamton University, Binghamton, NY, USA
e-mail: cmulcahy@binghamton.edu

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2001; Moats, 1994; Spear-Swerling & Brucker, 2004; Washburn, Joshi, & Binks-Cantrell, 2011) and further in-service education (Brady et al., 2009; McCutchen et al., 2002). Researchers have reported that teacher knowledge can impact teaching of reading (Spear-Swerling & Zibulsky, 2014) and student achievement (Piasta, Connor, Fishman, & Morrison, 2009). In addition to teacher knowledge, teacher self-efficacy (TSE), or teachers' confidence in their ability to promote students' learning, has been reported as an important factor in effective reading instruction (Spear-Swerling, Brucker, & Alfano, 2005). Interestingly, researchers have also found that teacher preparation programs can have a positive impact on teacher candidates' self-efficacy to teach reading (Clark, Jones, Reutzel, & Andreasen, 2013). In this chapter, we report findings from an exploratory study in which we measured general and special education teacher candidates' self-efficacy to teach reading and reading-related constructs.

Role of Teacher Self-Efficacy in Teaching Reading

An individual's self-efficacy operates as an intrinsic motivation variable and reflects one's belief and confidence to execute behaviors necessary to meet a specific goal(s) (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy, for teachers, increases persistence in working with challenging students and has been shown to influence teachers' instructional practices, personal well-being, commitment, and teaching behaviors (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Generally speaking, high or positive TSE has been reported to positively impact both teachers and students with regard to teacher decision-making, classroom climate, and student academic achievement (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Conversely, low or negative TSE has been associated with teacher burnout (Browers & Tomic, 2000; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Wang, Hall, & Rahimi, 2015).

Research on TSE spans four decades with a small but growing number of researchers who have examined teacher candidates' (TCs) perceptions about literacy teaching in English-speaking countries including the United States (Al Otaiba & Lake, 2007; Spear-Swerling et al., 2005; Washburn et al., 2011), Australia (Bostock & Boon, 2012), Canada (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2018), England, and New Zealand (Washburn, Binks-Cantrell, Joshi, Martin-Chang, & Arrow, 2016). However, for the purposes of this chapter, we provide a truncated review of studies conducted in the United States (US). Researchers in the United States have explored TCs'

self-efficacy to teach constructs related to beginning reading in relation to their demonstrated content knowledge about those same reading-related constructs (e.g., Spear-Swerling et al., 2005; Washburn et al., 2011, 2016), the extent to which TCs' perceptions and beliefs change over the course of their teacher preparation programs (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2018), and the impact of exposure to literacy-related content and relevant fieldwork applications (Al Otaiba & Lake, 2007; Al Otaiba, Lake, Greulich, Folsom, & Guidry, 2012; Leader-Janssen & Rankin-Erickson, 2013). Though these investigations have mostly examined small groups of TCs preparing to be elementary teachers, there are commonalities within and across the studies as well as measures to assess TSE to teach literacy (e.g., *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction, TSELI*, Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011).

First, TCs' self-efficacy to teach reading-related constructs is not always reflective of their demonstrated content knowledge of such constructs. Washburn and colleagues examined TC content knowledge and perceived ability to teach language-based constructs including phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary/morphology. In their study of US TCs (Washburn et al., 2011), they reported that TCs in an elementary general education teacher preparation program ($n=91$), on average, perceived their ability as "moderate" to teach these concepts. The authors conducted a canonical correlation analysis to examine any possible relationships between TCs perceptions and demonstrated content knowledge and found a relationship between actual knowledge and perceptions. However, the majority of relationships were negative noting that TCs perceived their ability to teach reading-related constructs greater than their understandings of those constructs.

Helfrich and Clark (2016) also examined TCs perceptions to teach literacy-related constructs and did so in the context of differing teacher preparation programs. One group of TCs were exposed to coursework for early childhood and beginning literacy (K-3; total of 5 literacy-related courses) and the other group of TCs to childhood literacy (K-6; total of 3 related courses). Both groups of TCs reported high levels of self-efficacy to teach concepts related to teaching reading and lower levels to teaching writing, spelling, grammar, and fluency. Helfrich and Clark noted that regardless of number of literacy courses TCs were required to take their perceived ability to teach literacy constructs were similar across the two groups. Notably, these findings (Helfrich & Clark, 2016;

Washburn et al., 2011) paired with Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, and Stanovich (2004) highlight the idea that teachers may have difficulty calibrating their own understandings about teaching literacy.

Another interesting and important finding about TCs' literacy-related TSE is that self-efficacy increases when given relevant and meaningful opportunities to apply what they are learning with children (Al Otaiba & Lake, 2007; Al Otaiba et al., 2012; Maloch et al., 2003). In a series of studies with TCs preparing to be special educators, Al Otaiba and her colleagues examined the extent to which participating in different types of one-on-one literacy tutoring (scripted, more explicit code-based vs. embedded code-based) had on TCs knowledge and self-efficacy to teach reading to struggling readers. Al Otaiba et al. (2012) reported that TCs who participated in more explicit, code-based tutoring programs ($n = 14$) demonstrated greater feelings of confidence about their preparedness to teach reading than TCs who were involved in the less explicit tutoring program ($n = 14$). Similar findings were reported in Al Otaiba and Lake (2007) in that TCs reported significantly higher perception ratings after engaging in coursework focused on explicit literacy instruction and then tutoring a struggling reader. Slightly different but related, Spear-Swerling et al. (2005) found that TCs who had more exposure to teaching literacy through coursework and field experiences reported higher perceptions. Thus, literacy coursework and field experiences have had a positive affect (and effect in some instances, e.g., Al Otaiba and Lake [2007]) on TC perceptions and beliefs to teach reading and struggling readers.

Lastly, TCs self-efficacy can change over the course of their teacher preparation experiences. For example, Leader-Janssen and Rankin-Erickson (2013) investigated the effectiveness of TC participation in teaching struggling readers in a 16-week literacy clinic/practicum setting on their content knowledge and self-efficacy to teach reading. Twenty-one TCs were part of the literacy clinic/practicum experience and 13 were part of a comparison group. Prior to the intervention, both groups reported moderate levels of self-efficacy to teaching reading and displayed, on average, low content knowledge. However, at the end of the 16-week literacy clinic/practicum, TCs in the intervention group had significantly higher levels of reported self-efficacy than the comparison group.

Similarly, Ciampa and Gallagher (2018) examined the self-efficacy of Canadian ($n = 127$) and US ($n = 47$) TCs before and after a literacy

methods course as well as the potential relationship between contextual factors (e.g., literacy-related coursework, tutoring, and fieldwork experiences). To triangulate the survey data (TSELI; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), Ciampa and Gallagher performed a content analysis on the two literacy methods course syllabi. Results differed from those reported by Leader-Janssen and Rankin-Erickson (2013) in that neither groups of TCs' self-efficacy to teach literacy, as a whole, did not significantly change from pre- to post-survey. However, the researchers further analyzed the six underlying factors of the TSELI (i.e., oral reading, assessment, instructional strategies, reading/writing connection, student self-monitoring/metacognition, engagement, and differentiated instruction) and reported that Canadian TCs' efficacy to teach oral reading changed significantly from pre- to post-survey. Further, TCs that reported a greater number of contextual factors also had higher self-efficacy post-survey scores.

The Present Study

The majority of work on literacy-related TSE has focused on TCs in elementary preparation programs and usually within one location or context. Thus, building on this work, and with the goal of capturing a larger sample of TCs that include multiple grade levels (elementary/secondary) and certification foci (general/special education), the purpose of the present exploratory study was to examine TCs' ($n = 311$) perceptions and beliefs about reading-related constructs (e.g., phonemic awareness, fluency, comprehension) and reading instruction. TCs from university-based teacher preparation programs in seven regions of the United States participated in the study.

Three research questions were used to guide this study: (a) What are teacher candidates' perceptions about teaching reading-related concepts? (b) What are teacher candidates' beliefs about reading instruction? and (c) Do teacher candidates' perceptions and self-efficacy beliefs differ across certification focus, certification area, and previous exposure to reading-related constructs and/or instruction?

Participants

Three hundred and eleven TCs from nine university-based teacher preparation programs participated in the present study. The preparation programs were in seven different states spanning four regions of the United

States (Northeast, Southeast, Midwest, and Southwest). At the time of survey distribution, TCs were preparing for either an initial or additional certification in general or special education.

In Table 4.1, we present a breakdown of teacher candidates' characteristics including program status (undergraduate/graduate), certification area (elementary/secondary), education level, and teacher candidate certification status (pre-service/in-service) for the entire group as well as certification focus (general/special education). The characteristics listed in Table 4.1 are specifically helpful in better understanding the sample and thus answering our research question.

We also wanted to know how much prior exposure to reading-related concepts TCs had prior to survey participation. Therefore, we asked TCs to list the number of college-level reading or literacy courses (one course being a 3 or 4 credit course) they had taken. In Table 4.2, we report *t*-tests and descriptive statistics for number of literacy courses by certification and grade level focus. As noted in Table 4.2, general education TCs, on average, had taken a significantly greater number of literacy courses than special education TCs. Additionally, elementary general education TCs had taken a significantly greater number of literacy courses than secondary special education TCs. An informal qualitative analysis of the reported literacy course titles revealed a variety of courses taken by TCs

Table 4.1 Teacher candidates' characteristics

	Whole group (n=311)	*General education (n=151)*	*Special education (n=160)*
	n (%)		
Undergraduate	166 (53.4)	76 (50.3)	90 (56.3)
Graduate	145 (46.6)	75 (49.7)	70 (43.8)
Elementary	222 (71.4)	87(57.6)	135 (84.4)
Secondary	89 (28.6)	64 (42.4)	25 (15.6)
High School Diploma	155 (49.8)	63 (41.7)	92 (57.5)
Bachelor's Degree	135 (43.4)	80 (53)	55 (34.4)
Master's Degree	21 (6.8)	8 (5.3)	13 (8.1)
*Teacher Candidates	228 (73.3)	119 (78.8)	109 (68.1)
**In-service	83 (26.7)	32 (21.2)	51(31.9)

*Teacher candidates refer to pre-service teachers who are in an initial teacher preparation program. **In-service refers to teachers who hold one or more certifications and are already teaching and are working on a secondary certification

Table 4.2 Results of *t*-tests and descriptive statistics for number of literacy courses by certification and grade-level focus

	General education			*Special education*			*95% CI for mean difference*	*t*	*df*	*Cohen's*
	M	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*				*d*
All	2.46	2.18*	151	1.6	1.8	160	0.41, 1.30	3.79*	309	0.43
Elementary	2.85	1.84	87	1.61	1.91	135	0.73, 1.75	4.81*	220	0.66
Secondary	1.92	2.48	64	1.56	1.12	25	−0.67, 1.39	0.7	87	–

*$p < .000$

including: children's and/or adolescent's literature, content-area literacy, reading assessment, emergent literacy, teaching reading in the primary grades, and methods for teaching reading.

Participants were recruited using both purposive and convenience sampling. Purposive sampling is non-probability sampling and is used to target specific groups of participants with similar characteristics (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Sampling was purposive because we wanted to recruit participants who were seeking initial or additional certification in general or special education and at either the elementary or secondary levels so as to explore TCs across teaching contexts. Our sampling was also convenience because we contacted colleagues who taught education courses at institutions of higher education across the United States and asked if they would serve as a facilitator for participant recruitment and survey administration at their perspective institutions. For each participating institution, the researchers first contacted the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to obtain permission to collect data. Some IRBs required additional human subjects review through their institutions, while others relied on the human subjects review at the researchers' home institution.

Representative facilitators at each campus administered a paper survey to potential participants, which took TCs approximately 30 minutes to complete. Surveys were administered in undergraduate and graduate courses in special education and/or literacy, with supervision provided by the facilitators (i.e., campus-affiliated colleagues of the authors).

Data Source

TSE to teach reading-related constructs and reading was examined using perception items from a survey titled, "Survey of Reading-Related Knowledge and Perceptions." The survey was based on previously published surveys (Binks-Cantrell et al., 2012; Bos et al., 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). The survey contains 60 items total with 14 items focused on content or pedagogical content knowledge and 19 items focused on either perceived ability to teach reading-related constructs (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension) or self-efficacy beliefs about reading instruction. For example, self-perception items ($n=9$) contained the following wording, "How would you rate your ability to teach…?" or "How would you rate your ability to motivate students to read…?" Self-efficacy items ($n=10$) contained the wording, "To what extent can you…?" A full listing of perceptions and self-efficacy items are located in the results section of this book chapter (see Tables 4.3 and 4.4). In this chapter, we focused our analysis only on the self-perception and self-efficacy items. Internal consistency for the entire survey is (Cronbach's alpha= 0.875), for the self-perception items (Cronbach's alpha=0.880), and for the self-efficacy items (Cronbach's alpha=0.927).

Data Analysis

To answer the first and second research questions, *What are teacher candidates' perceptions about teaching reading-related concepts*? and *What are teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs about reading instruction*?, descriptive statistics were calculated using the statistical software package SPSS version 24 (IBM, 2016). For the purposes of this chapter, we report means and standard deviations in table format, though frequencies and percentages were calculated, examined, and discussed.

To answer the third research question, *Do teacher candidates' perceptions differ across certification focus, certification area, and previous exposure to reading-related constructs and/or instruction*?, two sets of inferential statistics were calculated. The first set was used to test for differences between TCs' certification focus, certification area and perceptions and self-efficacy beliefs. Specifically, four sets of independent samples *t*-tests were calculated: (a) perceived teaching ability and

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics for perceived ability to teach reading-related constructs

	Whole group (n=311)	*General education (n=151)*	*Special education (n=160)*	*Elem. education (n=222)*	*Sec. education (n=89)*
	M (SD)				
How would you rate your ability to…					
Teach typically developing readers	2.28 (0.68)	2.36 (0.66)	2.21 (0.70)	2.30 (0.67)	2.24 (0.72)
Teach struggling readers	2.00 (0.71)	1.95 (0.72)	2.04 (0.70)	2.07 (0.71)	1.82 (0.70)
Teach phonemic awareness	2.03 (0.77)	2.05 (0.80)	2.01 (0.74)	2.13 (0.74)	1.80 (0.80)
Teach phonics	2.05 (0.78)	2.05 (0.79)	2.04 (0.78)	2.14 (0.76)	1.82 (0.79)
Teach fluency	2.04 (0.70)	2.04 (0.69)	2.04 (0.70)	2.12 (0.69)	1.84 (0.67)
Teach vocabulary	2.50 (0.70)	2.55 (0.75)	2.46 (0.65)	2.48 (0.68)	2.55 (0.77)
Teach comprehension	2.32 (0.70)	2.43 (0.72)	2.22 (0.66)	2.29 (0.67)	2.39 (0.75)
Motivate students to read for pleasure	2.58 (0.74)	2.62 (0.71)	2.54 (0.77)	2.60 (0.74)	2.54 (0.76)
Motivate students to read in your content area	2.41 (0.74)	2.43 (0.74)	2.38 (0.74)	2.39 (0.73)	2.44 (0.78)

Note 1 = minimal, 2 = moderate, 3 = very good, 4 = expert

certification focus; (b) perceived teaching ability and certification area; (c) self-efficacy beliefs and certification focus; and (d) self-efficacy beliefs and certification area.

To test for significant associations between previous exposure to reading-related constructs and perceived teaching ability and self-efficacy beliefs, two sets of chi-square tests of independence were calculated. The first set tested for significant associations between perceived teaching ability and exposure to reading-related constructs. The second set tested for significant associations between self-efficacy beliefs and exposure to reading-related constructs. Chi-square tests of independence were used because the variable of previous exposure to reading-related constructs

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics for self-efficacy beliefs to teaching reading

	Whole group (n=311)	*General education (n=151)*	*Special education (n=160)*	*Elem. education (n=222)*	*Sec. education (n=89)*
	M (SD)				
To what extent can you…					
Get students to believe they can do well in reading?	3.77 (0.89)	3.72 (0.90)	3.81 (0.89)	3.82 (0.91)	3.62 (0.83)
Respond to students who are confused during reading?	3.77 (0.87)	3.81 (0.85)	3.74 (0.89)	3.81 (0.86)	3.69 (0.89)
Meet the needs of struggling readers?	3.40 (0.93)	3.34 (0.92)	3.44 (0.94)	3.49 (0.94)	3.16 (0.87)
Help your students value reading?	3.83 (0.92)	3.85 (0.96)	3.82 (0.88)	3.87 (0.93)	3.74 (0.87)
Gauge comprehension of what you have taught?	3.78 (0.86)	3.75 (0.95)	3.80 (0.78)	3.81 (0.84)	3.70 (0.92)
Adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	3.63 (1.00)	3.58 (0.10)	3.67 (1.01)	3.70 (1.00)	3.44 (0.99)
Use a variety of reading assessment tools?	3.64 (1.06)	3.61 (1.04)	3.68 (1.07)	3.72 (1.04)	3.46 (0.98)
Provide appropriate challenges for very capable readers?	3.78 (0.10)	3.79 (1.06)	3.78 (0.93)	3.78 (0.98)	3.79 (1.03)
Use data to inform reading instruction that meets students' needs?	3.60 (1.02)	3.52 (0.99)	3.67 (1.05)	3.68 (1.01)	3.40 (1.03)
Differentiate reading instruction to meet the needs of all of your learners?	3.51 (1.01)	3.42 (1.01)	3.59 (1.01)	3.59 (0.98)	3.29 (1.07)

was converted to a nominal variable that grouped participants into more meaningful groups based on the frequency distribution of the number of literacy-related courses taken by TCs prior to survey administration. Therefore, the resulting variable for previous exposure to reading-related constructs was 0, 1, or >1.

Results: Perceptions About Reading-Related Constructs

In Table 4.3, we report means and standard deviations for TCs' perceived ability to teach reading-related constructs by certification focus and certification area. We also examined the frequency of each item by both certification focus and certification area. Examination of frequency counts highlighted that the majority of participating TCs indicated perceived ability to teach reading-related concepts as "moderate." In fact, TCs' responses ranged from 38 to 55% in the "moderate" category. The category of "very good" was the next category to most frequently identified with responses ranging from 22 to 52%. Lower "very good" responses, across certification focus and certification area, were to teach struggling readers and the highest "very good" responses were for teaching vocabulary. The category of "minimal" had a range of 5 to 28% with vocabulary having fewer "minimal" responses and teaching struggling readers the most "minimal" responses. The category of "expert" was least identified and ranged from not being identified at all by any TCs (teaching fluency) to 10% (motivate students to read for pleasure).

Results: Self-Efficacy Beliefs About Reading Instruction

In Table 4.4, we report means and standard deviations for TCs' self-efficacy beliefs about reading instruction by certification focus and certification area. We also examined the frequency of each item by certification focus and certification area. Examination of frequency counts highlighted that the majority of participating TCs indicated that they believed they have "quite a bit" of influence on matters related to reading instruction. TCs' responses ranged from 30 to 52% in the "quite a bit" category. Using a variety of assessment tools, using data to inform instruction, and adjusting reading levels to meet individual student needs were on the lower end of the range and responding to students who are confused during reading and gauging comprehension on the higher end of the range. The category of "some influence" was the next category that was most frequently identified with responses ranging from 21 to 39%. Lower "some influence" responses, across certification focus and certification area, were to provide appropriate challenges for very capable readers and the highest "some influence" responses were for differentiating reading instruction to meet the needs of all learners. The next most frequently identified category was "a great deal" with a range

of 11 to 27% with meeting the needs of struggling readers with fewer responses and helping students value reading with the most "a great deal" responses. Responses in the category of "very little" ranged from 5 to 12% and "not at all" was the least identified and ranged from 1 to 4%.

Results: Certification Focus and Area on Perceived Teaching Ability and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

To examine differences between certification focus and area on perceived teaching ability, two sets of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. With regard to certification focus, comprehension was the only item to be statistically significant ($t_{[2,309]}=2.71$, $p<0.007$). Certification area *t*-tests revealed that TCs working on their elementary certification had rated their ability to teach struggling readers ($t_{[2,309]}=2.80$, $p<0.005$), phonemic awareness ($t_{[2,309]}=3.46$, $p<0.001$), phonics ($t_{[2,309]}=3.26$, $p<0.001$), and fluency ($t_{[2,309]}=3.24$, $p<0.001$) significantly higher than secondary TCs.

To examine differences between certification, focus, and area on perceived teaching ability, two additional sets of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. With regard to certification focus, no items were statistically significant. For certification area, *t*-tests revealed that elementary TCs reported higher levels of self-efficacy than secondary TCs on meeting the needs of struggling readers ($t_{[2,309]}=2.90$, $p<0.004$), adjusting their reading lessons to the proper level for individual students ($t_{[2,309]}=2.11$, $p<0.036$), using data to inform reading instruction to meet individual student needs ($t_{[2,309]}=2.13$, $p<0.034$), and differentiate reading instruction to meet the needs of all learners ($t_{[2,309]}=2.39$, $p<0.017$).

Results: Previous Exposure to Reading-Related Constructs and Perceived Teaching Ability and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Previous exposure to reading-related constructs was defined, earlier in this chapter, as the number of literacy courses that TCs completed prior to survey administration. The number of literacy courses completed ranged from 0 to 12. To aggregate the data, three logical groupings were formed that summarize the amount of previous exposure to

reading-related constructs for the participating TCs: >1 (n=167), 1 (n=64), and 0 (n=80) courses.

Chi-square tests of independence were performed to examine the relation between previous exposure to reading-related constructs and perceived teaching ability items. There were significant relations between previous exposure to reading-related constructs and perceived ability to teach struggling readers (χ^2 [6, N=311]=18.187, p=0.006), phonemic awareness (χ^2 [6, N =311]=30.968, p= 0.000), phonics (χ^2 [6, N=311]=22.274, p= 0.001), and fluency (χ^2 [6, N=311]=19.974, p= 0.001). TCs who had taken more than one literacy course prior to survey administration were more likely to rate their perceived ability higher to teach those constructs than TCs who had taken one or no literacy courses.

Chi-square tests of independence were performed to examine the relation between previous exposure to reading-related constructs and self-efficacy beliefs. Significant relations between previous exposure to reading-related constructs and self-efficacy beliefs to teach struggling readers (χ^2 [8, N=311]=22.420, p= 0.004), to adjust reading lessons to the proper level for individual students (χ^2 [8, N=311]=17.900, p= 0.022), and to use assessment data to inform reading instruction that meets individual students' needs (χ^2 [8, N=311]=15.484, p = 0.05). TCs who had taken more than one literacy course prior to survey administration were more likely to believe that they were able to have influence over those three areas of reading instruction than TCs who had taken one or no courses.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the perceptions and self-efficacy beliefs of TCs to teach reading, across the United States, and in a variety of certification foci (general and special education) and certification area (elementary and secondary). The results of the present study revealed that, on average, TCs rated their perceived ability to teach reading-related constructs as "moderate." TCs' perceived teaching ability responses were also examined to test for differences that may have existed between groups (i.e., certification focus and certification area). When testing for certification focus, comprehension was the only item to be statistically significant with general education TCs indicating higher perceptions about comprehension instruction than special education

TCs. With regard to certification area, elementary TCs, in general, rated their ability to teach struggling readers higher than secondary TCs. Moreover, elementary TCs rated their self-perception to teach constructs related to beginning reading instruction (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency) higher than secondary TCs. Given the greater emphasis on beginning reading instruction in elementary school settings than in secondary school settings, this finding was to be expected.

The results of the present study also indicate that all participating TCs, on average, believed that they have some to quite a bit of influence to teach reading in variety of capacities. TCs' self-efficacy belief responses were also examined to identify any differences that may have existed between groups (i.e., certification focus and certification area). No significant differences were found on self-efficacy belief items and certification focus. However, with regard to certification area, there was a significant difference on four items related to teaching struggling readers, using assessment tools, assessment data to inform instruction, and differentiating instruction for all learners, in which elementary TCs identified their influence to be greater than that of secondary TCs. This finding, however, is not altogether surprising for a couple of reasons. First, elementary TCs, generally speaking, are more likely to have encountered constructs related to teaching beginning literacy and struggling readers (i.e., assessing reading growth and differentiating reading instruction) in their literacy-related coursework than secondary TCs. And second, secondary TCs often only take one literacy-related course in their preparation programs in which course content is focused on content-area and/or disciplinary literacy (Snipes & Horowitz, 2008).

In this study, TCs who had taken more than one literacy course were more likely to report a greater ability to teach constructs related to reading instruction for early and beginning readers as well as struggling readers (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency). Additionally, TCs with more previous exposure to reading-related constructs were more likely to report a greater ability to teach struggling readers and more positive self-efficacy beliefs about adjusting instruction to meet the needs of struggling readers. Without follow-up data (e.g., interviews) or to have examined perceptions and beliefs in the context of fieldwork (i.e., tutoring, clinical experience), we can only infer that those perceptions and beliefs may come from previous exposure to and experience with teaching literacy to struggling readers. Nevertheless, this set of findings is similar to what some researchers have reported

(e.g., Ciampa & Gallagher, 2018; Spear-Swerling et al., 2005; Washburn et al., 2011) in that TCs who have had more coursework and experiences report higher self-efficacy than their peers that have less previous exposure to literacy constructs. It should, however, be noted that the findings from this study also differ from Helfrich and Clark (2016) who reported TCs who had less literacy courses to have higher self-efficacy to teach literacy than those who had more literacy courses.

Overall, the findings from this study may indicate that TCs, generally speaking, report positive perceptions about their ability to teach typically developing readers, reading-related constructs, and motivating students to be readers. However, TCs in this study were less positive about their ability to teach struggling readers. Naturally, this finding leads to further questions and possibilities for research. Specifically, what do TCs learn about teaching struggling readers? Do TCs have opportunities to work with struggling readers in their preparation programs? And if so, what does literacy-related fieldwork for TCs look like? Given the prevalence of reading difficulties and dyslexia (Cortiella & Horowitz, 2014; International Dyslexia Association, IDA, 2010), classroom teachers and special educators need to be prepared to teach struggling readers (Moats, 2009). Therefore, an important next step for research would be to examine the types and amount of fieldwork opportunities and how those experiences may or may not be associated with TSE and content knowledge and to do so with a large national sample.

Limitations and Conclusions

This study had several limitations to consider. First, our secondary TC sample was much smaller than we had hoped. Also, our sample was obtained through convenience and it is not fully representative of the entire TC population in the United States and thus, findings should be interpreted with caution. Additionally, data were collected through a self-report measure. Though we took precaution to control the conditions of survey distribution, it is likely that TCs' responses are subject to social desirability bias (Phillips & Clancy, 1972) and not fully indicative of TCs' perceptions and beliefs.

In spite of limitations, we, as literacy and special education teacher educators, believe that the findings from this exploratory study coupled with those of earlier published work (Al Otaiba & Lake, 2007; Al Otaiba et al., 2012; Ciampa & Gallagher, 2018; Helfrich & Clark,

2016; Spear-Swerling et al., 2005) have implications for teacher preparation. For example, if strong and accurate content knowledge is needed to teach the complexities are reading and writing to all learners (Moats, 1994, 2009) and high TSE can positively impact teacher practice (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Zee & Koomen, 2016) then teacher educators need to ensure that coursework and fieldwork experiences are designed to provide TCs opportunities to build and apply content knowledge as well as gauge self-efficacy along the way.

This is particularly important for designing learning experiences focused on working with struggling readers. Recent work from the Collaboration for Effective Educator Development, Accountability, and Reform (CEEDAR) Center at the University of Florida may be helpful in thinking about how to use research to inform teacher education practices for general and special educators (see "High-Leverage Practices in Special Education," McLeskey et al., 2017). Additionally, a review of relevant standards including the "Knowledge and Practice Standards for Teachers of Reading" from the IDA (IDA, 2018), "Standards for the Preparation of Literacy Professionals" from the International Literacy Association (ILA, 2017), and the "What Every Special Educator Must Know: Professional Ethics & Standards Council" from the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC, 2015) can be helpful for teacher educators as they create and/or refine coursework. Ideally, coursework should be designed to maximize opportunities to learn research-based principles about reading instruction as well as engage TCs in clinically rich learning experiences that are geared toward deepening understandings about and building self-efficacy to work with struggling learners. Additionally, providing TCs with opportunities to reflect on their growth as teachers over the course of their preparation programs is likely to help TCs gauge and build their self-efficacy to teach reading to all learners (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Liston & Zeichner, 2013).

In conclusion, teaching reading is a complex yet insanely important job. In fact, it is a job for an expert. Expert teachers not only have deep and flexible content knowledge but they also have strong and positive self-efficacy beliefs that they can, indeed, teach all learners. Expertise building begins in teacher preparation (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Thus, as we continue to prepare future educators to teach literacy to all learners, we need to examine our practice to ensure that we provide TCs, regardless of certification focus and area, with opportunities to build their knowledge base and grow their self-efficacy.

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CHAPTER 5

Exploring Teacher Candidates' Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Literacy Instruction in the Twenty-First Century

Katia Ciampa and Tiffany L. Gallagher

Introduction

The quality of a teacher's instruction has the greatest effect on students' literacy achievement outcomes and is critical to their development of essential literacy skills (Moats, 2014). All children have a right to well-prepared teachers who provide literacy instruction that meets their individual needs (International Literacy Association [ILA], 2017; National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE], 2013). Government initiatives have sought to improve literacy instruction in North American countries, namely Canada and the USA. In the latter country, attention has become increasingly focused on standards for student literacy achievement such as the Common Core State Standards (CCSS; Common Core State

K. Ciampa (✉)
Literacy Education, Widener University, Chester, PA, USA
e-mail: kciampa@widener.edu

T. L. Gallagher
Educational Studies, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada
e-mail: tgallagher@brocku.ca

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Standards Initiative, 2016). These standards have served as a catalyst for several guiding organizations in the field of literacy to articulate what all classroom educators should know and be able to demonstrate to meet state standards and teach literacy successfully. As discussed in Chapter 3 of this volume by Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi, national literacy initiatives such as in Canada and the USA, have the potential to influence the coursework of teacher preparation programs and thus ultimately the beliefs and knowledge of future reading teachers. What is emphasized in national literacy strategies, and thus emphasized in teacher education coursework, communicates to teacher candidates what is important about literacy instruction, and if implemented successfully, can prepare them with the knowledge base to teach literacy effectively and then positively influence their self-efficacy. Similarly, as mentioned in Washburn and Mulcahy's work in Chapter 4 of this volume, "teaching reading is a complex and important job; in fact, it is a job for an expert. Expert teachers not only have deep and flexible content knowledge but they also have strong and positive self-efficacy beliefs that they can, indeed, teach all learners" (p. 57). As both the literacy demands within our society and the diverse needs of our nation's children increase, it is critical that our teacher candidates leave their training programs highly effective and efficacious literacy teachers.

Teacher self-efficacy (TSE) refers to a teacher's belief or conviction that he/she can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). High TSE teachers are more committed to their work, experience less job-related stress, and their students have relatively higher school performance compared to lower TSE teachers (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989). Research indicates that teachers with low self-efficacy are likely to leave their positions in the K-12 schools (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007); this has also been found to be true for teacher candidates in regard to teacher education program completion (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2012). A teacher candidate's sense of efficacy for literacy instruction may determine how much motivation, effort, and persistence they put into this process (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). It has been argued that once the teachers' efficacy beliefs are established, they are generally difficult to change (Hoy & Spero, 2005). However, these beliefs have been found to be more amenable to change during the early phases of learning to teach (Hoy & Spero, 2005). It is essential for

teacher educators to be aware of their teacher candidates' beliefs if positive educational experiences are to be designed for them in teacher education programs. In this sense, teacher candidates are a worthwhile focus in studying literacy teaching efficacy beliefs.

Over the past decade, various tools have been developed to measure teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction including the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction* (*TSELI*; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). The reliability and validity of *TSELI* have been well documented; all items demonstrate strong factor coefficients, ranging from 0.83 to 0.63 which provides evidence of construct validity (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Cronbach's alpha also revealed a very high reliability of ($\alpha = 0.96$) of the *TSELI* (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). However, the *TSELI* was only administered to in-service elementary teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Additionally, the *TSELI* does not include items or practices that are aligned with twenty-first century literacies; rather, the *TSELI* is confined to traditional definitions of (print-based) reading and writing. Expectations about twenty-first century literacy knowledge and skills are now integrated throughout government initiatives in Canada and the USA such as the *National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Framework for 21st Century Curriculum and Assessment* (2013), the updated *International Literacy Association* (2017) *Standards for Reading Professionals*, *Canadians for 21st Century Learning & Innovation* (2014), *Action Canada Task Force* (2013), and *Media Awareness Network* (2010). The purpose of the present study was to examine teacher candidates' sense of efficacy for literacy instruction using a revised and validated measure by the authors, *Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Literacy Instruction in the 21st Century (TBLI21^c)* that reflects the changing definition of literacy in the twenty-first century. Accordingly, the authors sought to answer the question, "What are teacher candidates' beliefs about 21st century literacy instruction?"

Methods

A mixed-methods approach was used in this study (Creswell, 2012). Qualitative and quantitative data were collected by means of a revised and validated measure, *TBLI21^c*, which was first pilot tested with sub-sample of Canadian and US teacher candidates in foundational

literacy methods courses. All participants signed written informed consent to participate in this study. For the present study, the *TBLI21^c^* was administered to 476 teacher candidates from two universities at the end of the Fall 2018 semester. For the Canadian sample ($n=440$) participants were in the Elementary (K-8) consecutive and concurrent education programs. The consecutive education program is a two-year post-graduate bachelor's degree and the concurrent education program is a four-year bachelor's degree and one-year education program. The participants from the US sample ($n=43$) were enrolled in a four-year undergraduate Elementary (PreK-4), Middle Level (4–8), and High School (9–12) literacy program. It is also important to note that the literacy methods courses in both countries included field experiences (at the time that participants took the survey). The Canadian pre-service teachers completed one teaching placement (10 hours). The US sample also completed one teaching placement (10 hours) in each respective literacy course. The researchers garnered participants' demographic information including their country, program, and year of study, age, and gender.

Instrumentation

The objective of *TBLI21^c^* was to measure teachers' sense of efficacy to literacy teaching in the twenty-first century. A pool of 42 items were drawn from the original *TSELI* instrument (Question Items #16, 17, 18, 19, 38) as well as twenty-first century (inter)national literacy standards and policy documents such as the *National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Framework for 21st Century Curriculum and Assessment* (2013), the updated *International Literacy Association* (2017) *Standards for Reading Professionals*, *Canadians for 21st Century Learning & Innovation* (2014), *Action Canada Task Force* (2013), and *Media Awareness Network* (2010). Items tapped such aspects of twenty-first century literacy instruction as the ability to read, write, view, listen, and communicate using visual, audible and digital materials, vocabulary, comprehension strategies, motivation, critical thinking, global citizenship, interdisciplinary literacy, independent and collaborative learning, differentiated instruction, assessment, diversity, and culturally responsive teaching.

The 42 items on the *TBLI21^c^* were validated by a panel of literacy researchers and graduate students (who were also practicing teachers)

and then the inter-rater reliability was calculated (0.62) as well as internal reliability (0.95). A factor analysis was run and it was determined that the items loaded (using a cut-off loading of 0.4) onto eight factors or subsets of questions (for complete details see Ciampa and Gallagher, forthcoming) that included: (1) "Reading and Writing Assessment and Instructional Strategies"; (2) "21st Century Competencies"; (3) "21st Century Technical Skills"; (4) "Literacy Learning through Fluently Reading and Writing Genres"; (5) "Professional Literacy Learning and Leadership"; (6) "Early Literacy Skills"; (7) "Diversity"; and (8) "Receptive and Expressive Language Skills."

Respondents selected from a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = A great deal). The following are some sample question items: "To what extent could you model digital navigation and viewing strategies (e.g., with digital texts/images/representations)?" "To what extent could you recognize how your own cultural experiences/background affect literacy instruction?" and "To what extent could you use a variety of writing assessment strategies to inform your instruction?"

Two open-ended questions followed the quantitative portion of the survey. Teacher candidates were asked to describe the greatest strengths and challenges they face with planning, implementing, and/or assessing literacy instruction.

Data Analysis

To answer the question, "What are teacher candidates' beliefs about 21st century literacy instruction?" data obtained from the *TBLI21^c* informed both descriptive and inferential statistics which were calculated using the statistical software package SPSS version 24 (IBM Corporation, 2016). The means and standard deviations are reported in tabular format. To examine if teacher candidates' literacy efficacy differed based on year of study in their program, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) was conducted. The independent variable was year of study and dependent variable was *TBLI21^c* scores.

The authors coded the two open-ended survey responses by conducting a word frequency query for individual words (including stemmed words) in NVivo 11 (2017) to identify common themes in the teacher candidates' open-ended survey responses about their challenges and successes related to twenty-first century literacy instruction.

Results: High vs. Low Self-Efficacy SubSets

In terms of the top three highly rated efficacy factors, teacher candidates in both programs reported having higher self-efficacy (M=4.54; SD=0.62) regarding "21st Century Competencies" such as promoting students' creativity and innovation skills in language and literacy activities, critical thinking and inquiry, interdisciplinary literacy learning, and developing students' strength of character, self-confidence, and empathy. Teacher candidates also evidenced significantly higher self-efficacy for "Diversity" in literacy instruction (M=4.48; SD=0.70). Teacher candidates also had a higher sense of efficacy for "Professional Literacy Learning and Leadership" (M=4.35; SD=0.73) as well as "Receptive and Expressive Language Skills" (M=4.35; SD=0.70) including their ability to model and engage students in oral communication and listening strategies.

When looking at the bottom three factors with items receiving the lowest ratings from the teacher candidates, it appears that "Early Literacy Skills" (M=3.85; SD=0.92) is a specific area of concern; teacher candidates reported having lower self-efficacy regarding phonological awareness strategies, strategies in phonics instruction, word recognition, and concepts of print. Teacher candidates also scored low in items related to, "21st Century Technical Skills" (M=4.15; SD=0.80) which included their ability to model and engage students in digital navigation and viewing strategies, creating visual and text representations, integrating multimedia and different genres, as well as incorporating safe and appropriate ways to use digital technologies. The teacher candidates also showed low self-efficacy in *TBLI21^c^* scores related to "Literacy Learning through Fluently Reading and Writing Genres" (M=4.20; SD=0.75), which focused on teachers' ability to: assist students in developing reading fluency; implement instructional strategies for writing (i.e., explanatory, narrative, opinion pieces); facilitate independent learning and integrate literary and non-fiction pieces in literacy instruction; and setting high expectations for all learners. Table 5.1 below summarizes the descriptive statistics for all 8 factors or subsets of questions.

Results: Effect of Year of Study in Program Training on Literacy Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The MANOVA, using Pillai's Trace, revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in overall literacy self-efficacy based on a teacher candidate's year of study, $F(32, 1852)=1.23$, $p=0.18$, partial

Table 5.1 Factor analysis descriptives for 8 question sub-sets on *TBLI21*[c]

Sub-sets of questions	*Mean*	*SD*	*Std. error mean*
Reading and Writing Assessment and Instructional Strategies	4.24	1.39	0.03
21st Century Competencies	4.54	0.62	0.01
21st Century Technical Skills	4.15	0.8	0.02
Literacy Learning through Fluently Reading and Writing Genres	4.2	0.75	0.01
Professional Learning and Leadership	4.35	0.73	0.02
Early Literacy Skills	3.85	0.92	0.02
Diversity	4.48	0.7	0.02
Receptive and Expressive Language Skills	4.35	0.7	0.02

$\eta^2 = 0.02$. However, there was a significant main effect for year of study and teacher candidates' literacy efficacy beliefs related to "Diversity," $F(4, 472) = 2.71$, $p = 0.03$. In Year 1, teacher candidates had a mean score of 4.5 ($SD = 0.63$), whereas Year 4 teacher candidates had a lower mean score of 3.7 ($SD = 1.15$). See Table 5.2.

Results: Challenges and Successes Faced by Teacher Candidates for Literacy Instruction in the Twenty-First Century

The following section describes the self-reported challenges and successes faced by teacher candidates with respect to planning, implementing, and/or assessing literacy instruction. These perceptions were gleaned from their open-ended responses. In parenthesis, the percentage score reported is the frequency of teacher candidates' responses that mentioned these words. Teacher candidates noted the following challenges: assessment, planning, and levels. By contrast, the most frequently occurring words related to teacher candidates' successes with literacy instruction included planning, creativity, and lessons.

The most frequently reported challenge that the teacher candidates identified related to "assessment" (7.24%). Specifically, teacher candidates expressed concern over the nature, type, and frequency of literacy assessments including ways to assess different levels of students' reading and writing, using reading (i.e., phonics, running records, guided reading) and writing (i.e., opinion writing) assessments to inform

Table 5.2 *TBLI21[c]* scores by year of study

Sub-sets of questions	*Year 1*	*Year 2*	*Year 3*	*Year 4*
Overall *TBLI21[c]* Scores	*M*=4.24 *SD*=0.42	*M*=4.24, *SD*=0.44	*M*=4.29; *SD*=0.47	*M*=3.94; *SD*=0.15
Reading and Writing Assessment and Instructional Strategies	*M*=4.14 *SD* =0.74	*M*=4.48 *SD* =3.88	*M*=4.11 *SD* =0.86	*M*=4.33 *SD* =0.58
21st Century Competencies	*M*=4.56 *SD* =0.61	*M*=4.68 *SD* =0.51	*M*=4.61 *SD* =0.62	*M*=4.00 *SD* =1.00
21st Century Technical Skills	*M*=4.11 *SD* =0.76	*M*=4.13 *SD* =0.80	*M*=4.26 *SD* =0.70	*M*=5.00 *SD* =0.00
Literacy Learning through Fluently Reading and Writing Genres	*M*=4.07 *SD* =0.71	*M*=4.06 *SD* =0.74	*M*=4.06 *SD* =0.74	*M*=4.08 *SD* =0.84
Professional Learning and Leadership	*M*=4.11 *SD* =0.72	*M*=4.18 *SD* =0.75	*M*=4.11 *SD* =0.83	*M*=4.00 *SD* =1.00
Early Literacy Skills	*M*=3.64 *SD* =0.90	*M*=3.84 *SD* =0.89	*M*=3.69 *SD* =1.02	*M*=3.33 *SD* =1.15
Diversity	*M*=4.54 *SD* =0.63	*M*=4.57 *SD* =0.70	*M*=4.68 *SD* =0.56	*M*=3.67 *SD* =1.15
Receptive and Expressive Language Skills	*M*=4.32 *SD*=0.73	*M*=4.37 *SD* =0.69	*M*=4.34 *SD* =0.67	*M*=4.67 *SD* =0.58

their literacy instruction, assessing students in an unbiased, equitable, and objective manner. In relation to the *TBLI21[c]* cluster theme, “21st Century Competencies,” teacher candidates struggled to find ways to accurately assess students’ comprehension of digital media and multimodal texts, creativity, and peer collaboration.

The teacher candidates also cited, “planning” (4.33%) as an area of concern, including lesson, unit, and long-range planning. Teacher candidates struggled to select from and utilize grade-level appropriate, and seemingly unlimited instructional multimedia resources that are

engaging and motivate students to read and write. Teacher candidates were also less confident in curriculum planning for the inclusive classroom (i.e., modifications, accommodations). This coincides with the third most frequently identified challenge among the respondents, "levels" (3.46%) which related to the cluster theme, "Diversity." Specifically, the teacher candidates were notably challenged by differentiating literacy instruction (i.e., developmentally appropriate leveled texts) and assessments to meet the needs of academically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students.

Similarly, "planning," (5.20%) "creativity," (4.78%), and "lessons" (3.67%) were the most frequently cited perceived strengths identified by the teacher candidates. In line with the cluster themes around "21st Century Competencies and Technical Skills," the teacher candidates were reportedly confident in cross-curricular and multimodal lesson planning and using current and engaging mentor texts to plan instruction. The teacher candidates felt confident in organizing and designing hands-on, multimodal lessons, projects, and activities in a creative and engaging way that both relates to the real world and meets curriculum expectations.

Discussion

The authors sought to measure whether the existing years in the teacher education had an impact on the teacher candidates' responses. The findings from this study mirror those of Bostock and Boon (2012) who surveyed 180 teacher candidates at an Australian university to determine how self-efficacy related differently to literacy content knowledge, knowledge of literacy pedagogy, and personal literacy in different cohort levels (i.e., first year, second year) within a four-year teacher education program. In accordance with Bostock and Boon's (2012) findings, the results from this study showed that literacy self-efficacy starts high and increases incrementally and then declines for those teacher candidates in their fourth year of study—this was only on one of the subsets, "Diversity." Typically, as teacher candidates move closer to beginning full-time teachers, their self-efficacy decreases as they accumulate more classroom experiences, have a more realistic understanding of what they are able to accomplish in a classroom, and start to realize what they do not yet know (Bostock & Boon, 2012; Ciampa & Gallagher, 2018). It is

possible that tempered expectations may allow teacher candidates to have a more realistic understanding of what they will be able to accomplish in a classroom with respect to literacy instruction, especially when it comes to diverse needs in literacy.

Across all four years of study, the teacher candidates reported having higher self-efficacy regarding twenty-first century competencies such as promoting students' creativity and innovation skills in language and literacy activities, critical thinking and inquiry, interdisciplinary literacy learning, and developing students' strength of character, self-confidence, and empathy. These topics were also identified by the teacher candidates among their successes. This finding is not surprising, given the fact that the majority of the teacher candidates who participated in this study are also Generation Y and Z students ("digital natives") who have grown up in the Information Age (Seemiller & Grace, 2017). In the USA, these students have had to meet the Common Core State Standards which are educational standards that were created in 2010 to ensure that all students graduate from high school with the skills and knowledge necessary to succeed in college and career in the twenty-first century, including the key skills of creativity and innovation, critical thinking, problem-solving, and communication and collaboration (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2016). In Canada, the *Action Canada Task Force* (2013) defines twenty-first century learning skills as competencies such as: "Critical Thinking; Problem Solving; Communication and Collaboration; Computer and Digital Literacy; Creativity, Character, and Innovation" (p. 5). The *Action Canada Task Force* (2013) created a report summarizing how provincial ministries of education have implemented policies and practices that include twenty-first century learning models. As noted by the authors of this study as well as Binks-Cantrell et al. (see Chapter 3 of this volume), seminal national policies and documents such as the National Reading Panel (2000), Rose Review (2006), and the National Strategy for Early Literacy (2009) are now up to two decades old and this begs the question of their relevance in the twenty-first century of literacy education. Although many of the Canadian provinces have supplementary twenty-first century instructional resources for teachers such as *Towards Defining 21st Century Competencies for Ontario* (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2016), curriculum developers have not kept pace with the rapidly evolving twenty-first century literacy skills and competencies that students need to succeed in today's technology-mediated and diverse world (Gallagher & Rowsell, 2017).

As noted by DiCesare and Rowsell, such engagement with twenty-first century literacy practices might be uncomfortable for some teacher educators (including professional learning facilitators) or teacher candidates/in-service teachers. Indeed, teacher educators have the opportunity to lay the premise with teacher candidates that to be a teacher is to be a lifelong learner in the profession. To accomplish this, teacher candidates and in-service teachers need both the skills of inquiry and reflection; an example of this is described in Bartow Jacobs' secondary teacher education classroom (see Chapter 7 of this volume). Bartow Jacobs describes how practice is conceptualized by utilizing critical narratives as a way for secondary ELA teacher learners to both reflect on their own field experiences and learn from one another through shared inquiry during university classes, which contribute to her students' heightened sense of identity and self-efficacy. This entails preparing teachers (at all stages in their practice) with the skills of reflection, stimulates the potential for authentic inquiry, and utility of narratives to question their beliefs about twenty-first century literacy instruction and assessment.

It is not surprising then that teacher candidates reportedly felt confident in implementing and designing curriculum that is creative, engaging, cross-curricular, multimodal, and collaborative in nature, as evidenced by their open-ended responses. As recommended by and evidenced in DiCesare and Rowsell's work (see Chapter 6 of this volume), twenty-first century literacy teacher educators need to move beyond an "old wine in new bottles syndrome" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2007). That is, using technology in our literacy teacher education work is not enough to teach through and with twenty-first century literacies; rather, teacher educators have to shift what they teach and how they teach it based on the kinds of communication systems we use and understand. Multimodal approaches to literacy teacher education should involve more than simply varying modalities; multimodality immerses people within a sensory and participatory mode of inquiry.

Notwithstanding, the teacher candidates also seemingly struggled to find appropriate and equitable ways to assess students' mastery of twenty-first century competencies and technical skills. As above mentioned, twenty-first century skills are incorporated into national educational standards in many countries; assessments, however, have been less emphasized as integral components of these new models (Hartman, Morsink, & Zheng, 2010; Hilton, 2010). Inquiry- and project-based learning interventions involving technology require compatible methods

of assessment to support learners' progress and development (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, Castek, & Henry, 2017). There appears to be a misalignment between assessment and instruction; for example, state assessments of reading in the USA do not include any elements of new literacies (Leu et al., 2017). There is also a lack of valid, reliable, and practical assessments of new literacies to inform instruction and help students become better prepared for a digital age of information and communication (Leu et al., 2017). During a period of rapidly changing new literacies, we will need to adapt to the continuously changing nature of literacy in several areas including assessment. Dynamic, multimodal texts, and their associated literacy practices require dynamic assessments that are sensitive to the diverse, multiple, and rapidly changing ways in which learners read, write, learn, and communicate information in the twenty-first century (Leu et al., 2017). The most prominent challenge, perhaps, is that literacy assessments, to date, are typically assessments of a students' independent work. Given the importance of social learning and collaborative meaning construction in twenty-first century literacy instruction, we will need to assess how well students can learn new literacies from others and how well they can co-construct meaning and collaborate in constructing written information with others (Chu, Reynolds, Tavares, Notari, & Lee, 2016). Authentic assessments of new literacies should also incorporate the information and communication tools used in the workforce and in students' daily lives (e.g., interactive blogs, wikis, e-mail) to pose and answer questions, reflect on and synthesize new learning, collaborate across classrooms, demonstrate flexibility and perseverance during online inquiry, and respond appropriately to peer feedback (Leu et al., 2017). Learning how to learn from others and learning how to collaboratively construct meaning will be increasingly important in the years ahead. It seems clear that new technologies will require new approaches to both what is assessed and how we go about doing so.

According to their open-ended responses, the teacher candidates struggled to meet the ongoing challenge of inclusive literacy teaching and assessment, and determining the most appropriate modifications and accommodations that are often required in order to address the needs of the very diverse population of students in most classrooms. More than ever before, teachers are charged with delivering differentiated instruction to meet the individualized needs of technically, socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse learners (Hadjioannou, Hutchinson, & Hockman, 2016; Whitaker & Valtierra, 2018). Unfortunately, many

mainstream teachers have had few educational experiences in working with diverse learners and they report feeling ill prepared to help them with their academic progress (Hopkins, Thompson, Linquanti, Hakuta, & August, 2013; Samson & Collins, 2012). There is little doubt that the need to prepare mainstream classroom teachers to work with diverse learners is at a critical juncture. It is imperative that all literacy educators have a firm foundation in understanding the challenges faced by diverse learners and a secure grasp in applying classroom strategies that support their literacy. The challenge lies in what constitutes effective teacher education and in-service professional learning. There is a need for some kind of collaborative and ongoing effort among teacher candidates, mentor teachers, special education, reading specialist/literacy coach, and English as a Second Language (ESL) support personnel, especially during the teacher candidates' field placements (Hadjioannou et al., 2016; Whitaker & Valtierra, 2018). Providing teacher candidates with multiple opportunities to teach different students in a variety of settings (e.g., urban, rural) helps them become better at choosing and adapting instructional techniques to fit students' unique needs (Hadjioannou et al., 2016; Whitaker & Valtierra, 2018). With each practicum, teacher candidates can gain the teaching experience necessary to increase their self-confidence and efficacy for literacy instruction.

Across all four years of study, the teacher candidates in this study also reported having lower self-efficacy regarding, "Early Literacy Skills and Strategies" such as phonological awareness strategies, strategies in phonics instruction, word recognition, and concepts of print. This finding coincides with the findings from Binks-Cantrell et al.'s (see Chapter 3 of this volume) study. These authors developed, validated, and administered a knowledge survey of basic language constructs to compare teacher candidates' (primary education) performance from four different countries (Canada, USA, New Zealand, and England). Binks-Cantrell et al.'s study revealed that, generally, teacher candidates from all four countries lack knowledge of certain basic language constructs needed to teach early literacy skills. However, contrary to the findings revealed in this study, the Canadian teacher candidates in Binks-Cantrell et al.'s study performed very similar to US teacher candidates in phonological items (0.74 and 0.73, respectively). Phonics and morphological items were the only categories in which Canadian teacher candidates did not outperform all others; the US teacher candidates received the lowest ratings in phonics and morphology. Similarly, Washburn and Mulcahy

(Chapter 3 of this volume) also examined general and special education teacher candidates' perceptions about teaching reading and writing and how their perceptions and beliefs change with coursework, fieldwork, and over the span of a teacher preparation program. Contrary to our findings, Washburn and Mulcahy found significant differences for perceived teaching ability with elementary teacher candidates, on average, reporting high levels of perceived ability to teach constructs related to beginning literacy (e.g., phonemic awareness, phonics) but not others (e.g., teaching comprehension). As suggested by Binks-Cantrell et al. the curricular policies provided by their Canadian sample's ministry of education acknowledged a need for children to develop code-focused skills and that phonological awareness and the alphabetic principle are important components to learning how to break the code. However, Canadian ministry/department of education policies have not provided explicit guidance on teacher preparation of such skills compared to the US's National Reading Panel (2000) which is detailed and explicit about what (and how) essential early literacy components are needed for learning how to read. An important next step for research would be to examine the differences in early literacy content knowledge between a larger cross-national sample (i.e., Canadian and US teacher candidates).

Limitations and Conclusion

This study has several limitations that require further discussion. One of the limitations of this study is consistent with the issues that apply to the majority of survey studies, in which responses may not represent the actual practice of teacher candidates in an authentic classroom setting. Although the validation of the instrument was done internally, it is important to note that this study was conducted at two institutions which limits the external validity. Teacher education varies widely by province and state. There is a limitation related to the skewness and imbalance of the sample sizes between Canada and the USA. Due to limited resources, convenience sampling was used to recruit teacher candidates, thus, these results cannot be generalized and must be carefully interpreted within the context of the study.

The results presented in this chapter give further credence to the importance of measuring teacher candidate and in-service teacher efficacy for literacy instruction as it relates to contemporary twenty-first century literacies, given that the methods and tools addressed in the *TBLI21*^{c}

are not reflected in existing literacy self-efficacy instruments (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), such as reading, writing, viewing, listening, communicating using visual, audible and digital materials, comprehension strategies, motivation, differentiated instruction, diversity, and culturally responsive teaching. As such, teacher candidates and in-service teachers might feel frustrated by these tools or even insufficient as they "appear" to not be teaching literacy in ways that are reflective of the reality of teaching in today's classrooms with a variety of learning needs and technologies as well as social, emotional, and cultural diversity.

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PART II

Practices to Build Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy

CHAPTER 6

Teaching Beyond a Print Mindset: Applying Multimodal Pedagogies Within Literacy Teacher Education

Dane Marco Di Cesare and Jennifer Rowsell

Introduction

As teacher educators, now that we have moved on from the realization that technology, media, and communication have reshaped the ways that younger generations think and act in the world, we face the challenge of teaching future educators about pedagogy and policy that does not exist (Burnett, Davies, Merchant, & Rowsell, 2014). That is, although internationally and nationally, there have been strides in developing 'twenty-first century policy' (Gallagher & Rowsell, 2017) that speaks to contemporary literacy practices, we have far to go in teaching future educators about modern ways of thinking and learning in digital worlds. Some educational policy and curricula foreground technical acumen with technologies as an answer to teach digitally, while other policy initiatives

D. M. Di Cesare (✉)
Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada
e-mail: ddicesare@brocku.ca

J. Rowsell
University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

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and curricular outcomes focus on media and communication skills, and still others promote digital citizenship and thinking globally rather than locally. Although collectively these approaches to twenty-first-century pedagogy have made some strides, we argue in this chapter that there needs to be radical changes in teacher education generally, and literacy teacher education more specifically, to equip teacher candidates and in-service teachers with the knowledge and skills required to teach future generations of learners.

The chapter presents a bird's eye view of literacy teacher education planning and pedagogy from a participatory, multimodal perspective is presented. Participatory literacies (Rowsell & Wohlwend, 2016; Wohlwend & Rowsell, 2016) reflect new ways of thinking about learning to read and write with technology that move away from the model of an individual reading or typing print on a computer screen. Instead, participatory literacies reflect the principles of social media like Twitter, YouTube, or Facebook, as well as, global participation, multiplayer collaboration, and distributed knowledge. In addition to a need for participatory ways of thinking and navigating literacy teacher education pedagogy, there needs to be multimodal ways of planning, teaching, and assessing new generations of learners. Teaching teacher candidates about pedagogical content and teaching methods might be best transmitted through words in PowerPoints with image supports, however, much of the time another modality is necessary and preferable such as film, interactive apps, or even arts-based work.

In this chapter, we foreground Dane's philosophy of multimodal literacy teacher education work that he has honed with time—from the genesis of a literacy teacher education course to final assessment components—in order to illustrate what constitutes, in our view, authentic 'twenty-first century literacy teacher education pedagogy' that is participatory, multimodal, and digitally informed. Underpinning this is the notion that through this pedagogy teacher educators can engage teacher candidates and build their self-efficacy. As a researcher and teacher educator, Jennifer's perspective in the chapter is informed by her fieldwork in K-12 and adult learning contexts applying multimodal and ethnographic methods to literacy pedagogy (Pahl & Rowsell, 2005; Rowsell, 2013, 2014). With twenty years of experience researching and teaching through a multimodal lens, Jennifer infuses a multimodal and modular approach to teacher education (Kress & Rowsell, 2019) to complement Dane's significant teacher education experience. In this way,

Jennifer's role in the chapter is as a critical colleague and peer. The chapter is structured as follows: We begin by presenting what we mean by *participatory* teacher education pedagogy; then, we move into concrete examples primarily from Dane's multimodal approach to literacy teacher education to illustrate what we mean by hacking, planning, and literacy teacher education; we foreground forms of in-class communication and content sharing; and then present a brief look at discrete skills that our teacher candidates exhibit; finally, we conclude the chapter with a call to action for teacher educators to prepare teacher candidates the requisite knowledge in multimodal literacies.

Participatory Literacy Teacher Education Pedagogy

Planning and facilitating literacy teacher education courses from a participatory lens involve more of a 'do-it-yourself' and 'hacker' mindset to literacy teacher education work. This means teacher educators need to be prepared to be interactive and improvisational in their teaching and less didactic and authoritative. In participatory cultures, players often work together based on shared goals and social relationships across networks as they exist in online and offline spaces. Within the chapter, teacher education work is framed around digital literacy components that Rowsell and Wohlwend (2016) set out as ways to assume digital literacy competencies which are: multiplayer, productive, multimodal, open-ended, pleasurable, and connected. This is needed as participatory literacies offer the latitude and greater fidelity to contemporary literacies that other frameworks do not offer. Teacher candidates and students need to shift mindsets and practices so that they can move far more in and out of digital, analogue, and connected spaces and also, engage in more talk, experimentation, and critical framing work. This kind of teaching demands flexibility coupled with meta-talk about modern literacy practices and ways of targeting teaching to these particular practices.

Starting with multiplayer competencies, Dane plans, teaches, and assesses teacher candidates as if they exist within a network where each individual co-produces in a common physical or digital environment (most often both) in synchronous or asynchronous time. Just as players within videogames exist as single players/avatars, they also exist within multi-player worlds with fellow players sharing strategies, tips, feedback, and talking in chat rooms. In this way, participatory literacies are co-constructed, in conversation or in the midst of play with others.

For example, video game play merges each individual player's moves into a joint production, whether this is a coordinated sequence of moves and countermoves or a simultaneous orchestration of each player's performance (Gee, 2007). Modern literacy teacher education methods need to be governed by a multi-player logic so as to bolster teacher candidates' knowledge of multimodal pedagogies through experience and practice.

From multiplayer methods come productive, in-process, iterative methods of teaching concepts to teacher candidates. Thus, it is critical that teacher educators develop teaching methods that allow for collective production and collective ways of thinking through forums, blogs, or interactive documents. The key point here is to have both an offline and online presence and there is fluidity across them. Productive teaching is responsive teaching that allows teacher candidates to move from one modality or medium to the next—so in one instance have written text and then in another instance, moving image texts. There is a multiplicative (Lemke, 2002) dimension to this kind of teaching that Dane has found works well with teacher candidates. Natural, productive thinking grows from navigating and producing texts together and embedding different modalities to illustrate, explain, and understand content; this is precisely what students need to learn to do.

Fidelity to multimodality is essential in the truest and most authentic sense. Multimodal approaches to literacy teacher education should involve more than simply varying modalities; multimodality immerses people within sensory worlds that have two or more modes in play at once for meaningful, relevant, and participatory engagements with teaching. What follows closely from multimodal logic is taking an open-ended approach to literacy teacher education work. Within Dane's immersive, multimodal literacy teacher education work, he gives teacher candidates freedom to experiment, problem-solve, and use varied texts to engage in inquiries. Journeying with open-ended goals allows teacher candidates to have open-ended goals, thereby avoiding narrow, reductionist models of learning and it gives future teachers ways of personalizing learning. This kind of teacher education needs to be flexible and responsive and open to happy accidents. There is a 'do-it-yourself' (DIY) quality to open-ended teacher education and teacher educators do not always know where a lesson or activity will end up. This is analogous to teaching from this stance in the 'real' classroom.

Participatory teacher education must be connected within face-to-face class time and in virtual environments. Participatory literacies are rooted

in notions of connected learning (Ito et al., 2013), where users not only link to and navigate online texts, but also future teachers learn to participate in online cultures on digital networks that host affinity groups (Gee, 2003), in fan communities, or on social media such as Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram. These networked spaces and connections are expected to be reciprocal—members expect that when they post content to these sites, others will respond, comment, 'like,' or follow. A participatory culture is a culture with relatively low barriers to artistic expression and civic engagement, strong support for creating and sharing one's creations, and some type of informal mentorship whereby what is known by the most experienced members is passed along to novices (Rowsell & Wohlwend, 2016; Wohlwend & Rowsell, 2016). Often participatory approaches allow teachers to feel like their contributions matter and, in turn, they feel a sense of connection and community.

As a final dimension of participatory approaches, literacy teacher education work should be engaging for teacher candidates. Typically, the average adult has an eight-minute attention span and we live within an attention economy (Goldhaber, 1997; Knobel & Lankshear, 2007); therefore, our literacy teacher education pedagogy has to be dynamic and align with contemporary expectations of audiences. This means thinking, planning, and teaching with open, multimodal, and connected teaching methods. It is the kind of teaching that requires some planning, but also a degree of spontaneity that allows for impromptu curation of information online or the sudden production of powerpoints or short movies on topics. These practices offer a literacy teacher education pedagogy that is playful, ludic (Rowsell, 2014), and driven by creativity. Making teaching playful and DIY replicates what happens in the real-world when people engage with digital texts. In digital environments, people navigate across texts, they tap and click on videos and game-based texts, and they follow hypertext. It is incumbent on teacher educators to find ways of imbricating these practices (and their logic) into literacy teacher education.

Multimodal Teacher Education Teaching

Our teacher candidates are not passive receivers of content, but instead they actively consume, remix, design, and produce within multimodal logics all of the time. It is important to see them as active consumers—not passive consumers of texts—who participate in and shape their own

learning and in turn need to teach their students within this mindset. We want our students in school to have a similar mindset and it stands to reason that it is necessary to have teacher candidates experience these very same pedagogical principles. Teacher educators need to be able to draw on diverse modes learners use to tell the story of their academic content.

At this point in the history of teacher education, there is a realization that education is a very different landscape from the twentieth-century literacy landscape and with this, there needs to be an incorporation of technology and digital devices. Although teacher educators use some digital tools, there is generally less take up by teacher educators of newer ways of making meaning through vernacular, print, and digital texts. This means including ways that people read digital texts; different forms of multimodal 'writing' that students engage in; visual practices such as building on the notion of selfies with more traditional tropes like portraiture; and thinking, planning, and offering assessment guidance for all forms of new literacies. Teacher educators need to acknowledge and teach to these skills as well as more traditional skills such as phonemic awareness, guided reading, and literature circles. One way of bridging the gap between old wine and new wine (Lankshear & Knobel, 2003) is to use the affordances of technology and, importantly, critically frame and engage in meta-talk about how modern versions of topics like phonemic awareness are different. For instance, teacher educators can offer a session on the range of decoding apps and how to use the features in them to differentiate.

There are varied combinations of modes that change the meaning of texts. To be specific, there are instances when modes exist as separate units of meaning in texts, but there are links between modes. For instance, in film, sound or music can exist as separate modes to work alongside visuals. Hence, literacy teacher education work should really be driven by this kind of logic and be deliberate as Dane shows later in having multiple modes in play. Future understandings about multimodality need to continue to be grounded in both offline and online worlds (without dichotomizing these) and need to consider the affordance of modalities (e.g., visual vs. auditory modes). As well, future understandings and applications of multimodal literacies need to explore these issues in finer ways, the complexity of modes that come together in multimodal literacy moments, events, and representations. A key element of transforming pedagogical practice for the twenty-first century is the concept

of teachers and students as multimodal meaning makers (Kress, 1997) and critical producers and consumers of digital media and multimodal texts.

Teaching Beyond a Print Mindset

In infusing literacy pedagogy with multimodality, how classes are created, planned, and executed must undergo a radical shift from traditional lecture style classrooms. What follows is an examination of the pedagogy of an immersive, multimodal course and how a teacher educator can teach beyond a print mindset in order to provide a model for teacher candidates to follow when they ultimately have their own students. This provides teacher candidates with dual roles, playing the part of 'student' in an immersive, multimodal classroom, and seeing how practices can be utilized, adapted, and shaped into their own future classrooms. This serves to not only engage teacher candidates during a lesson, but to also build their self-efficacy in terms of enacting these practices in the classroom.

A fair amount of time should be given, during the development phase of the literacy course, to allow for opportunities for research, exploration, and playing with multimodalities. From a pedagogical standpoint, multimodal teacher education teaching aligns with the principles of Universal Design for Learning (Rose & Meyer, 2002), an educational framework that supports flexible learning environments that can accommodate individual learning differences. Integration of this framework involves reshaping the manner in which content is delivered through multiple modes of representation, how teacher candidates communicate and engage with course content inside and outside of the classroom, and how they represent or express what they know.

Additionally, teacher educators must allow for spontaneous opportunities for content creation utilizing a variety of modes as needed. Teacher candidates need to be given ample time to research, explore, and play with a variety of modes. The university classroom is akin to the tutorial levels of video games. Before a player heads out into the main game, the player is guided and supported through a series of tutorials to prepare for navigating the game independently in the future. Teacher candidates need to experience a richly multimodal teacher education classroom, where they are guided and exposed to a variety of modalities. They need to be active participants in their learning, consuming, remixing,

designing, and producing within a multimodal context. They need to be given the freedom to experiment, problem-solve, and use a variety of resources and texts to engage in inquiries. Then, they will be prepared to guide their future students to navigate today's media rich, multimodal world.

Hacking the Lecture

Admittedly, teacher educators often tell teacher candidates they need to engage their students in the classroom, providing activities that excite and incite learning, yet still predominantly teach within a print mind-set. Why is it that teacher educators continue to lecture, reading directly from a long list of bullets on a never-ending presentation slide? If this is the case, they are not practicing what they are preaching, nor are they instructing in a way to engage and captivate an audience. In developing the multimodal university classroom, teacher educators can begin by reshaping how they teach, and with what materials. One of the first places to start is by reshaping and repurposing the function of the presentation slide.

Reclaiming the Presentation Slide. Many are all too familiar with the typical presentation slide: a heading followed by a series of bullet points, filled with so much text it often serves the function of notes. It may or may not have a clipart image haphazardly stuck on the side of the slide, battling with the text. The goal is to present as much information as possible to teacher candidates and is done so by a teacher educator who reads the slides, often word for word, talking *at*, rather than *to* or *with*, the teacher candidates.

Interestingly, teacher educators are quick to criticize teacher candidates if this was how they engaged their students in the K-12 classroom. Teacher educators need to model, through their own teaching, a more engaging way to instruct our teacher candidates, so they can, in turn, follow our example in the K-12 classroom. We can start by redesigning the role purpose, and function of the presentation slide to emulate multimodal pedagogy.

The teacher educator (and the classroom) should be an integral part of the presentation and the slides should guide and enhance the content. Multimodal elements should capture student interest, supplement the content and be a springboard for the activities that teacher candidates will engage in. To enhance concepts or ideas, embedding video, animation,

or images allows teacher educators to communicate meaning in a more nuanced and powerful way. Many presentation programs (e.g., Keynote, Explain Everything) have annotation tools that can be used in real-time with screenshots. Through annotation, attention can be drawn to particular areas of the screen, allowing for a more immersive learning experience. These are the rich, multimodal methods that teacher candidates need to both experience themselves and get experience using within the classroom.

Restructuring the Class. Multimodal follow up activities should be interspersed throughout the class to allow teacher educators the opportunity to engage with teacher candidates, through a variety of modalities, to apply what they have just learned. For example, after instruction on what makes a good storyteller, teacher candidates are given the opportunity to film themselves telling a story. They then post their stories for their peers to view and provide other with two stars and a wish (two things done well, one area for improvement). This activity gives the teacher candidates the opportunity to put what they've just learned about storytelling into practice, while also working together as a community to reflect and provide feedback to their peers. Following the activity, time should be taken to come together as a class and consolidate understandings about applying this type of activity into the 'real' classroom.

Teacher candidates should also be given the opportunity to problem-solve and use a variety of resources and texts to engage in inquiries they have identified in their field experience. Under the guidance and support of the teacher educator, who can act as a facilitator, mentor, or co-learner, teacher candidates can explore a host of multimodal resources (e.g., research articles, videos, physical materials) to seek answers to their questions. Allowing teacher candidates time to solve these problems, find answers to their questions and become experts in these areas, prepares them for life in the 'real' classroom. This is also consistent with the experiences of students in the classroom who are encouraged to engage in inquiry-based learning.

Communication and Collaboration: Twenty-First-Century Competencies

Building any cohesive class community takes time and thoughtful planning to create a system for communication and collaboration. Creating a professional learning atmosphere and providing opportunities for

collaboration in shared work spaces all contribute to this community. The following examples build on teacher candidates' and students twenty-first-century competencies.

Using a flexible grouping structure for teacher candidates to work as a part of a professional learning community is at the core of building a cohesive class community. The group members are expected to work together and support each other inside and outside of the classroom, in both physical and digital spaces. This involves a multiplayer logic; teacher candidates can thereby navigate different environments as a team. By working cohesively, anticipating each other's movements and roles allows tasks to be completed at a faster rate and with more accuracy than tasks that may be more disjointed and disconnected. Building team unity, rapport, and accountability for each participant's role as part of their group is due, in part to carefully selected educational opportunities or challenges by educators who support students in building twenty-first-century competencies.

Given our connected world, it is important to mirror this level of local-global, physical-virtual connection within our literacy teacher education courses. When in-class activities capitalize on a variety of web and related resources, it is important (for the sake of efficiency and organization) to have a central hub where teacher candidates can find all of the tools, resources, links, etc. that they need for any particular class.

Shared digital spaces take on a communicational role that affords teacher educators to capitalize on how meaning can be expressed through other modes. Depending on the purpose and nature of the planned activity, spaces should allow for the creation or publication of videos, images, or their combination with print (e.g., iMovie, Instagram, Padlet). These activities might involve tasks such as creating short videos or combining image and text. Ultimately, these spaces serve as digital workspaces or a meeting ground for teacher candidates to collaborate in real-time.

Shared digital spaces can also be used as a place to share ideas and work with peers or with teacher educators. When teacher candidates work in shared, digital workspaces, the teacher educator also has the opportunity to see, in real-time, how teacher candidates are interacting. This allows teacher educators to identify and correct misinformation immediately, guide teacher candidates back on track, or provide specific, meaningful praise accordingly.

Video discussion boards (e.g., FlipGrid) are digital spaces where short videos can be created or uploaded for teacher candidates to express their opinions on an article or share a video they created. For example, after several classes where the teacher educator models an effective read-aloud, teacher candidates might be ask groups to record and upload short videos of themselves as they practice conducting a read-aloud. Teacher candidates can then watch their peers practice a read-aloud, evaluate the inflection, prosody, pacing, and voice of their peers' work, and then compare these features with their own.

Another activity that can capitalize on expression of meaning through multiple modes is the creation of an image text with a graphic-design tool website, such as Canva. Teacher candidates read an article and select a quote that resonates with them. They then find an image that aligns with their selected quote and combine the two creating a piece layered with meaning through both image and text. They then can record a screencast using a program, such as Shadow Puppet EDU, to create an explanation of the meaning-making processes behind their quote, image, font, and design decisions. Once again, these examples of multimodal pedagogies within the literacy teacher education course are models of practices that teacher candidates can take away and implement in their respective 'real' classrooms.

Reading

While reading is most often considered the act of deciphering print-based text, from a multimodal standpoint there are many things that can be 'read,' such as videos and images. Providing a vast array of modalities for students to glean information allows teacher candidates to engage and explore content on a deeper level.

As a society, we have experienced shifts in how we read screen-based texts that need to be addressed in our contemporary literacy teacher education work. Reading today is more multisensory than it was in the twentieth century (Mangen, 2008). For instance, e-textbooks often combine the strengths of written text coupled with visuals, podcasts/audio text, and short films/videos on topics which call on different cognitive, sensory, and affective responses to text content and design. With the use of tablets in schools, there has been a dramatic increase in haptically based reading practices that are not present in literacy policy (Kucirkova & Falloon, 2017). Contemporary reading works on a screen logic in a

F-pattern from the top left corner down (Rowsell, 2013) and what is more, the act of making sense of texts on screens most frequently entails choreographing several hybrid on-screen texts at once. We foreground reading because in our experiences, teacher candidates have different ways of reading texts and we need to shape literacy teacher education approaches to their reading practices that will be more in line with how they read and experience texts. That is, modern readers are used to reading shorter texts to access information and broadly speaking, longer texts in the form of articles and books tend to be challenging if not laborious for teacher candidates. As a result, we recommend alternative approaches to the traditional notion of class readings, to include shorter articles, 'TED Talks,' and YouTube videos.

There are other creative ways to simulate modern reading processes. Programs like EDPuzzle allow teacher educators to monitor video engagement, even if it occurs outside of the classroom. Videos can be uploaded or embedded from a host of streaming services (e.g., YouTube, Khan Academy). With programs like EDPuzzle, teacher educators have the ability to digitally annotate the videos with voice or print content, embed quizzes (short answer or multiple choice), and trim unwanted segments of video. Additionally, there is the ability to prevent skipping, so teacher educators or students must watch the video as it plays, without skipping over sections or content. Taken together, these multimodal pedagogies take reading beyond the act of deciphering print-based text to include 'reading' videos and images in a domain that is more accessible and multisensory.

Evidence of Multimodal Learning

From a multimodal perspective, tasks and assessments should include multiple modalities. On the whole, educators have impoverished methods for assessing multimodal ways of using, understanding and producing screen-based texts. It is a challenge to effectively assess learning given the dearth of research and frameworks on multimodal ways of making meaning.

Through the following example, we share our own experiences with assessing teacher candidates in terms of multimodality. This assignment in a literacy education class, a Personal Literacy Story, requires teacher candidates to explore, through knowledge and appreciation, the way they became literate. This assignment necessitates an awareness of how

their literacy history impacts their behaviors, beliefs, values, and relationships with others. In this assignment, teacher candidates need to recall, document, and present their personal literacy stories as a means to understand themselves as literacy teachers, acknowledging how social and cultural practices have shaped these histories. Focusing on one particular event, mentor, or text that has shaped their beliefs and values about literacy, teacher candidates tell their stories utilizing multiple modalities. In this assignment, teacher candidates examine the experiences that have included that contribute to them becoming the literate individuals they are, connecting learnings to the course and their future practice. To do this, teacher candidates must produce a text to share with their peers and receive feedback. They have the opportunity to rework the piece into a polished, final product.

The most comprehensive personal literacy stories are those that express meaning through as many modalities as possible. For example, one student created a digital storybook, combining images and text using the platform StoryBird. While the story was engaging, this particular teacher candidate was prompted (through peer evaluation) to enhance her piece by including additional modalities such as narration and music. The finished piece was more layered and nuanced with meaning than it was in its rough form using image and text alone. This example of layering modalities in composition is also transferrable to the 'real' classroom. Teacher candidates can engage their students in multimodal thinking and processing during meaning making and compositional tasks. By offering a variety of options that exist beyond print text, teacher candidates are pedagogically capitalizing upon multimodal thinking by allowing students to express themselves in complex, multimodal ways. In seeing the value of multimodal composition, having a greater understanding of how students make meaning through different modalities, teacher candidates can focus on aiding their students in building proficiency in those methods.

Preparing Teachers for Tomorrow

If we are to be honest with ourselves as teacher educators, when we teach the fundamentals of contemporary literacy education, we are not entirely equipped to educate teacher candidates for their future practice. With the tremendous shifts in communication, media, and technology over the past decade, the face of teaching and learning has

changed so rapidly, that it has been a challenge to keep pace with the shifting landscape. One way into modern literacy teaching methods is to build bridges between younger generations' passionate engagements in virtual spaces and the potential to draw on these generative engagements fruitfully within schools (Gillen, 2015). For instance, in Jennifer's research she incorporates professionals into planning and teaching by focusing on particular modes such as coding, photography, documentary film-making, writing comics; these kinds of more modally complex assignments often bring in students' outside interests into the classroom (Rowsell, 2013). It can be a challenge to bring in artists and media professionals, but so often they work in our communities and it requires just a bit of coordination. Teacher educators can facilitate partnerships between community-based professionals and in-service teachers to plan units around varied forms of expression and representation such as the selfie example we offered above. Teacher educators can build on the momentum of such work by working with different genres of texts as a part of their pedagogy and by using these different text genres as a platform for addressing how to teach and assess new literacies.

Literacy teacher educators need to shape their work around the principles of multimodality and participatory approaches to pedagogy in addition to having enthusiasm, knowledge, and interest in technologies and new literacies (Merchant, 2009). Our approach to transforming literacy teacher education resembles what needs to take place in mainstream schooling: an opening up of pedagogic spaces to provide on-screen and off-screen spaces for students to connect and interact; concrete, specific multimodal frameworks and activities that teachers can incorporate into their repertoires of practice and aligned assessment frameworks; a shift in the temporal rhythm of schooling so that teachers have blocks of time to hack, experiment, offer mini workshops on discrete topics, and allow time to practice on technologies; and, perhaps most of all, we need far more research and scholarship on how to transform literacy teacher education pedagogy in the twenty-first century. Such transformations to literacy teacher education carry great promise for future teachers (Ito et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, before one can honestly say that one is a twenty-first-century literacy teacher educator, one needs to move beyond an 'old wine in new bottles syndrome' (Knobel & Lankshear, 2007). That is, using technology in our literacy teacher education work is not enough to teach through and with twenty-first-century literacies, teacher

educators have to shift what they teach and how they teach it based on the kinds of communication systems we use and understand. Using tools goes some way in speaking to new literacies, however, it fails to equip teachers with strategies and conceptual experiences with digital ways of thinking about texts.

The calls to action within this chapter and indeed the entire collection represent a sampling of the ways that literacy teacher education requires reimagining. The recommendations carry some potential for teacher candidates and in-service teachers to experience for themselves the kinds of participatory and passionate learning that students experience outside of school and that can ultimately equip them with the skills and wherewithal to be digital citizens. Yet, we have some distance to go before we are in a position to build capacity and productive futures for K-12 students.

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CHAPTER 7

The Role of Critical Narratives in Broadening Teacher Candidates' Literacy Beliefs Around ELA Teaching Practice

Katrina Bartow Jacobs

A lot of the reflection we did [in the teacher preparation program] was maybe looking back at a specific lesson or looking back at like something that happened, looking back at a project we were working on. This [critical narrative] was more of a reflection on your teaching, and I think that that sort of leeway helped people really get into it because everybody had moments that they picked. … It didn't feel canned and a lot of times when people are asked to reflect or to look at somebody else's piece and give feedback and commentary it is often in the lens of like, 'I don't want to hurt this person's feelings, or I don't want it to look bad upon myself, or bad upon the other person,' but this really reflecting on one specific moment gave people the opportunity to really get deeply into their self (Thomas,[1] Interview on Critical Narrative Project).

The concept of using reflection and enhancing reflective practice is not a new one in teacher education; in fact, along with practicum experiences, the use of reflection has been a cornerstone within teacher

K. B. Jacobs (✉)
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA
e-mail: kbjacobs@pitt.edu

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preparation in the United States and elsewhere. However, as the above narrative demonstrates, often the ways that teacher-learners[2] are invited or required to reflect becomes rote or static. Frequently, these opportunities are centered on specific lesson plans or enactments within classroom spaces (Beauchamp, 2015). These limited opportunities for reflection can lead newcomers to the field of education to narrow understandings of what counts as practice—limiting what is seen as worthy of reflection within the profession of English Language Arts (ELA) teaching.

These issues are of particular importance when considering the focus on the role of practice within teacher preparation programs (Ball & Forzani, 2011; Zeichner, 2017). Much of the current work in practice-based teacher education has emphasized the need to make school-based learning and core practices integral within teacher preparation. This focus involves looking closely at when and how school-based experiences occur during teacher preparation programs; how pedagogical practices are described and integrated into coursework; and how to prepare teachers to enter the field with a strong set of skills and mindsets in their content area. While this focus has provided an important emphasis for the work of schools of education, there are some limitations to the ways that it has widely been taken up with the field of teacher education. In particular, much of the work has over-emphasized particular skills or approaches to practice without as much consideration given to the ways that teacher-learners' beliefs are developing around their professional work (Cochran-Smith, 2015). This limited focus can lead early career teacher-learners to focus on the importance of particular approaches, topics, or curricula without providing them ways to contextualize this knowledge within their own beliefs. In turn, this emphasis on particular topics or approaches can limit early career teachers' sense of self-efficacy, in that it suggests a need to focus on mastery, rather than to develop a growth-mindset toward professional learning (Zeichner, 2012).

Teaching is an inherently adaptive and reflective practice; it requires teachers to develop mind-sets and skills that promote their beliefs in their own abilities to think through moments of tension and make change. Self-efficacy is the belief in one's ability to make the necessary adaptations to attain certain goals. Studies have shown that a higher sense of self-efficacy impacts teachers' abilities to adopt new pedagogical approaches, work with a greater range of students, and adapt new curriculum or texts (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2016; Wang,

Hall, & Rahimi, 2015; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Research suggests that these effects were most important when teachers are at the beginning to implement new ideas or approaches into their classrooms—a factor that is particularly critical for early career teachers who are still developing their professional beliefs and identities.

While the development of pedagogical practices is a critical element of teacher preparation, teacher education programs must also consider how their *own* practices influence the ways that teacher-learners come to understand their professional identities through field experiences. This focus is particularly important within the field of ELA, in that this work inherently requires teachers to help students develop their own analyses and communicate their own inquiries into texts. One of the areas where teacher education programs can address these issues is through the ways that teacher-learners are invited to reflect on their school-based experiences. By broadening what counts as practice that is worthy of reflection, teacher-learners can develop more complex and contextualized beliefs about the nature of ELA education. The study highlighted in this chapter aimed to shift how practice is conceptualized by utilizing critical narratives as a way for secondary ELA teacher-learners to both reflect on their own field experiences and learn from one another through shared inquiry during university classes. The research focused on the following questions:

> How does the use of critical narratives of student teaching shift teacher-learners' beliefs around the practice of literacy education and their own developing professional identities?
> How do the narratives compare to more traditional forms of self-feedback, such as lesson plan reflections?

Reframing the Practice of "Practice-Based Teacher Education"

Approaches to practice-based teacher education that focus solely, or heavily, on pedagogy often marginalize other aspects of teaching, including that of developing professional beliefs (Jacobs, 2014; Zeichner, 2010; Zeichner, Payne, & Brayko, 2015). In addition to narrowing the ways practice is framed, this approach can also, even if inadvertently, further the belief that school-based learning is simply a place to try out what has been learned within university coursework (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Zeichner, 2010), thereby asserting a "knowledge-for-practice"

approach (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). In my work (Jacobs, 2018), I instead frame school-based learning experiences as "contact zones" (Pratt, 1991) in order to recognize the political and contextual aspects of learning in community. In these ways, field experiences become more than a place to learn and implement pedagogical approaches; instead, they become a site where practice is contextualized and situated historically and teacher-learners are asked to question their own beliefs and understandings of literacy education as they improve their pedagogical and content-area instruction.

In order to support teachers' developing beliefs in ways that honor these complexities, the field of teacher education needs to rethink and redesign our own educative spaces. This reimagining requires a close look at how we construct practices that support teacher-learners in developing an understanding of students, content, context, pedagogy, and power in relationship to one another. In Fig. 7.1, the framework

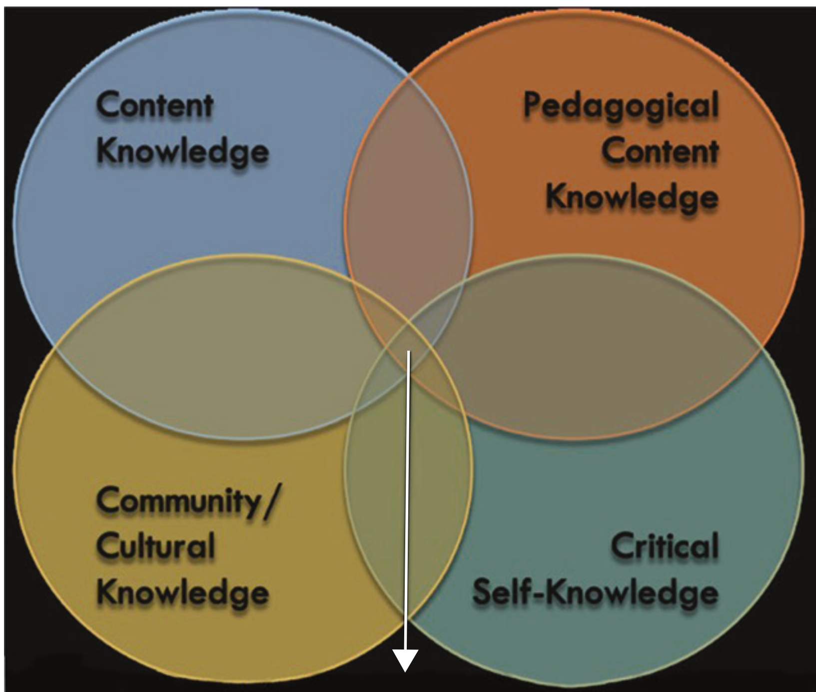

Fig. 7.1 Critical practice-based teacher education

(Jacobs, 2018) represents what I have termed "critical practice-based field experiences"—a conceptual approach to school-based learning that highlights the intersecting aspects of teaching and learning:

The goal of this approach is to prepare teachers to engage in a contextualized understanding of practice. Toward this end, this framework also impacts how field experiences are integrated into the larger teacher preparation program. Not only might this approach impact the nature of when field experiences happen, it also requires a shift in terms of how students are asked to reflect on and learn from their school-based work. By making central the intersectional and contextual aspects of practice, the nature of what we ask teacher-learners to engage in regarding their field experiences shifts from simply reflecting on pedagogical experiences to more deeply and critically inquiring into the nature of what it means to engage in ELA in schools. The hope is that by reframing the nature of field experiences, and the ways that these experiences are woven into the teacher preparation program, teacher-learners develop an understanding of practice that is more complex and contextualized.

Narrative as a Critical Form of Reflection and Learning

The concept of using narrative as a form of learning in teacher preparation has a long history. Connelly and Clandinin's germinal piece (1990) describes an approach to thinking about how the use of narrative and story in teacher education might reframe how we think about practice, learning, and professional identity. In a piece focused specifically on the learning and knowledge of teachers, the authors wrote that, "the professional knowledge context shapes effective teaching, what teachers know, what knowledge is seen as essential for teaching, and who is warranted to produce knowledge about teaching" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996, p. 24). In other words, the ways we frame knowledge and learning deeply impact how narratives are created, read, and understood within the field of teaching. In teacher education, these theoretical perspectives can not only impact the nature of inquiries and narratives that teacher-learners are invited to share, but also have long-lasting effects on the development of early career teachers' beliefs around what it means to engage in literacy education.

In the above section, I argue for a new ways of framing field experiences that make central aspects of identity, criticality, and history in an effort to shift how practice is defined within literacy teacher preparation.

This shift highlights the need to also consider specific approaches or practices within teacher education that can actualize some of these theoretical underpinnings. The use of critical narratives of practice is one such way to invite teacher-learners into the work of rethinking their assumptions and beliefs around literacy, practice, and their professional identities. Critical narratives can offer teacher-learners spaces to explore and reflect on their learning experiences. They "investigate how individuals are subject to a certain social, political and power dynamics, and how a person as a bearer of a particular social identity is placed in a wide scheme of things that are beyond their choice and preference" and therefore create a site for critical inquiry (Goodson & Gill, 2014, p. 75). Utilizing narrative as a way to make sense of school-based experiences provides teacher-learners the space to both understand their own assumptions and beliefs and to begin the work of contextualizing their professional learning.

Engaging in narrative in these ways can support both socio-emotional preparation for teaching (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013) and the development of deeper understandings of pedagogy and culture (Clark & Medina, 2000). Furthermore, these approaches can provide more flexibility in meeting the needs of our ever-changing students and addressing new ways of approaching literacy in the twenty-first century (Clark & Byrnes, 2015; Kosnik, Rowsell, Williamson, & Simon, 2013; Rowsell, Kosnik, & Beck, 2008). One of the most powerful aspects of engaging teacher-learners in critical narratives of practice is that this work is inherently responsive to their own positionalities and learning contexts; rather than focusing solely on what is pre-perceived as important. This approach to reflection in teacher education stimulates the potential for authentic inquiry and helps ensure that teacher-learners' questions and curiosities are being addressed. In this project, we hoped to utilize critical narratives of practice as a way to engage the intersections of various aspects of learning to teach, offering tools that might assist our teacher-learners in co-constructing richer and more complex understandings of practice.

Critical Narratives of Fieldwork Project

As I designed this assignment and space of learning for the secondary ELA teacher-learners, I wanted to think of ways that field experiences could be seen as a text that we could collectively read and re-read as a form of inquiry into literacy education. By situating school-based

learning as a shared text, teacher-learners are invited to read and re-read their experiences, together uncovering themes both explicit and implicit, and reflecting on similarities and differences across their cohort's experiences. In order to align this work with the critical practice-based framework above, I also wanted to utilize these narratives as a space to reflect on multiple aspects of teaching and learning within field experiences, not just direct instruction or particular lessons. In order to help facilitate links between field experiences and university-based coursework, I designed this project as a "critical narrative of fieldwork" assignment within one of the teacher education methods courses. The teacher-learners were all in full-time placements while they were also taking their methods coursework at the university.

The assignment consisted of three parts. Each teacher-learner was asked to write a narrative in response to a fairly open-ended prompt: share a critical moment from your recent school-based experiences as a teacher-learner. The prompt encouraged teacher-learners to focus on a moment that stuck with them—either as a moment of joy or success, or as a moment of confusion or concern; it could be something during a direct lesson, or something else that happened related to their student teaching. Teacher-learners were asked to use pseudonyms for all of their own students and to avoid any direct identifying information. In addition to the narrative itself, the teacher-learners were asked to share a few sentences about why they picked this moment, as well as any contextualizing information they felt would be useful. After writing the assignment, the narratives became one of the course texts. Each week, two or three teacher-learners would share their work via the course website before class, so that everyone came having read the work. In class, the author would have two minutes to frame the narrative. There was then a 15–20-minute discussion, during which time the author could not speak. The instructions during these class discussions were to focus on the narratives themselves, rather than trying to problem solve for the author. As the instructor of the course, I participated as a facilitator for an inquiry-based discussion—offering questions to further discussion, or occasionally sharing my own perspectives. During this time, the author took notes, and after the discussion the author leads a five-minute debrief during which they could also ask questions. After presenting in class, each candidate was asked to write a reflection on both the process of writing the narrative, and of sharing it within the class. As mentioned above, after the course was over, any teacher-learners who opted into

the study were asked to complete a survey about the experience and a random sampling (roughly 20% of participants each year) were also asked to take part in a one-on-one interview about the process.

Data Sources and Analysis

At the time of writing this chapter, 56 teacher-learners, out of three cohorts with a total of 61 ELA candidates, have opted to participate in this research. Table 7.1 shows the gender and racial demographics of the participants by year[3]:

Data sources for this research included the critical narratives, the written reflections, surveys, and transcripts of the one-on-one interviews. Because part of our goal was to determine how and in what ways the narratives differed from other forms of reflective practice, we also drew on participants' traditional lesson plans, lesson reflections, and feedback/dialogue with mentors and supervisors—also linked to assignments from the same course.

All of the written work was uploaded and then coded within NVivo (Version 12, QSR International). The data were coded initially based on a priori codes that a graduate student and I developed prior to beginning analysis, based off the research questions. Sub-codes and additional codes were added based on the narratives and themes that emerged. The survey data included both open-ended questions and Likert scale questions; the open-ended responses were also coded within NVivo, while the quantitative data were analyzed separately. The quantitative data were coded within Excel for both the median responses and the range of responses, as well as the frequency of perspectives.

Table 7.1 Participants by year, gender, and race

Cohort year	*Number of participants*	*Gender breakdown*	*Racial breakdown*
Year 1	18	15 women 3 men	18 White
Year 2	23	20 women 3 men	22 White 1 Chinese-American
Year 3	15	13 women 2 men	14 White 1 Arab-American

Analysis of the written critical narratives and the lesson plan reflections occurred both by individual and across the participant group to gain a sense of how individual perspectives were shifting, as well as how the two forms of reflection were being used more broadly across the cohort. This analysis focused heavily on how participants defined (implicitly or explicitly) professional practice, the nature of field experiences, and how they positioned themselves as learners and as developing teachers. Overall, the goal was to better understand how the teacher-learners were developing beliefs around the nature of what ELA "practice" really means in secondary school settings. In order to account for my own biases or knowledge of the students, the graduate student who I worked closely with (but who did not know the participants) independently coded a sub-section of the data. When we had reached consistent levels (i.e., over 70%) of inter-rater reliability, we then coded the rest of the data individually, regularly doing spot checks to ensure that we were discussing any differences in our respective analyses and coming to consensus over time.

"How Important the Little Victories Can Be": Tracing Participants' Beliefs Around ELA Teaching Through Reflective Writing

One of the clearest findings to emerge from the data was how the narrative experience allowed the teacher-learners to go deeply into their daily practices and rethink the connections between pedagogy, curriculum, and context. When we began our analyses, we expected—and found—that by nature the lesson plan reflections would emphasize a focus on direct instructional time. We were less sure about what kinds of moments the teacher-learners would choose to write about in their narratives. In both forms of reflection, direct instructional time was the most common code within the lesson plan reflections (roughly 70%) and coded within the critical narratives (roughly 30%). However, there was a distinct qualitative difference in how the teacher-learners described their experiences as early career teachers in these two formats.

In the lesson reflections, the teacher-learners almost exclusively focused on what they did as teachers, with very few instances of reflecting on the students in agentive ways. When the students were the focus of the reflections, it was usually regarding either their attention to the lesson, or whether or not they were able to master the material being

presented. Below is an example from Abigail's lesson plan reflection on a discussion she led around *Hamlet*:

> Overall, I feel this lesson went well. I was well-prepared and less nervous than I had been in the past. I noticed that I was able to get more students to participate because I used a check-sheet to make sure I was keeping track of who was participating and asking questions. I know that my students aren't really that interested in *Hamlet*. Most of them have told me they find it boring or complicated, so I was glad to see that overall they all stayed mostly focused for this lesson. One area where I think I could improve is really thinking about how to engage my students in developing their own inquiries. They answered my questions and I think most of them had read the play, but they still kept looking to me for the right answer. I wasn't sure when to tell them, or when to have them talk about it themselves. I'm also still struggling with quiet kids who just don't participate much. Next time I will work on crafting more open-ended questions and might give the students chances to take notes on the questions before the discussion.

This excerpt from Abigail's lesson reflection represents many of the common trends we found in these documents during our analysis. Typically, the teacher-learners started with a generalized statement regarding how well or poorly they felt the lesson went; they then would often give specific examples of pedagogical choices they made to support the initial statement. They almost all referenced students, describing them as a unified group, or sub-group (e.g., "the prepared students," "the disengaged kids," "the struggling readers"). Rarely, did teacher-learners mention specific students or interactions in these reflections. Finally, the teacher-learners almost always ended with theoretical modifications for the future.

These features were not surprising given the open-ended prompts: "Tell me about how the lesson went. What do you think went well? Where did you have challenges? What might you change if you were to give this lesson again in the future?" These prompts pushed teacher-learners to focus almost exclusively on curricular and pedagogical choices, as well as on their own individual agency in the classroom. These reflections demonstrate a focus on practice that centers on the teacher as authority (even within inquiry-based discussions) and limits the scope of what is worthy of reflection to direct instructional time and pedagogical decision-making. The concern with this limited focus

is that this emphasis can lead teachers to develop beliefs around ELA teaching that do not capture the inherently complex and interactional nature of teaching and learning literacy in schools. Furthermore, this approach seemed to direct the teacher-learners toward more traditional teacher-centered forms of instructional practice.

When direct instructional time was described in the critical narratives, however, a different image of professional practice emerged. Participants overwhelmingly described exact moments in detail, often emphasizing specific interactions with students. Interestingly, Abigail chose the same *Hamlet* unit to focus on during her critical narrative; while the instructional focus was the same, her voice and perspective were expressed differently:

> Nicole has the highest grade in the class but she is extremely shy and quiet. She rarely ever volunteers answers, even though she is almost always correct. However, in the small groups I set up, with Anna (another usually soft-spoken girl in the class) as the leader, I've seen Nicole offering suggestions, making decisions, and even joking around with the students in her group.
>
> Anna also helped another girl, Maria, stay on task while in the group. Maria and her best friend Marissa currently have the lowest grades in the class. While they are both smart girls and score decently well on individual assignments, they are always partnering for group work and they just distract each other the whole time. We made sure to split them up for the Shakespeare project to see how they perform on their own.
>
> On Thursday, Maria received disheartening news from her first-choice [college] and left the group to sit and talk with Marissa for the majority of the class. Anna noticed and was very concerned about Maria not participating in the group and doing her work. The next day, Anna made sure to sit next to Maria and worked together with her to translate one of the scenes. When Maria would start to get off task, or if Marissa would walk by, Anna would subtly encourage Maria to get back on track and focus on the project. It was so cool to see Anna step into this leadership role, but it blew me away to see how well she actually led her group! Anyone can boss people around and intimidate them into getting work done, but Anna stepped up and found a way to lead and encourage people to participate and do their work without being demanding or demeaning. I wonder how I can really focus on these developing leadership skills as the year moves on.

In this narrative, not only does Abigail's appreciation and knowledge of her individual students come through, but so does her own professional understanding of the nature of student relationships and the impacts they can have on instructional time. Furthermore, Abigail demonstrates a deep understanding of the role her students' identities and positionalities play in their academic lives. While in the lesson plan reflection Abigail offered an overall concern about engaging "quiet kids," here she offers a rich depiction of several individuals who might fit that criterion, as well as a sophisticated appreciation for the work that thoughtful grouping can do to support students' learning.

Abigail was not alone in demonstrating a much richer and more complex understanding of practice in her critical narrative than in her lesson plan reflections. Overwhelmingly, when direct instructional times were highlighted in these narratives, the participants demonstrated a growing appreciation for the role of students' identities and the sociocultural context. Another participant, Lisa, shared the following experience:

> At the end of the class, Kevin asked if he could come up on his lunch to get some help with typing the final version of his narrative. I told him that I was only there for a half day today, but that Mrs. Albright would be up here and happy to help him.
> "Will you be here all day tomorrow?"
> "Yeah."
> "Can I come up and work on it with you tomorrow then?"
> "Sure, of course."
> I couldn't help but smile.
> And he followed through. I helped him add some details to his narrative through questioning him, and clean it up grammatically. He got it done by the end of the period and ended up having one of the best papers in the class.
> The day after, I had his work graded, and updated his progress report before the students started arriving. I could barely contain my excitement. When he walked into class, I had it on deck, ready to go.
> "Guess what turning in all that work brought your grade up to?"
> "A C?"
> He seemed really hopeful.
> I handed it to him, and as soon as his eyes hit the letter, his face lit up. He had a B. He jumped out of his seat and immediately gave me a hug, thanking me for helping him. He was in the best mood the whole class, and even more, he was engaged and participating, too! I don't know who was happier about how his morning had turned out – me or him.

One of the core themes that emerged from the findings was that the teacher-learners routinely utilized the critical narrative assignment as a space to think through the relational and contextual aspects of teaching. They still focused on core practices of teaching ELA—such as reading comprehension and essay writing—but did so in ways that more deeply honored the lives of their students, the social and academic contexts in which they worked, and the sociopolitical histories of their schools.

These findings point to how the work of critical narratives can support the framing of practice that broadens teachers' beliefs of ELA practice as contextualized and intersectional. Their narratives—far more than their traditional lesson reflections—demonstrate their developing awareness of the importance of knowing students and their cultural identities as *part of* engaging them in rich literacy practices in schools. Far too often, the teaching culturally responsive approaches or critical perspectives on education occurs in spaces that are separate from content and pedagogical development (Cochran-Smith, 2004). Engaging teacher-learners in this kind of narrative work demonstrates the possibility for utilizing new practices in teacher education that support robust theoretical perspectives and beliefs that highlight the intersectional nature of learning in schools.

The teacher-learners themselves recognized these shifts in voice and perspectives as they engaged in the critical narrative assignment. Christy wrote:

> After I wrote up my critical moment, it seemed miniscule on paper in the grand scheme of what I can be doing to help my students. I began to worry that this moment wasn't "good enough," but I kept thinking about how happy the student was and how hard it can be to get all of my students positively engaged with the text or what we're doing in class. I decided to stick with it, despite some hesitation. As soon as we started discussing in class, I immediately felt better about it. My classmates shared how relatable the moment was and how important the little victories can be. Building that rapport with this student has helped him be more engaged and successful in class. It was an important moment and it took some discussion with my classmates to really see that. This was a small victory for the student and for myself but it was a victory. This small victory can turn into something bigger, or lead to other small victories with other students.

Often, early career teachers get discouraged by what can seem like daunting tasks, particularly when working in schools or with particular students who have faced opportunity gaps (Gallant & Riley, 2014; Howard & Milner, 2014; Milner, 2013) or historical large-scale marginalization. In these narrative reflections, many of the participants referenced the feeling of joy or comfort at finding a space to reflect on their learning and celebrate what can feel like small moments in the face of stress and accountability measures. These narratives and group discussions offered the students chances to delve deeply and appreciate the critical nature of these interactions—building links not only between their various experiences and contexts but also across their own time spent in the classroom. This sentiment is echoed in the vignette shared at the opening of this chapter; there, Thomas shared more explicitly the sense that these narratives provided room to do something different from traditional reflection—something that appears to feel more authentic to many of the teacher-learners. These findings suggest that we need to create practices within teacher education that help to support early career teachers' recognition of the importance of these "small" moments, as well as the chance to engage in reflection around these topics alongside more traditional reflections on direct instruction and formal lesson planning. Utilizing collaborative inquiry (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2016) along with critical narrative are two specific approaches that help broaden teachers' understandings of their work, and support their sense of self-efficacy and agency in the classroom.

In addition to finding emotional support and a human side of learning and teaching, the participants also demonstrated a profound understanding of how these narratives shifted their fundamental views of what it means to teaching literacy in schools. The title of this chapter is drawn from comments that one candidate made during her one-on-one interview. Jane was by all measures a strong teacher candidate. She excelled in coursework and in her field observations. It was surprising, therefore, when she shared her own sense of inadequacy or ill-preparedness during her interview:

> When I started, I just felt completely overwhelmed. But I was faking it well, you know? I would write a lesson and feel like, 'Yes, this is good! I got this!' But then I would get in front of the class and it would feel like an act, and I wasn't sure why. Even though my mentor and supervisor kept saying I was doing well. I felt like I was just another teacher

> droning out information. And, it was during the critical narrative assignment that I realized a big issue was my mindset. I had just been thinking about the 'what' of the lesson – what I need to cover, you know, or what was going to be on the test. But writing the narrative, and especially sharing it, it made me think about the who and the where, not just the what. And that – that really changed things for me. I found myself thinking 'So, how will so-and-so react to this question?' or 'what might this particular kid need to really get this?' when I was preparing lessons. And so, that was a big moment for me.

In this moment, Jane verbalized what many of the teacher-learners referenced in the surveys, reflections, and interviews: a sense that having the opportunity to collaboratively share stories and think through them shifted their mindsets around what is at the core of ELA education. Rather than framing student relationships or educational concerns as distinct and separate issues, this project enabled many of the students to really begin to understand what a more holistic and integrated notion of practice could be.

Balancing Learner Selves and Teacher Selves: Developing and Embracing Productive Professional Uncertainty

The critical narratives project provided the participants rich avenues from which to explore their own understandings of literacy education and also provided them with the opportunity to reframe their developing sense of professional identity. The teacher preparation program that the teacher-learners were part of has, as one of its core practices and philosophies, a focus on inquiry-driven learning and instruction. To model the potential impact of this approach in secondary classrooms, instructors in the teacher education program (myself included) engage teacher-learners in the same types of mindsets and experiences. While inquiry has come to mean a number of different approaches within literacy education, in this program we draw on the concept of "inquiry as stance" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009)—an approach centered on engaging teachers and students in authentic queries that reflect the intersections of text and context. Toward that end, we focus on deepening understanding and engaging multiple perspectives, rather than highlighting mastery of particular skills, or product-oriented instruction.

Despite this programmatic focus and framework, when we reviewed the traditional lesson reflections, we found that overwhelmingly the participants adopted a mastery-stance toward their own field-based learning. The prompts asked the teacher-learners to reflect on what had not gone well, or what they might do differently, and consequently, all but a few of the reflections highlighted a moment that had not gone according to plan, or that had not been as fruitful as the teacher-learner had hoped. Moreover, approximately 75% of the time, their approach toward these moments reflected a strong deficit orientation either toward themselves as teacher, their students as learners, or both. For example, Elizabeth critiqued herself by saying:

> One of the major areas I could improve on was how I said "like" and "just, like" and "um" so many times. I couldn't even count how many times I said that. … I am working on noticing it more and stopping it.

While this reflects a relatively minor moment in her instruction, it is clear that her presentation and "teacherly persona" are salient—a common concern for early career teachers. But rather than thinking about what might cause this insecurity, or delving more deeply into her own beliefs regarding her positionality in the classroom, Elizabeth frames this issue as a verbal tic that she needs to eliminate. This attitude comes through again later in her reflection as well:

> [During the class discussion] I didn't stay in an outsider/teacher mode, but I was just as much part of the discussion as they were. While I'm glad that [my mentor] took this to be a positive thing, it definitely wasn't intentional. I really wanted to take more of a teacher role and direct the conversation a little more than I did. I feel like I had so much more I wanted to say, but I also wanted to give everyone the opportunity to talk and say everything they wanted to say. I guess that's good, but I also think I can (and should) do a better job at speaking up for myself and directing the discussion and making sure I get the points I want to get across, across.

Here, we gain more insight into how Elizabeth is framing her understanding of a "teacher role"—that of a person who can direct the conversation and guide the discussion to particular points or objectives. Despite positive reassurance, Elizabeth still struggles here with self-doubt regarding her ability to embody the teacher she believes she should be.

While there are a range of teacher identities that fall on a spectrum of authority, the point here is not whether or not Elizabeth is correct about what a teacher "should" do or be, but more in how she frames this moment as a series of issues she must master in order to improve; she does not seem to assume the type of growth-mind-set toward her own learning that we would hope she might take for her own students. Helping teacher candidates or early career teachers develop an appreciation for the importance of professional uncertainty and inquiry into their own craft is a critical role of teacher education programs—a role that often is overlooked. The sharing of these critical moments via storytelling and conversation seemed to help support these early career teachers in their growing appreciation for the need for ongoing learning and professional development over the career span.

This kind of mastery-orientation and narrow framing of a teacher's role was common across the lesson plan reflections. For example, three different teacher-learners shared similar reactions:

> I spoke too slowly and without enough authority. I need to fix that. (Lisa)

> I ask a lot of questions all at once. It is an easy habit to fall back on and one I need I know I need to improve in order to be successful. I should have solved this issue by now. (Margaret)

> Something that has been emphasized to me, especially by my mentor, is to call on students when they are ready to participate, especially those who do not frequently contribute. I was trying to practice moving the conversation along and in doing so failed to enrich the conversation where I could have. (John)

Again, the purpose of sharing these narratives is not to question whether or not the teacher-learners' perspectives of instruction are effective, but instead to demonstrate a persistent stance toward right/wrong ways of being teachers in their school-based experiences. Words like "failure," "authority," and "success" were common across the traditional lesson reflections. Almost always these concerns were followed with specific ideas of what the candidate would do (or not do) in the future to "fix" the immediate issue; rarely did the teacher-learner share any ruminations around why these moments or teacher moves felt problematic to them, despite the fact that many of them linked directly to their concepts of what it means to take up a teacher's role in an ELA classroom.

In the critical narratives, while teacher-learners often brought up moments that did not go according to plan, or that surprised them entirely, there was a very different tone regarding these experiences. Instead of seeing moments of insecurity as highly problematic issues that needed to be fixed, the teacher-learners instead dove more deeply into their own questions or moments of uncertainty. They shared these experiences in a collaborative effort to reflect more deeply on issues of practice that emerged during their time in schools. One of the participants, Sylvia, shared a complicated moment in her initial critical narrative regarding a discussion with her father:

> 'Once you're a real teacher, you'll never have the time to really help your students. Enjoy it while you can, maybe it'll land you an interview, or something,' Dad said, oh-so-lovingly during a phone call I made to him to share my first feelings of success as a student teacher. It caught me off guard in the moment, but I sat with it for a few hours and I began to really unpack what he said. First of all, '*real teacher*?' Was I not *really* teaching my student how to start an essay? Was I not *really* taking the time to help my student break down the multiple ways to respond to a prompt? Was I not *really* teaching her? (italics in original)

In this narrative, and in the following discussion of the text in class, the issue of the position that a student teacher holds became a central one. The duality of teaching and learning can feel uncomfortable at times, as student teaching requires a delicate dance of observation, apprenticeship, and self-discovery (Jacobs, 2014; Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009). Here, a comment from Sylvia's father set off, most likely unintentionally, a high level of tension regarding this role. But in her narrative, rather than try to come to some succinct conclusion, Sylvia instead invited us as an audience into her own uncertainty. As she unpacked her father's words, she allowed us to become a part of that process through her writing. In the class discussion, many of classmates shared how her words helped them engage in their own efforts to understand their role as student teachers, and what these experiences mean for their future selves. Sylvia commented on this topic when she reflected on the experience of sharing her narrative in class:

> In writing my narrative, I found myself trying to reconcile two moments that were in tension with each other – unsupportive comments from a parent and a successful moment in the classroom that validated pieces of my drive to become a teacher. Trying to articulate the emotional struggle those moments created was difficult, but I found a lot of affirmation from the class that really helped me make sense of the two moments myself. When I first heard the assignment at the beginning of the semester, I was apprehensive to share this unknown moment with the class – how would I open up? How would I be received? Would my moment be less significant than those of my peers? As I entered the class last week, those feelings were entirely foreign to me, as I knew that over the course of the last eleven weeks, the community we've become may not be able to relate, but they would try to be able to understand, and that they did.

In her reflection, Sylvia shares how working from a space of collaboration and inquiry in class supported her own ability to be uncertain and vulnerable. Many of the other narrative reflections shared this inquiry-stance. In our analyses, we termed these instances as examples of productive professional uncertainty—when teacher-learners were able to wonder or inquire deeply into moments of confusion without losing their ability to see themselves as professionals and educators within their schools and classrooms. Below are two examples that demonstrate this trend in the data:

> The experience of going through classes without preparation was a necessary, albeit painful, moment. There are all of these layers to teaching that none of us truly knew before experiencing them first hand. … It's just hard right now, because I hate being bad at things. Like. HATE. Usually I avoid something if I'm bad at it. It's good to be reminded we're all flopping and floundering and that it will get better. (Margaret)

> Sharing this helped me realize why my moment felt so critical to me. I want to 'be the teacher,' but I also want to be liked. I'm still working on figuring out what I mean by that one. (Allison)

In addition to bringing a more sustained approach to inquiry within the ELA classroom, the teacher-learners also used this space to think about the more complex and human elements of learning to teach. During the third year of data collection, one of our student teachers, Hannah, worked at a high school where a student was shot and killed

in his neighborhood. This student had been in one of Hannah's classes. In her narrative, Hannah shared her sense of numbness as the principal relayed the news to the faculty—how she struggled to support her students during classes, trying to figure out how to help them process the loss. Before sharing her narrative, Hannah confided in me as her instructor, stating that she worried the moment was too much and she was not focused enough on "actual teaching" (personal communication). I encouraged her to share if she felt it was right for her, and ultimately she did post the narrative. In her reflection, Hannah wrote of her appreciation for the chance to think through this painful experience with her peers:

> I was glad to receive similar feedback, before presenting my story, from my cohort as I shared with them the hesitation [around using this moment] I had experienced. They assured me that they were ready to handle it; it was an important issue to them as well. As I sat back and listened, it became obvious to me that this story allowed many people in my cohort to open up. They shared similar concerns, apprehensions, and frustrations. Our 'influence,' as teachers, we realized, seemed to be left by the exit door by some of our students as they ran out frantically with the final bell of the day. My cohort sat in silence as they reflected over this thought- a silence that I had experienced a few days before at the morning staff meeting whenever we received the news from the principal.
>
> Sometimes silence says it all. Maybe, as teachers, we do not think we can do much to help or maybe we do not know where to start. At least that's how I felt as I listened to my cohort share their feedback. I was glad I did decide to share this moment, after all. It felt like the best space to do such a thing; I felt supported, validated, and assured that I was not the only one with frustrations and concerns regarding the somewhat limited scope of influence that education, as a system, has on some of our demographics. However, despite feeling helpless within the bigger system, it was clear that we all felt quite determined to still provide all the help that we can to all of our students, hoping that more often than not our help would make if only a hint of a difference.

Again, Hannah's narrative reflects that it is not always possible to neatly sum up the inherently messy, complex, and human work of teaching—something that the traditional lesson reflections seemed to engender. This approach to reflection can not only stifle teacher-learners'

ability to share their concerns or questions, but also can lead them to believe that learning to teach means getting past inquiry or uncertainty. As teacher educators, we know our students will face difficult days like Hannah's, when confusion, pain, and even mourning become part of the school day. What this narrative project demonstrated is the power that providing teacher-learners with spaces designed to open up inquiry into practice offered. The rich variety of contexts, experiences, and questions that they brought—along with a deeper and more collaborative engagement with inquiry—allowed these teacher-learners to question their own assumptions around what it means to be a literacy teacher, in turn providing new avenues to engage in their own developing professional beliefs.

Implications for Teacher Education Programs

As teacher education programs look to provide their teacher-learners with new perspectives on what it means to learn and teach in today's schools, we need question the impact that our current practices have on how teacher-learners frame the work of education. Without this kind of introspection, shifts in teacher preparation program might be only superficial without sustained impacts on teacher education graduates. The goal of this project was to think through ways of shifting reflection on practice within literacy teacher education in order to help teacher-learners develop more complex understandings of what it means to teach literacy in secondary schools. Building on the long-standing traditions of utilizing narrative a space of teacher learning (Huber, Caine, Huber, & Steeves, 2013; Ravitch, 2014; Rymes & Wortham, 2011), the critical narrative of field experiences assignment aimed to engage the teacher-learners in collaborative questioning of their own learning. After three years of engaging ELA teacher-learners in this work, it is clear that this type of engagement can indeed shift how practice is defined and enacted.

Having teacher-learners participate in this kind of sustained literacy-based inquiry where they write, read, and reflect on their field experiences seems to provide a strong basis from which to think more broadly about practice in our schools. If we want our new teachers to engage aspects of culture, community, and identity into their literacy instruction, we need to provide opportunities to do this kind of work within teacher preparation programs. Using critical narratives of field experience where the focus is on learning from and with our teacher-learners about their school-based experiences provides a path toward

helping them to understand the intersectional nature of teaching. Furthermore, findings from this study suggest that this type of narrative experience can also help teacher-learners make more intricate and insightful connections between pedagogical and content choices, culturally sustaining pedagogy, and issues of power and agency in the classroom.

The critical narrative of field experiences assignment demonstrates one way that literacy teacher education courses can provide instruction that supports teacher-learners with a stronger understanding of what a sociocultural perspective on literacy-learning might mean (Campano, 2007; Gutiérrez, 2008). Furthermore, this kind of approach helps make clear the connections between pedagogy, content knowledge, power, and agency in the classroom. The aim here is to use critical storying (Hartlep & Hensley, 2015) in an effort to help early career teachers think about the assumptions and beliefs that guide much ELA instruction in today's schools while also providing them concrete and programmatic approaches that put alternative frameworks, such as critical practice-based teacher education into action.

This kind of reflection cannot simply focus on allowing teacher-learners a chance to share; there is also a need to prepare literacy teachers to enact these beliefs. These kinds of narrative spaces must be designed in such a way so that these conversations are sustained over time and so that they have direct impacts on the kinds of instruction teacher-learners are asked to develop in their own secondary classrooms. Changing early career teachers' beliefs during their time in teacher preparation is not enough; we need to provide them with a framework *and* with embodied experiences that will sustain these beliefs and translate them into future practice. How, then, might critical narratives be a starting point for this kind of transformation practice within literacy teacher education? How do we create opportunities to translate these moments of collaborative inquiry and productive uncertainty into future work within field experiences? We cannot end by only uncovering our own assumptions and those of our teacher-learners. We need to design literacy teacher education in ways that utilize the power of narrative to shape perception, focusing on the need to translate these beliefs into more equitable, sustaining, and enriching literacy classroom practices.

Notes

1. All names of people and spaces used in this paper are pseudonyms.
2. The phrase "teacher-learner" is used in lieu of the more traditional "teacher candidate" or "pre-service teacher" in order to emphasize a framework of valuing the knowledge of both novice and more experienced educators, and to emphasize the need to view teaching as a profession centered on lifelong professional learning.
3. All participants were asked to self-identify by gender and race on the survey.

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CHAPTER 8

Transforming Literacy Instruction in Second-Language Contexts: The Impact of Graduate Education in Colombia

Raúl Alberto Mora, Claudia Cañas, Ana Karina Rodríguez, and Natalia Andrea Salazar

Teacher professional development in Colombia has been in a state of flux since the 1990s when the first bilingual education initiatives were developed (see: Mora, Chiquito, & Zapata, 2019); in particular, the merger of in-service and higher education is a more recent affair. In the past decade, Colombia has witnessed an expansion from the traditional workshops and seminars to a growing interest for teachers to pursue a Masters of Arts (MA) and more recently, doctoral degrees. English and second-language education have equally followed that trend, with an expanded offering of MA-level programs in English Language Teaching (ELT), applied linguistics, and second-language studies. There are a few doctoral programs as well devoted to issues such as bilingualism, teacher education in ELT, and intercultural education, to name a few, with more contemplating the addition of research lines in second-language studies.

R. A. Mora (✉) · C. Cañas · A. K. Rodríguez · N. A. Salazar
Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin, Colombia
e-mail: raulmora@illinoisalumni.org

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In the case of MA programs, there have been efforts to begin to gauge their impact in the field of teacher professional learning (López Pinzón & Ramírez Contreras, 2018; Viáfara & Largo, 2018), mostly through cross-case analysis of curricula and survey data. One thing that we know, as Mora (2010) explained, is that education (and graduate education in particular) is a very influential factor that propels teachers' evolution of their literacy self-efficacy beliefs and practices (Bandura, 1982; Clark, this volume; Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012; Pajares, 1996).

Despite the growing interest, there are three areas related to self-efficacy where we are missing information. First, we need to look more closely at the potential impact and transformative (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) practices of MA programs by way of teacher first-hand accounts (Jacobs, this volume) and counter-narratives (Mora, 2014c, 2017b). Although we do have evidence of self-efficacy in teacher education (e.g., Clark, this volume; Clark & Newberry, 2018), we need more information about graduate education. We also need to better understand how programs are incorporating contemporary ideas about literacy in their curricula (DiCesare & Rowsell, this volume) and their impact on their overall curriculum and instruction (Poulton, Tambyah, & Woods, this volume). Finally, we need to provide a counter-balance between experimental studies on self-efficacy and qualitative work, especially in international contexts. Although our review found case studies in places like Japan (Nishino, 2012) and Eastern Europe (Rubacha & Siritova, 2019; Rubacha, Sirotova, & Chomczyńska-Rubacha, 2016), we believe that going beyond statistical findings and looking at teacher narratives may shed more light on self-efficacy processes based on life experiences.

This chapter intends to address these issues through the reflexivity process (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Mora, 2011) of a group of four teachers, all members of a research team (Clift, Brady, Mora, Stegemoller, & Choi, 2006) in Colombia (Mora, 2015). Relying on autoethnographic accounts (Chang, 2008; Denzin, 2014; Jacobs, this volume; Mora, 2017b; Spry, 2016) and collective reflections (Semingson, O'Byrne, Mora, & Kist, 2017), our team will explore how the different iterations of a graduate seminar that Raúl taught in an MA program in Colombia (Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017) between 2013 and 2017 helped Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia shape and transform the way they conceived literacy and how that, in turn, transformed their teaching practices and their own worldview and self-efficacy as emerging

scholars. This chapter will briefly describe the situation of graduate programs in Colombia and the specific MA program where the literacies seminar took place (for a more extended account of the MA program at large, see: Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017). Then, we will introduce the four authors and their different layers of collaboration as part of the research team (Clift et al., 2006). Each author will share the impact of the seminar from four very different vantage points: covering issues of mentoring (Raúl), transitions to higher education (Claudia), pre-school education (Ana Karina), and rural education (Natalia). The final version will bring all four authors again to engage in a collaborative reflexivity about the impact of this graduate seminar on self-efficacy and some recommendations for other teachers and teacher educators who intend to infuse their curricula with elements of literacies theory (Ciampa & Gallagher, this volume).

Context of Graduate Education in Colombia and the MA Literacies Seminar

Graduate education in Colombia is still a work in progress. Although the first MA program in the field appeared in 1991 in Bogotá, most of the MA programs in the country have surfaced since 2000, typically in the major capital cities of the country (Bogotá, Cali, Medellín) with a few scattered across other regions of Colombia. Most programs seem to focus on English Language Teaching, Foreign Language Education, or Applied Linguistics as main topics. In the case of literacy in general, most MA programs in Colombia have focused primarily on the traditional views of literacy-as-reading (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011), with a few venturing into issues of critical literacy (Gutiérrez, 2015) and multimodal literacies (Álvarez Valencia, 2016).

However, the most systematic effort to infuse literacies research into an MA program is that of the MA in Learning and Teaching Processes in Second Languages (ML2; Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017) at our university. This program features a graduate seminar unprecedented in Colombia. ML2 seminar, "English Language II: Literacies in Second Languages" (Cañas, 2018; Mora, 2013) features a counter-proposal to the traditional ideas of literacy-as-reading and the focus on learning to help students read and write in a second language. Therefore, and building from Raúl's own doctoral work (Mora, 2010, 2011), this

seminar talks about, *Literacies in Second Languages* (Mora, 2015, 2017a), which, as Mora (2017a) explained, takes a dual approach toward literacies:

> On the one hand, literacies in second languages explore the new language ecologies and literacy practices that emerge in different physical and virtual spaces where second-language users dwell and operate. On the other hand, this notion studies how to incorporate and adapt contemporary concepts and frameworks in literacies research, such as critical literacy, multiliteracies, multimodality, or gaming literacies, to name a few, to today's learning and teaching of languages. (Mora, 2017a; Defining the Term, paragraph 1)

The graduate seminar has grown this understanding from its outset, introducing MA students to those issues surrounding new literacies (Lankshear, Knobel, & Curran, 2013; Street, 2013), multiliteracies and multimodality (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009; DiCesare & Rowsell, this volume; Trigos-Carrillo & Rogers, 2017), critical literacies (Bacon, 2017; Gómez Jiménez & Gutiérrez, 2019; Mora, 2014a), and twenty-first-century literacies (Mora, 2014b; Morrell, 2012), covering these issues across the entire P-20 spectrum (Cañas, Ocampo, López-Ladino, Rodríguez, & Mora, 2018; Mora, 2016). Since its first version in 2013, the course has sought to develop a sense of critical consciousness (Willis et al., 2008) regarding literacy, as Cañas (2018) herself explained in the most recent version of the syllabus:

> When you know what is beyond literacy, you may have some ideas about those taboo topics which have been silently developed and seldom analyzed. Some scholars around the world (and more recently, in the Global South) have devoted their research to unveil and highlight the importance of them in the daily life because they are just for a minority group; the processes affect all the community. (p. 2)

About the Authors

To describe the four authors of this chapter means to talk about a shifting relationship among all of them. Their relationships have evolved from merely professor-student during the literacies seminar to a constantly shifting mentorship relationship. Raúl (the lead author) first met Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia (the other co-authors) in his dual role of ML2 program coordinator and instructor for the literacies

seminar. After the seminar, the junior co-authors became Raúl's advisees during their thesis work while also joining the Literacies in Second Languages Project (LSLP; Mora, 2015) research lab. From the moment, they started writing their theses until the present, the mentorship relationship has shifted from being Raúl's graduate students to becoming Raúl's colleagues (although it is safe to say the co-authors still see Raúl as a colleague-mentor hybrid). Through this collaborative reflexivity, there has been an impact on identity and self-efficacy. At present, as part of LSLP, they have worked together on research projects and co-authored conference papers and other publications.

The Narratives: Methodological Considerations

This section will offer narratives from each author. Each narrative is autoethnographic (Chang, 2008; Denzin, 2014; Mora, 2017b; Spry, 2016) in nature, as it documents the personal vantage points and journeys each author has undertaken in their development as self-efficacious literacy scholars. However, the authors have chosen to ground their narratives within literacies research literature and the context of the course, providing four differing perspectives and realities surrounding the literacies course. The first narrative will introduce Raúl's account (from the perspective of creating the course and teaching the first iterations), his impetus behind creating the course, and how designing and teaching the course has impacted all his work as a teacher educator. The second narrative will share Claudia's own transformation as she navigates being an elementary school teacher, a teacher educator, and the new instructor for the literacies graduate seminar. In the third narrative, Ana Karina will share the transformation of her own practice as she integrated critical literacies into her work with preschoolers. In the last narrative, Natalia will discuss her own transformation as she works with prospective teachers in a rural school and integrates multimodal literacies into her everyday practice.

Raúl: An Ongoing Journey into Literacies Teaching, Research… and Mentoring

My journey into literacy spans 17 years, counting from the day I began my graduate studies at the University of Illinois. In many ways, my narrative has a convergence point with that of my co-authors, as I will also make references to my own graduate education and how that impacted

me. It will differ because I will also talk about my own shifting roles from being a graduate student and research assistant to now having my own students and how I now am forced to answer a question I wrote 12 years ago in a chapter:

> When does the transition from “grad students” to “colleagues” happen in a professor’s mind, if that ever happens? Is it easier for some to look at their students as colleagues-to-be? When does that transition happen in a student’s mind? Does the academia really prepare both professors and students to realize that one day they might be at the same level? (Clift et al., 2006, p. 94)

I arrived at literacy as part of my initial inquiries surrounding teacher education in my MA program and then I delved deeper into this as I continued in my doctoral program. I do owe acknowledgment to my first adviser, Professor Renée Clift, for having the wisdom to guide me toward that path and my last adviser, Professor Arlette Willis, for helping me finish that first part of my path as a literacy scholar. After graduate work, in 2010, it was time to return home to Columbia after finishing my Ph.D. That first year (2010–2011) was a period of adjustment as I taught English and started outlining some ideas to develop my research and teaching agendas. In August 2011, I started at my current university and I was able to weave my literacy background in the development of an MA program related to second-language studies, which later became the MA in Learning and Teaching Processes in Second Languages (Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017). I had the firm conviction that infusing ideas from critical literacy (Janks, 2014; Luke, 2012; Willis et al., 2008), New Literacy Studies (Kist, 2000; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006; Street, 2013), and multiliteracies (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2009) into second-language studies was necessary, especially in our local context. Therefore, I decided to build from the conceptual framework I had created for my dissertation (Mora, 2010) to design a course around literacies theory, as no other program in Colombia had such a course and that would also provide a competitive edge to this program.

I taught the first iteration of the course in 2013. Teaching this course for the first time was quite a challenge. I was sure that I had done the homework of reading the literature; the bulk of it was articulated when I defended my dissertation. Now, the question was, would I be able to instill in these new master’s students an interest in a topic that was both

my research agenda and my life passion? One challenge is plotting a syllabus, executing it is a whole different challenge. I think the litmus test for me every time I taught the course was whether any of these students at the end of the second semester in the program asked me to be their thesis director. In that sense, I can say, quoting Lou Gehrig, that "I am one of the luckiest men on the face of the Earth," as I have had students in every cohort of our program but one asks to work with me on their thesis. My first student was Claudia (along with Angela, another LSLP researcher), then came Natalia, and Ana Karina shortly after. As well there have been two others who finished a few years ago, and six more students that I have now including a doctoral student.

This triggered the next challenge for me: What kind of *mentor* would I be? To me, directing a thesis goes beyond the drafts and the feedback; there is a sense of continuity involved. Looking back at my work, I can say that I have been one of the trailblazers in my country. However, residing myself as the only one doing this kind of research would constitute a failure, as I was not able to inspire other young scholars so we could build a field together. I admit that I was worried about this and how well I would do the job (Mora, 2014c). I was blessed with incredible mentors where I did my graduate studies, so I wanted in a way to pay it forward. Mentoring was a learning process for me, one that I have had to embark upon with every student. I had to learn to find the middle ground between influencing my students' work without silencing their creativity. My students are talented enough to push me out of my own comfort zone. Claudia and Ana Karina, for example, have forced me to look more carefully at issues in elementary education (my background mostly comes from secondary education) and learn from them about the P-5 structure in our local schools, issues that they explored in their own research (Cañas & Ocampo, 2015; Rodríguez, 2017). Natalia's work encouraged me to look more closely at literacy practices in rural areas (Azano, 2015) and what it means to infuse, for example, multimodal literacies in rural schools (Salazar, 2016). And these are just two examples. My other mentees have triggered more questions about the elementary school system and how to engage students in reading (López-Ladino, 2017), how to mesh aesthetics and literacy (Gutiérrez-Arismendy, 2016), multimodal design (Isaza, 2016), or as in the case of Esteban, my current doctoral student, to learn more about merging assessment and literacies (Jacobs, 2013). I look forward to the paths that my current graduate students will invite me to navigate with them

in the future. That, I believe, is the biggest impact that teaching the literacies course has had in my own self-efficacy as a scholar: Learning how effective it is to place my experiences at the service of these younger researchers and scholars. Mentoring is about working *with* your students while you work *for* them, helping them find their own voices that will enrich, in this case, the field of literacies research. In some ways, this is an extension of the notion of the collective efficacy (see Park, Fisher, & Frey, this volume; Poulton, Tambyah, & Woods, this volume).

Claudia: Becoming a Scholar While Navigating Between School and University Instructor

As part of the staff of a private school that belongs to one of the most well-known universities in Medellín, I had the opportunity to apply for a scholarship and start the ML2 program. I started the program eager to open my teaching spectrum to new education trends. During the first semester, we discussed the proposals for conducting our research study as it was the requirement to write the thesis for this master's degree. I started reading the literacy literature and related it to what I was wondering about: why some third graders struggle particularly with the processes of reading and writing. When I started the program, I just knew about literacy conceived as the development of basic reading and writing skills. About three months into the program, in the course English Language II: Literacies in Second Languages, the first suggested readings for the class were to read Freire and Macedo (1987) and Street (1984). This is when I realized that literacy was more than the development of two language skills, that this was "a social practice" (Street, 1995). In particular, at school most of the teachers were limiting the students to decode and encode letters, but not allowing them to exploit their personal literacy practices inside the classes. I admit that every reading and session of this course was like a "Pandora's box" because there were a lot of concepts that were new for me. It was amazing to experience how the professor (Raúl) delighted us with his explanations and his passion for the topic.

After some time in the program, my thesis partner and I received the good news that Raúl was now our advisor. Before our first meeting with him, we thought that we had an idea for clear topic for our study. Once we started describing our first insights about our proposal, however, Raúl told us that we were not yet ready to begin research and

that we should read more. He guided us toward the most appropriate authors to continue our reading about early literacies, literacy practices and events, multimodality and Multiliteracies and we decided to center on the exploration of children's personal literacies (Cañas & Ocampo, 2015). Conducting our research and writing our master's thesis was time-consuming and demanding. Raul invited me to join LSLP and later become his Teaching Assistant for the literacies seminar between 2015 and 2017. During this time, we worked together updating and discussing the design and teaching of this course. I attended the classes while helping students with their doubts and interacting with the whole group while Raúl was the professor.

In the last stage of writing my thesis, I received a call to work with one of the undergraduate programs at the Faculty of Education. I started teaching *Communicative Competence II*, which helps to reinforce teacher candidates' language learning process. We updated the syllabus with topics closely related to the teaching process to strengthen some of the instructional skills that they would need once they started teaching. I devoted time to share with them what literacy and other related terms meant. Most of them were surprised to learn that some of their language practices were part of literacy and that some of them were also multimodal. As a result of this process, students created some short stories about a teaching topic that they chose at the beginning of the course, searching information about it that would foreground the final product as multimodal. Through teaching teacher candidates as well as having the experience of teaching in elementary and high school has given me the opportunity to share with them various experiences about the learning and teaching language processes.

In 2016, the coordinator of the Graduate Specialization in English Teaching invited me to join this program as faculty member. Here I found an opportunity not only to share my teaching and research experience, but also to talk deeply about literacy. At this time, my former students were in-service teachers in private and public schools and universities, eager to transform their teaching practices and give their students opportunities in their classrooms a place where they can have a voice. Concurrently, I met with Raúl and other LSLP researchers to discuss the projects, course design, lectures, and articles we had in progress. The purpose was to nurture the proposals from the group to enhance our collective efficacy. These gatherings were enriching since Raúl, with all his experience and knowledge about research and literacy, led us

through discussion in which we felt comfortable enough to share our own experiences in the different settings.

Then in 2018 the news came that I was going to take on teaching the Literacies in Second Languages Seminar. With this news came many ideas as well as emotions such as happiness and shock. I was now facing a big responsibility on my shoulders but one for which I had been preparing myself for about two years. Raúl, as a real 24/7 mentor, has always been there, not only to encourage me to face challenges but also to help me when it was difficult to make decisions. I had to design my own version of the course so I began to look for all the notes I had taken during my time as TA to then outline the possible main topic and the authors. I went to the Dropbox files that Raúl shared every semester with the students and downloaded the different versions of the syllabus. I started classifying topics and authors to track how the topics have evolved and what I wanted to retain, highlight, or bring new to the course. I had many drafts until I then got a decent one to show to Raúl for his feedback—I was eager to know his thoughts, as he was my mentor. After Raúl's comments, I polished the syllabus and I shared it with some scholars such as Jessica Pandya, who was on my thesis committee. September 2018 arrived, and I had to welcome not one but two groups at the same time. At the beginning, this was very stressful. Although I had planned a variety of topics for the sessions, sometimes time would run out of time because of the discussions we had or the students' questions around the different topics, or the opportunities that they took to reflect on their own practices. Taken together my experiences as a graduate student and university instructor have propelled my view of myself as a self-efficacious beginning scholar.

Ana Karina: Critical Literacy as Reflexivity of My Own Practice

It took roughly six weeks, 12 classes, and 36 hours of listening, reading, and discussion to work through an experience, which I can only describe as analogous to the "seven stages of grief" when one experiences a loss. As I sat in on the graduate level literacies seminar, I underwent a series of emotions and changes that I had to face, not only as a teacher but as a person. The beginning of this process was the toughest to deal with but, fortunately for me, it lasted only a short period of time.

I mark the onset of my grief and transformation during our second meeting when we started to engage with and explore the topic of critical literacy. The assigned readings, lecture, and discussions sent me into an initial stage of shock and denial. I had always considered myself a passionate and dedicated teacher; one who stayed up to date on educational trends and best practices. How could I have never heard of the concept of critical literacy and its perspective toward literacy? How could no one have ever told me? Is critical literacy even a thing worldwide, or maybe it's just something here in Colombia? I suppose that asking these questions was a way of protecting my self-efficacy as an in-service teacher, but this self-protection did not change the fact that I began to feel overwhelmed.

Soon thereafter, feelings of doubt began to consume my heart and mind. The more I read and listened, the more I reflected on my practices as an early childhood English teacher through the eyes of a graduate student drawn into critical literacy. A video reel of clips of my teaching played on and on in my mind, mostly focusing on my teaching practice of picture book read-alouds. I had always enjoyed these moments in my classroom, I was convinced that my young English learners had always appreciated these moments too. Now I questioned my self-efficacy as I saw harm and oppression to my students based on these practices (Rodríguez, 2017). I had been limiting my students' in-school reading experiences as our read-alouds revolved around books, questions, discussions, and activities based on phonics, sight words, vocabulary themes, and basic comprehension. The reading experiences that I was exposing my students to had not given them the chance to draw significant and meaningful connections between the texts that we read aloud and their lives, experiences, or interests. Furthermore, our in-class reading experiences were producing a narrow understanding of what literacy was for and what it had the potential to do in the world (Leland, Harste, & Huber, 2005). I started to question myself as a teacher and as a person and I felt like a fraud (Luke, 2017), like I had been oppressing my students rather than helping and empowering them. As a result, I became angry with myself.

Had I reflected on my teaching practices with a perspective other than critical literacy, this stage of anger might have lasted longer. However, as an important piece of critical literacy lies within hopefulness (Smith, 2001), I swiftly took an upward turn with respect to reforming my identity and self-efficacy as a literacy teacher. By the second seminar,

I was drawing inspiration from alternate notions of literacy (Freebody & Luke, 1990; Freire, 1970; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Luke & Freebody, 1999) and practices of critical literacy with young learners (Harste, 2003; Harste & Vasquez, 2011; Leland et al., 2005; Meller, Richardson, & Hatch, 2009; Vasquez, 2010, 2014) with the goal of working through the problems that I had started to see within my teaching practice. It was around this time in the course that Raúl explained how taking on a critical literacy perspective did not mean that we had to throw away everything that we were doing in our classrooms. Rather, he encouraged us to look for opportunities to tweak certain things that were already happening in our classrooms in order to infuse these moments with critical literacy, and so I did just that. I selected one part of my teaching practice that could be used as a springboard into critical literacy: picture book read-alouds. As I brainstormed ways to reconstruct my read-aloud sessions, I conceptualized them as moments that could help expand and enrich my students' in-class reading experiences by offering them a space to explore critical literacy.

When I came to the other end of the literacies course, I had somehow lost myself, lost the teacher and person that I had been prior to walking into that class. I left behind the feelings of guilt and anger that I had faced throughout the course and looked on into the future with self-efficacy and great hope understanding that the road toward critical literacy would be long but empowering, for both my students and myself. I regard our journey along this road as one that will encourage us all to reimagine, reconsider, reconstruct, and transform our world through literacy.

Natalia: Weaving Literacy into My Work in Rural Schools

Since I started working at Normal Superior School located in Marinilla (Antioquia), I have been interested in issues related to second-language education, specifically teacher development, literacy, digital technologies, and multimodality. I had already developed a few projects in my English classes in elementary school and my teacher training program around topics such as social networks, virtual learning, and videogames. After these initial experiences, I decided to apply for a scholarship program for public school in-service teachers from Antioquia. Then, I had

the chance to apply for my master's degree at UPB in Medellín. During the interview, I met Raúl, who was coordinating the program at that time. Despite my lack of experience, he decided to give me the chance to enhance my skills as a master's student.

As a graduate student with no experience conducting research in the field of second-language education, I found the first year of my master's degree quite challenging. In particular, the first year of my graduate degree in L2 education was the most difficult year of my academic journey. Taking into account that I had successfully finished my bachelor's degree in a field completely different than English language, however, it was a challenge for me.

In the second semester of the master's program, I took Raúl's literacies course. The first time he mentioned "literacy," it was a completely unknown expression to me so quite a few ideas appeared in my head. My first misconception about literacy was associated with the simple concept of teaching reading and writing in any language to anybody, particularly to an adult. I realized that there were many things that I needed to learn and that my learning curve would be steep. Then, it started to happen that I began to make sense of relevant theories and concepts that belong to the literacy field.

For instance, to understand the notion of literacy beyond the way we decode words (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011), it is necessary to know the reality in which we are. To know the world, both context and language must always be together to support societal development and evolution. Also, I began to reflect about Freire and Macedo's (1987), definition of literacy as "Reading the world and word" while I read other literacy scholars who helped shape my initial ideas (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2007; Kist, 2000; Lankshear & Knobel, 2011; Luke, 2004; Street, 1984, 1995). These authors have explained that literacy and teaching literacy need to adapt and change according to future expectations. That was one idea, among several others, that I started to be reshaped during my time as a master's student.

My experience at the University, especially the literacy course, transformed my research interests. With that in mind, I asked Raúl to supervise my thesis. Being in the MA program and moving my research interests to literacy opened up new opportunities in my professional journey. I was awarded two scholarships, one to study English in India and another for an ICT training course in South Korea. The Colombian Ministry of Education recognized my research proposal

about multimodal text creation for English communicative competence development with prospective teachers (Salazar, 2016) as one of the best educational proposals for English teaching. All this provided a new a challenge for me as a teacher as well as a researcher and novice scholar.

The literacy course and my own thesis research transformed my everyday practice while I worked with teacher candidates and integrated multimodal literacies. I started to introduce the broad concept of literacy at the rural school where I worked in Marinilla. Although I agree with Kaestle (1988) that the concept of literacy has continually developed and changed in recent times, as an active language student and elementary school teacher, I would also argue that the idea of literacy is rather novel for English teachers in the rural context and that public English teachers in Marinilla have only learned about this in more recent years.

During my English classes with teacher candidates, I used different digital resources to create multimodal texts for English teaching. In addition to strengthening these teacher candidates' literacy competences, I noticed how multimodal compositions impacted their literacy competences in their second language through different digital media in this teacher training institution in Marinilla, Colombia. As Tyger (2011) had explained, there is currently no requirement that teacher candidates demonstrate that they are digitally literate and capable of applying their skills utilizing twenty-first-century technologies.

I am now a tutor for the Colombian Ministry of Education, training elementary in-service teachers from remote rural areas from Antioquia to help them improve the quality of teaching and learning processes in their settings. My continuing research experience and further work in literacy (as well as my participation in LSLP) have helped transform my educational activity in this place. This region (Mutatá, a village in the northern area of Urabá in Antioquia) possesses a wealth of biological resources in fauna and flora, which different armed groups in the region find important. This context presents painful social and political realities, none of which are peripheral to literacy research (Ajayi, 2015; Omerbašić, 2015).

In my work as a literacy tutor, I support diverse strategies with in-service teachers from some rural schools in Mutatá to describe the literacy instruction and learning processes with Embera-Katío (one of several indigenous groups in Colombia), as well as Afro-Colombian children who attend school there. I sought to answer some questions during my educational practice such as: How should teachers include the indigenous students with children of color in the literacy learning

processes? How should we train in-service teachers from rural schools to address rural literacies with indigenous people and people of color? Teachers have gradually transformed their practices about literacy instruction (Salazar, 2018). In addition, it has been encouraging to see how indigenous children have learned to read and write in Spanish (their second language) using different modes other than written word, a situation traditionally problematic in this context.

In conclusion, as I look back at my experiences since I enrolled in the MA program and took the literacies seminar, I can see the change in my self-efficacy beliefs and my professional development as my own practice has evolved with both teacher candidates and in-service teachers in different rural contexts of the country.

A Look Across the Narratives: Why We Need Literacy Courses (and a Little More)

We present four different narratives related to the impact of one graduate literacy seminar that, just as the four chapter authors, has not stopped evolving and is in flux. The four narratives that we shared are journeys along a path of change in identity and self-efficacy beliefs for the literacy instructors (Guo et al., 2012). Even though Raúl's story, as the mentor and professor, has some key differences with the stories of Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia, it is not difficult to see that many overlaps remain. We will now delve into these overlapping narrative commonalities.

The first evident overlap is that none of the chapter authors had a deep understanding of literacy before they all embarked on their graduate school journeys. They share a common departure point: seeing literacy as a synonym of "reading and writing" (or as Raúl discussed in his dissertation, mostly reading), usually with a narrow view that equated literacy practices to formal instructional processes. The latter is what Street (1995, p. 107), described as "pedagogization of literacy." This departure point is important, as literacy to all the authors, has been a path they have had to walk, discover, and relate it to their own lives. Exploring literacy as a deep subject transcends the introduction of theories, authors, and concepts. All of the chapter authors realized that exploring literacy means interrogating their own practices in their daily lives and their teaching practice. Claudia had to interrogate her practices as she navigates a similar path to Raúl's in that transition from looking at literacy instruction from the vantage point of in-service teachers to that

of teacher educators. Ana Karina went through her “grief” as she interrogated what she was doing and whether she was serving her students to the best of her ability. Natalia saw herself as a trailblazer of sorts, as she was introducing ideas about literacy in a rural context, an issue that Azano (2015; Biddle & Azano, 2016) has called for in her own work as a pressing need in the field of literacies research.

All four chapter authors also embarked on another similar path: that of merging teaching and scholarship. In Raúl’s case, he had prior experience writing and presenting at conferences before he entered graduate school (Mora, 1999; Mora & Lopera, 2001), but he was formally introduced to scholarship as a graduate student. Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia are now following that road, on their own terms, but they share with Raúl the idea that scholarship without a sense of advocacy is incomplete. Claudia is exploring this advocacy in her own courses, as she sees the need to introduce teacher candidates and in-service teachers in these conversations that are germane to how different literacy scholars envision the field going forward (e.g., Angay-Crowder et al., 2014; Dunkerly-Bean, 2013; Haddix & Sealey-Ruiz, 2012; Kinloch, Larson, Orellana, & Lewis, 2016; Luke, 2017; Mora, 2016; Morrell, 2017; Willis, 2009; Willis & Harris, 2000). Ana Karina is beginning to merge scholarship and advocacy both in her current teaching and her most recent educational project around language teaching through art with children (Minicozzi & Dardzinski, this volume). Natalia has taken on the advocacy mantle through her experiences with indigenous and Afro-Colombian students and how she learns from them as she helps them improve their literacy practices (Salazar, 2018).

The literacies seminar proved to be a context that exemplifies the importance of mentorship for emerging literacy teachers and scholars. Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia recognize Raúl’s influence in their development, just as Raúl acknowledges the influence of his mentors in his own past and current growth. Learning about literacy in the context of a graduate program goes beyond the classes or the thesis. Those are specific moments in what must be a learning continuum that cannot limit itself to the moment when graduate students are enrolled in the program (Pajares, 1996). Literacy teachers and scholars need mentoring and counsel at different stages of their careers (Fisher, this volume). Raúl, for example, still seeks counsel from his dissertation director (Professor Arlette Willis) as he navigates his own mentorship growth. Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia believe that they will still benefit from

extended post-graduation mentorship from Raúl. However, we must also acknowledge that mentorship relationships do evolve over time and this needs to be a key component of professional development in literacy teaching and research, in particular into the study of teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy.

There is one final commonality that the chapter authors regard as integral: the importance of belonging to a research community as teachers become literacy scholars and advocates (Park, Fisher, & Frey, this volume). This is essential to build on the collective efficacy of the whole. Raúl was mentored as a researcher in the field as a doctoral student; Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia have had the same opportunity through their involvement in the Literacies in Second Languages Project. Any efforts to engage teachers (both teacher candidates and in-service) in literacy instruction, we would argue, must involve a joint venture between curricular design and the emergence of research labs and initiatives that explore different literacy topics. This is akin to the work of Poulton, Tambyah and Woods (see this volume). Learning to be a literacy teacher, scholar, and advocate involves thinking in terms of a true *praxis*: Literacy theories only become embodied when teachers translate (Mora, 2016) them in their classrooms and literacy practices only become stronger when teachers are able to conceptualize them on their own.

Bringing Literacy to the (Second) Language Curriculum?

This final section of this chapter will propose some issues to consider for teacher education programs aiming to formally introduce literacies research into their graduate-level course curricula that are connected to and applied in work with teacher candidates and in-service teachers. We will discuss these issues in light of some of the self-efficacy literature.

Ground it in reality. The literacies seminar has worked in part because of its novelty. However, what has made the course successful is how the instructors have grounded it in the reality of our social settings (Pelton, 2014; Siwatu, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Any efforts to introduce literacies research must first recognize that one of the goals for such courses is to help teachers place theories at the service of their contexts, where they can become more aware of how to link such theories to the cultural settings surrounding them (Siwatu, 2011).

Discussions around literacy that disregard these realities are bound to fail. We cannot ignore that schools of thought and their proponents are bound by personal, historical, and even professional circumstances (Noffke, 1997). Any discussions about literacy need to take into consideration the historical moments that triggered the conversations in the first place (Luke, 2017; Siwatu, 2011) in order to make the implementation of these ideas into classroom life more accessible (Pelton, 2014) This applies in any and all literacy classrooms.

Give novice scholars a chance to engage in praxis. Introducing literacies in the curriculum goes beyond the theory. What will novice scholars do with the theory? In the case of this seminar, a degree of success was attained because graduate education students were able to relate these theories to their own contexts (Siwatu, 2011) and see how they helped them better understand (Pelton, 2014). In the case of those who go deeper in their explorations, it is key that they find opportunities to transform their contexts (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009).

Terminal works are not outcomes, but blueprints. Any work that comes out of a literacy course cannot be an end in and of itself. Instead, it should be a blueprint, a road map that signals where the novice scholars will go next (Colvin & Schlosser, 1997). Raúl used his dissertation as a blueprint to open a new road for literacy at his university and, to an extent, in Colombia. Claudia, Ana Karina, and Natalia all used their MA theses as blueprints that are informing their scholarship, entrepreneurship, and tutoring efforts in their current scenarios. Not envisioning the work stemming from literacy curricula in such a way would deny teachers the chance to truly apply and transform their practices, especially as they intend to engage their own students in academic endeavors (Adams, 2014).

Extended research efforts are necessary. The literacies seminar has been successful because there is a research community that supports it. The Literacies in Second Languages Project (Mora, 2015), as a student research lab, has had a great deal of institutional support, which in turn has helped inform the graduate seminar and even the undergraduate courses that Raúl and Claudia serve at the university. Literacies curricula need to feature that research pipeline to become sustainable and to be able to contribute to curricular transformations at the teacher education (Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, & Joshi, this volume; DiCesare & Rowsell, this volume; Washburn & Mulcahy, this volume) and in-service (Clark, this volume; Clark & Newberry, 2018; Guo et al., 2012) levels.

Coda

Finally, the coda or section brings this chapter to an end. We reflect on the fact that this chapter introduced a series of woven journeys. At this moment, the literacy paths of all four chapter authors remain inextricably linked. What began as teacher-student relationships became mentoring relationships and are now extended collaborative learning experiences. There is an extended sense of collegiality, which made this very chapter possible. These woven journeys are also stories of evolution, each at their own pace and their specific successes and setbacks. In the midst of the evolution and the different moments that all authors have shared while talking, writing, presenting, and learning about literacy, our individual and shared paths have strengthened. This has contributed to individuals' and the collective's self-efficacy.

We only hope this chapter, written from a strong sense of advocacy for the voices that are emerging from the South, will help others develop their own paths. Just as in literacies research there is no one-size-fits-all approach to engaging with literacy (or even defining it), this is one illustration of how language teachers may become literacy teachers, scholars, activists, advocates, and even co-conspirators (Love, 2019) for a better world, one where the word is a transformative tool toward veritable equity.

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PART III

In-Service Literacy Teachers' and Collective Efficacy

CHAPTER 9

Are We Minding the Gap? Examining Teacher Self-Efficacy as Teachers Transition from Teacher Candidates to Full-Time Teaching

Sarah K. Clark

Allison closed her bag and headed for the classroom door. Her eyes stung with tears. She had just finished her first month of school and was already beginning to feel the despair that many novice teachers face in their first few years of teaching. Allison always assumed that her challenges in teaching would be related to classroom management, but it was so much more than that. Questions circulated through her mind: Are the students actually learning? How can I increase student test scores? Why do some students/parents seem to dislike me as a teacher? Will I ever have time to get all of the lessons prepared that I need to teach? Why are some of the kids so hard to work with? Why are some students regressing in their reading scores? Why do I feel so unprepared for this job?

Allison is experiencing what has been described repeatedly in the research literature as "reality shock" (Corcoran, 1995; Veenman, 1984).

S. K. Clark (✉)
Brigham Young University, Provo, UT, USA
e-mail: sarah_clark@byu.edu

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This unsettling phenomenon has been described by many novice teachers through the years, regardless of the shifts and changes that occur in the teacher education programs or teaching profession. High novice teacher attrition rates suggest that this profession is much more challenging than many perceive it to be. For example, the novice teacher attrition rate in the United States is as high as 41% within the first five years (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014) suggesting that many teachers are underprepared for the realities of teaching. However, novice teachers aren't the only ones leaving. The overall teacher attrition rate in the United States is around 8% annually, which is twice as high as it is in other countries such as Finland, Singapore, and Canada (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016). Mckenna (2017) demonstrated how 55% of the teachers in the United States who leave the teaching profession reported the following reasons for leaving: (a) lack of administrative support; (b) accountability pressures; (c) dissatisfaction with teaching career; (d) dissatisfaction with working conditions; and (e) lack of advancement opportunities. In essence, the teaching environment and/or teaching experience is not producing perceptions of high self-efficacy in teachers.

Unfortunately, when teachers leave, it is quite costly to the profession (Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; Levy, Joy, Ellis, Jablonski, & Karelitz, 2012). For instance, costs associated with recruiting new teachers, interviewing teachers, and training them can range anywhere from $4000 to $18,000 depending on where the school district is located (Barnes et al., 2007; Levy et al., 2012). Possibly the highest costs come to the students themselves as many researchers have demonstrated how critical an effective teacher is to student achievement (Goldring, Taie, & Riddles, 2014; Hanushek, 2011). Thus, it becomes imperative that educators are equipped with content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and perhaps, an affirmed mindset about their abilities. Unfortunately, teacher education programs are under ever-increasing scrutiny regarding their ability to prepare teacher candidates who are capable and confident in their ability to influence high academic achievement and to persist in a challenging and demanding profession (Duffin, French, & Patrick, 2012; Walsh, Glazer, & Wilcox, 2006).

Self-Efficacy

Albert Bandura's social cognitive theory provides a meaningful framework for understanding how a person's beliefs can influence one's behavior and actions. Bandura posited the idea that the beliefs we hold about

our ability to effectively influence outcomes will determine whether or not we will persist when challenges or obstacles arise. Bandura (1977) explained self-efficacy as the “beliefs in one’s capacity to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Grounded within this theoretical framework, researchers have conducted numerous studies to examine the specific relationship between a teacher’s sense of efficacy and student achievement and student engagement. For instance, the Rand Corporation studies of the 1970s (see: Armor et al., 1976; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977) first demonstrated the positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student reading achievement.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) defined *teacher* self-efficacy as a teacher’s, “judgments about his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among students who may be difficult or unmotivated” (p. 783). Thus, teacher self-efficacy influences the way a teacher motivates students, addresses student behavior, teaches difficult concepts, and persists when things get challenging. Usher and Pajares (2008) explained that a person’s self-efficacy increases when he or she can see themselves doing the tasks required and doing them successfully. As described in previous chapters of this book, one’s self-efficacy heavily influences a teacher’s behavior, commitment, resilience, and effectiveness. Thus, teacher self-efficacy is an important construct to consider when seeking to tie teacher effectiveness, teacher performance, and teacher confidence to high student achievement (Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011).

It has been noted in the research literature that teacher self-efficacy is also influenced by the cultural context (O’Neill & Stephenson, 2012; Vieluf, Kunter, & van de Vijver, 2013). Therefore, the fact that teacher self-efficacy has been explored in a variety of countries and continents including Asia, Australia, the Middle East, Europe, and North and South America is helpful. Teacher self-efficacy has also been studied in a variety of school settings including the primary or elementary school (see: Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012; Helms-Lorenz, Slof, Vermue, & Canrinus, 2012; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Stephanou, Gkavras, & Doulkeridou, 2013) and middle and high school (see: Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, &

Malone, 2006; Chong, Klassen, Huan, Wong, & Kates, 2010; Tsigilis, Grammatikopoulos, & Koustelios, 2007). The findings seem to be congruent across countries, contexts, and schools with only slight variations. The higher self-efficacy a teacher holds about his or her capability, the stronger the link to higher student achievement and engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

Teacher Candidate Self-Efficacy

Unlike other professions, teacher candidates enter their training with many years of experience as students within classrooms witnessing first-hand teachers doing their job. These formative experiences are described by Lortie (1975) as an "apprenticeship of observation." Unfortunately, this informal apprenticeship leaves many teacher candidates with a false impression of their teaching abilities and effectiveness and their understanding of what it takes to be an effective teacher.

Similar to teacher self-efficacy is *teacher candidate* self-efficacy. Teacher candidate self-efficacy is based upon how the teacher candidate thinks he or she will perform because he or she is not currently teaching. Teacher candidate self-efficacy requires a projection into the future based on teacher education experiences, modeling, and feedback from peers, professors, and educators regarding performance.

As we examine teacher candidate self-efficacy, it is important to understand what might be influencing teacher beliefs during and after their training. Bandura (1986, 1997) outlined four specific sources of self-efficacy that include mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. It is important to note that there is possibility for teacher education programs to positively influence teacher candidate self-efficacy through the mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and the verbal persuasion provided. Since this study is examining teacher self-efficacy within the teacher training context, physiological arousal was beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, the current study centered on mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and verbal persuasion provided during teacher training and in the elementary school setting.

Mastery experiences. Mastery experiences are considered the most powerful of all the sources that contribute to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Perhaps this is because the mastery experience affords the

individual to see firsthand his or her ability to perform a specific task. For the teacher candidate, mastery experiences (such as practicum or student teaching experiences) are appreciated and desired the most. During these mastery experiences, the teacher candidate is afforded opportunities to work with a child one-on-one, in small groups, or to teach a whole class of students. Student teaching has been shown to increase a teacher candidate's sense of efficacy regardless of whether it takes place in an urban or suburban school (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). Even teacher candidates teaching children within a virtual classroom (where the students were not present) produced higher self-efficacy than those without this mastery teaching experience (Bautista & Boone, 2015). Because mastery experiences are considered to be the most powerful influence on self-efficacy, it has been suggested that teacher candidates be given many mastery experiences so their self-efficacy can be enhanced even further as it develops (Cantrell, Young, & Moore, 2003; Fives, Hamman, & Olivarez, 2007; Knoblauch & Chase, 2015; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Siwatu, 2011; Smolleck & Morgan, 2011; Yeung & Watkins, 2000). In contrast, there is just one study examining the influence of a mastery experience where the teacher candidate taught a science lesson to one student, did not result in higher teacher self-efficacy (Palmer, 2006), but this study was limited in its sample size.

Vicarious experiences. The next source of self-efficacy described by Bandura (1977) is the vicarious experience. Vicarious experiences are considered the second most powerful influence on teacher self-efficacy (Palmer, 2006). The vicarious experience within the teacher education setting requires the individual to imagine his or her teaching ability based on information provided, or where a teacher candidate is watching someone else model teaching. For the vicarious experience to be effective, the model needs to be someone with whom the teacher candidate can relate to such as teachers, professors, principals, mentors/supervisors, or more experienced individuals. Modeling is more meaningful in influencing teacher candidate self-efficacy than imagining (Johnson, 2010). Teacher candidates are more likely to be exposed to vicarious experiences in their teacher education programs than they are during mastery experiences. Thus, the amount and type of coursework required by programs is an important factor as this is where much of the practice and vicarious experiences naturally occur. In the current study, the greatest variability in program characteristics seemed to be the number of literacy methods courses offered to teacher candidates.

Verbal persuasion. Finally, verbal persuasion is yet another influence on self-efficacy. Verbal persuasion is when someone else is providing information to an individual about their ability to complete a specific task. For the teacher candidate, verbal persuasion consists of encouraging words, meaningful feedback, mentoring, and support. Just as with vicarious experiences, the individual providing the verbal persuasion. It needs to be someone who is trustworthy, credible, and experienced (Bandura, 1986). Additionally, the task needs to be challenging or difficult or it won't require persistence (Bandura, 1997). Some researchers have noted how peers within a teacher education program or the mentor teachers tend to be especially credible sources (Mulholland & Wallace, 2001), and thus, the quality of this verbal persuasion becomes important (Yeung & Watkins, 2000). Verbal persuasion provided by teacher education faculty and mentor teachers has also been shown to be effective (Moulding, Stewart, & Dunmeyer, 2014; Rots, Aelterman, Vlerick, & Vermeulen, 2007), whereas another research study demonstrated how this type of verbal persuasion was not necessarily a strong predictor of teacher candidate self-efficacy (Palmer, 2006).

Teacher candidate self-efficacy has been researched extensively in a variety of countries and contexts including Australia (Mergler & Tangen, 2010; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2012; Pendergast et al., 2011; Turner, Jones, Davies, & Ramsay, 2004), Bangladesh (Ahsan, Sharma, & Deppler, 2012), Cyprus (Charalambous, Philippou, & Kyriakides, 2008), Greece (Poulou, 2007), Hong Kong (Yeung & Watkins, 2000), Slovakia (Gavora, 2010), Spain (De la Torre Cruz & Casanovas Arias, 2007), Taiwan (Lin, Gorrell, & Taylor, 2002), Turkey (Çakiroglu, Çakiroglu, & Boone, 2005), and the United States (Fives et al., 2007; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Moulding et al., 2014; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). While there is variation in the level of teacher candidate self-efficacy reported based on the context and country, in each of these studies, the teacher candidate self-efficacy scores reported were all relatively high.

This extensive research has provided meaningful information. For example, researchers suggest that teacher self-efficacy beliefs are most malleable toward the beginning of the teacher education program (Pendergast et al., 2011), but as teacher candidates move through their program, their self-efficacy begins to decrease (Moseley, Reinke, & Bookout, 2003; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Additionally, certain components of teacher education programs have been more instrumental than others in building teacher candidate self-efficacy (Duffin

et al., 2012; Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011) and thus further examination is needed. What does it take to produce a highly efficacious teacher who is ready and prepared for the realities and demands of teaching? How do teacher education programs influence teacher candidate self-efficacy in meaningful ways? And, how does teacher self-efficacy evolve and change—not only during teacher training but once the teacher begins teaching?

Given the number of teacher education programs, it is surprising that a limited number of longitudinal studies (tracking teacher candidates as they move into full-time teaching positions) have been conducted to determine the perceptions that teacher education transitioning to novice teachers hold. Moreover, there is a dearth of research available that measures teacher candidate and in-service teacher self-efficacy by teacher education program. Only one of the studies located in the review of literature (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005) analyzed the same teacher candidates from one institution after one full year of teaching. Consequently, a better understanding of how efficacious teacher candidates and in-service teachers feel about their teaching ability across teacher education programs is needed. This information can inform effective programming and supports at both the teacher education stage and as novice teachers begin full-time teaching. This chapter outlines a study that sought to fill this gap in the research. The following research questions were employed:

1. How do teacher candidates rate their teaching ability and self-efficacy to teach at the conclusion of their training? Do scores vary by their teacher education program?
2. How do the mastery learning experiences provided during teacher training influence teacher candidate self-efficacy?
3. How do novice teachers rate their teaching ability and self-efficacy to teach after their first year of teaching? Do scores vary by their previous teacher education program?
4. How does amount or type of mentoring support correlate with novice teacher self-efficacy?
5. In what ways do the perceptions of teachers change as they transition from the teacher candidate stage to full-time teaching? How does number of literacy methods courses (the courses with greatest variance among programs) influence teacher self-efficacy as they transition from the teacher candidate to novice teacher stage?

Study Design

Survey research allows for the collection of data from a large number of people within a population in order to identify trends and the status of the population in relation to the issue being studied (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Babbie (1995) further explained, "survey research is probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly" (p. 257). A large-scale quasi-experimental survey design was used to examine teacher candidate and novice teacher self-efficacy by tracking each research participant as they transitioned from being a teacher candidate into a full-time teaching position.

Sample

Participants in this study were elementary education teacher candidates ($N=531$) and were completing a four-year bachelor's degree at either a private ($N=1$) or public teacher education program ($N=5$) centered within a university and situated in a Western state of the United States. See Table 9.1 for program descriptions related to the capstone mastery experiences each program provided. Seventy percent of the participants were between the ages of 18–25 years, 16% were between 26 and 35 years, 8% were between 36 and 45 years, and 3% were +46 years. In this sample of teacher candidates, 95% were White, 2% were Hispanic/Latino, 0.1% were American Indian/Alaska Native, 0.4% were Asian, and 0.6% were Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. Ninety-three percent of the participants were female with 7% male. This sample reflects the population of teachers in the United States who are also predominantly European White and female (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014).

Instrumentation

Instrumentation in this study included both a teacher candidate and an in-service teacher self-efficacy survey. The Pre-service Teacher Survey (PTS) and the In-service Teacher Survey (ITS) were based on the *Total Quality Partnerships Teacher Survey*, a survey used in a longitudinal study analyzing pre-service teacher experiences and feelings of teacher candidate self-efficacy (Lasley, Siedentop, & Yinger, 2006). It was important to identify a teacher candidate survey that has been used in previous

Table 9.1 Descriptive statistics of teacher candidates' self-efficacy by teacher education program

Program	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*Program acceptance criteria*	*Number of courses offered*	*Capstone mastery experiences*
A	156	67.78	9.53	GPA—2.85, Passing scores on multiple Praxis tests, technology skills assessment	4—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	Internship or student teaching
B	26	75.73	8.63	GPA 2.50, 3 Letters of recommendation, professional purpose statement, passing scores on multiple Praxis tests	3—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	*Student teaching
C	66	69.42	9.57	GPA—2.75, passing scores on multiple Praxis tests, teacher education writing exam, ACT 20 or higher, group interview, speech/hearing test	2—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	Student teaching
D	109	69	8.73	GPA—3.0, passing scores on multiple Praxis tests, group interview	3—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	*Student teaching, internship (limited)

(continued)

Table 9.1 (continued)

Program	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*Program acceptance criteria*	*Number of courses offered*	*Capstone mastery experiences*
E	106	77.02	7.26	GPA—2.75, passing scores on multiple Praxis tests, collegiate assessment of academic proficiency, interview, biographical statement	2—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	*Student teaching, internship (limited)
F	53	67.53	10.11	GPA—2.85, passing scores on multiple Praxis tests, technology skills assessment	2—literacy methods courses 1—multicultural education course 1—assessment and design course 1 each of mathematics, science, and social studies methods course	Student teaching

*indicates the programs that required two student teaching placements. GPA is abbreviation for grade point average

research so as to build upon research studying this very topic. This action strengthened the reliability and validity of the instrument being used. Next, I met with representatives from all of the teacher education programs that were included in the study sample. The purpose of this meeting was to ensure that the survey questions were indeed part of program goals and objectives. Each survey item was examined and approved by all of the teacher education programs included within the study sample. It was important that representatives from each program believed that the survey questions aligned with program goals and objectives.

The PTS and ITS (both with 17 questions each) were similar in construction with wording changes that reflected the different experiences expected at the teacher candidate and in-service stages. For example, teacher candidates were asked: "How prepared are you to set appropriately challenging learning expectations for students?" while in-service teachers were asked: "How well can you set appropriately challenging

learning expectations for students?" Additional survey questions included questions that asked participants to rate their self-efficacy to design effective instruction, self-efficacy to address the needs of students, self-efficacy to set appropriately challenging learning expectations during instruction, self-efficacy to incorporate technology into instruction in meaningful ways, self-efficacy to integrate literacy instruction across a variety of content areas, self-efficacy to engage and motivate students during instruction, and self-efficacy to seek help for students with special needs. These items were considered important skills and abilities needed by elementary school teachers in order to provide effective instruction in classrooms of their own. Responses to these items were made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "very well." A confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to lend credibility to the instrument being used, and it was determined that all items for both the PTS and ITS loaded on to one factor with fit indices suggesting construct validity and a good data fit (Dickey, 1996; Roberts & Henson, 2001; Stevens, 1996).

In addition to these questions, teacher candidate participants were also asked to report the quantity and types of assignments they completed (student teaching or internship and one placement or two placements), and the amount of and the perceived helpfulness of the mentoring support they received during their first year of teaching. Sample items the mentoring support on the ITS included the following, "Since I began teaching, my mentor has modeled effective techniques for classroom management," Responses to these items were made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "not useful" to "extremely useful." A Cronbach-alpha analysis (Cronbach, 1951) was conducted to determine the internal consistency of the PTS and the ITS. Nunnaly (1978) explained that a measure of 0.7 or greater is an acceptable reliability coefficient and both the PTS and the ITS met this criterion.

Data Collection and Analysis

The first phase of data collection took place at the conclusion of participants' ($N=531$) teacher education program with the administration of the PTS. Participants in the second phase of data collection were novice teachers that fit the following criteria: (a) They had to be hired to teach in a public elementary school (grades K-6); (b) they had to be hired to teach in the state where the study was situated; (c) they had to be identified/located in order to receive the survey in the mail; and

(d) they needed to have completed their teacher training in the state where the study was situated. When teacher candidates completed the PST, they were asked to provide their birth month and year and the last four numbers of their social security number. These numbers allowed for the matching of participants. The novice teacher participants ($N = 134$) who completed the IST after their first year of teaching represented 25% of the original teacher candidate sample.

To analyze these data, descriptive statistics using SPSS 25.0 were determined and included item and scale means and standard deviations. Next, ANOVAs were conducted to examine teacher self-efficacy across teacher education programs at both the teacher candidate and in-service stage and based upon student teaching/internship assignments. Then, a correlational analysis examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the mentoring support provided and its perceived usefulness. Finally, a repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine teacher self-efficacy developed by individuals at the teacher candidate stage moving to the in-service stage.

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine how teacher candidates perceived their ability and self-efficacy to teach and perform instructional tasks over time to determine how these beliefs either changed or remained constant.

Teacher Candidate Self-Efficacy

The first research questions were, "How do teacher candidates rate their teaching ability and self-efficacy to teach at the conclusion of their training? Do scores vary by their teacher education program?" The teacher candidates rated themselves as generally well prepared and efficacious in regard to their teaching knowledge and teaching ability ($N = 17$ items) with an overall item mean of 4.13. On average, the teacher candidates reported feeling higher self-efficacy in their ability: (a) to use the state's core curriculum and performance standards to plan instruction; (b) to teach basic knowledge and skills; and (c) to engage students in cooperative group work. Teacher candidates felt least prepared and efficacious about their abilities: (a) to prepare students to be engaged citizens in a democracy; (b) refer students for special assistance when needed; and (c) to improve academic performance of unmotivated or challenging students.

Variations by Teacher Education Program

Teacher candidate self-efficacy scores based on the teacher education program attended were compared to determine if there were any variations by program. The range of possible scores on the PTS was 1-85. See Table 9.1 for descriptive statistics.

Results indicated that teacher candidate self-efficacy varied by program [$F\,(1,\,515) = 15.84$, $p = 0.00$]. A Tukey post hoc analysis revealed that the teacher candidates from Program B and Program E reported higher scores than all of the other teacher education programs, and these scoring differences were statistically significant. This suggests that teacher candidates leave their programs with varied feelings of efficacy and that some programs produce more efficacious teachers than other teacher education programs within the same state. The effect size of 0.149 was large based on Cohen's (1988) recommendation where partial η^2 values of 0.01 are indicative of a small effect, 0.06 is indicative of a medium effect, and 0.15 is indicative of a large effect.

Mastery Experiences at Teacher Candidate Stage

The third research question asked, "How do the mastery learning experiences provided during teacher training influence teacher candidate self-efficacy?" Each teacher education program provided unique training experiences for their students. For example, some programs included in this sample provided two student teaching placements (an upper *and* lower elementary grade assignment), while other programs offered only one student teaching placement. Other teacher education programs in the sample offered an academic year-long internship option instead of a traditional semester-long student teaching experience. The student teaching or internship experience is the capstone experience for each program and is considered the strongest mastery experience that teacher candidates have. This research question sought to determine if these variations in mastery experiences changed the perceptions and feelings of efficacy that teacher candidates held about their abilities to teach.

Results indicated that the teacher candidates who experienced a traditional student teaching assignment had higher means than those who reported completing an internship, but these results were not statistically significant [$F\,(1,\,506) = 2.39$, $p = 0.12$]. Those participants who had only one student teaching placement compared to two placements reported

Table 9.2 Descriptive statistics of mastery experience and teacher candidates' self-efficacy

Type of capstone mastery experience	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Student teaching	378	81.56	11.93
Internship	126	79.95	11.43
One placement (student teaching)	286	82.3	11.69
Two placements (student teaching)	220	79.35	11.72

higher means with a statistically significant difference being reported [F (1, 506) = 7.88, p = 0.00], but the partial η^2 effect size of 0.009 was small. See Table 9.2 for the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

Novice Teacher Self-Efficacy

The third research question was as follows, "How do novice teachers rate their teaching ability and self-efficacy to teach after their first year of teaching? Do scores vary by their previous teacher education program?" Participants were asked to self-report their feelings of efficacy to teach on a Likert scale (N = 17 items) ranging from "1 = not at all" to "5 = very well." The novice teachers rated themselves as generally well prepared and efficacious in regard to their teaching knowledge and teaching ability with an overall item mean of 4.06. The overall mean score for the novice teachers was only slightly lower than the teacher candidates. On average, the teacher candidates reported feeling higher self-efficacy in their ability: (a) to use the state's curriculum and performance standards to plan instruction; (b) to teach basic knowledge and skills; and (c) to maintain an orderly, purposeful learning environment. The in-service teachers felt least efficacious about their ability to improve the academic performance of students lacking motivation and to use technology during instruction.

Variations by Teacher Education Program

For research question three, we examined self-efficacy scores of teacher candidates based on the teacher education program they attended in order to determine if there were any variations. The range of possible

Table 9.3 Descriptive statistics of novice teachers' self-efficacy by teacher education program

Program	*N*	*M*	*SD*
A	37	67.97	7.78
B	4	71.5	11.78
C	20	67.4	6.24
D	26	71.3	6.82
E	20	67.3	7.87
F	18	71.06	7.4

scores on the ITS is 1-85. See Table 9.3 for overall scores on the ITS. Results indicated that novice teacher self-efficacy varied slightly by program that they previously attended, F (1, 124) = 1.39, p = 0.23, but these results were not statistically significant.

Mentoring Support

The fourth research question was, "How does the amount or type of mentoring support correlate with novice teacher self-efficacy?" In the state where this study is situated, all novice teachers were required to have a mentor. Elementary school has an individualized approach to how mentoring support is provided to novice teachers. Novice teachers were asked to report and rate the mentoring experiences they received, and then, a bivariate correlation was conducted to see if there was a statistically significant correlation between novice teacher self-efficacy and mentoring support. A Likert scale ranging from "1 = not useful" to "5 = extremely useful" was used to measure the usefulness of the mentoring support. If no mentoring support was provided for a specific item, participants reported a 0 for "Did Not Occur."

The overall item mean for mentoring support was 3.94, suggesting that the novice teachers found the mentoring support for the most part to be "very helpful." The items from the mentoring scale with the highest frequencies were as follows, (a) my mentor was a good listener; (b) my mentor encouraged me during periods of self-doubt; and (c) my mentor worked to improve my self-efficacy. A weak but positive correlation, $r = 0.25$, $p = \leq 0.01$, was found between novice teacher self-efficacy and the perceived helpfulness of the mentoring support received. This result was also statistically significant.

Table 9.4 Descriptive data for teacher candidate and novice teacher self-efficacy of matched participants

Capstone mastery experience	*N*	*Teacher candidate mean*	*SD*	*In-service mean*	*SD*
Student teaching	89	61.63	7.9	60.82	7.21
Internship	24	59.75	10.92	60.13	5.65
One placement (student teaching)	67	61.45	9.16	61.19	6.79
Two placements (student teaching)	44	60.86	7.82	59.89	7.14

Transitioning from Teacher Candidate to Novice Teacher

The fifth research question in this study sought to determine if feelings of self-efficacy changed as individuals moved from the teacher candidate stage to the novice teacher stage using the following question: "In what ways do the perceptions of teachers change as they transition from the teacher candidate stage to full-time teaching?" For this analysis, a repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine if there were any changes in teacher self-efficacy over time. Descriptive statistics for this analysis are presented in Table 9.4.

The results of the repeated measures ANOVA suggested that teacher self-efficacy based on the type of mastery experience (student teacher or intern) was not statistically significant, $F\ (1,\ 111)=0.779$, $p=0.379$, for the time, $F\ (1,\ 111)=0.043$, $p=0.837$, or for the interaction, $F\ (1,\ 111)=0.318$, $p=0.57$. Similar results were found with the analysis examining the number of student teaching placements (one placement or two placements). The results were not statistically significant for the number of student teaching placements, $F\ (1,\ 109)=0.590$, $p=0.44$, for time, $F\ (1,\ 109)=0.475$, $p=0.49$, or for the interaction, $F(1,\ 109)=0.164$, $p=0.69$. Thus, these analyses suggest that mastery learning experiences had no significant long-term effect on teacher self-efficacy.

Variations by Number of Literacy Methods Courses Required

The purpose of second half of research question five was to determine if there were differences in teacher self-efficacy based upon the number of literacy methods courses required by each program. An examination

of the differences and variability among the programs revealed the biggest variation to be the number literacy methods courses required. It was hypothesized that this might influence teacher self-efficacy due to the vicarious experiences and verbal persuasion that take place during coursework and because of the amount of time that teachers spend learning about and providing literacy instruction. Researchers have documented that the majority of time and emphasis within elementary schools is devoted to literacy instruction and that literacy instruction often trumps math, science, or social studies instruction (Duncan, Diefes-Dux, & Gentry, 2011; Trygstad, Smith, Banilower, & Nelson, 2013). As the participants in this study were elementary education teachers, it stands to reason that this variation of required literacy courses might impact teacher candidate and in-service teacher self-efficacy. Moreover, many of the questions on the PTS and the ITS were centered on instructional abilities that were critical to literacy instruction. For example, some topics included the following: How well can you set appropriate learning expectations for individual students based on individual learning needs? How well can you refer students to special assistance (e.g., reading and speaking)?

An ANOVA was conducted to determine the effects that the number of required literacy methods courses had on teacher candidate self-efficacy. Teachers were aggregated into two groups: (a) teachers who were required to take two literacy methods courses and (b) teachers who were required to take three or more literacy methods courses. Results showed that teacher candidate taking three literacy courses had higher means than those who took only two literacy courses, $F\ (1,\ 501) = 76.918$, $p = 0.00$. There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of teacher candidates with a moderate to large effect size of 0.12. These findings suggest that the number of courses required may indeed have an effect on teacher candidate self-efficacy at the teacher candidate stage and program leaders might take this into consideration when adjusting or modifying the number of literacy methods courses being offered.

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to determine the effect that the number of required literacy methods courses had on in-service teacher self-efficacy. Teachers were aggregated into the same two groups: (a) teachers who were required to take two literacy methods courses and (b) teachers who were required to take three or more literacy methods courses. Results for the main effect showed that in-service teachers taking three literacy courses or more reported higher means than those who

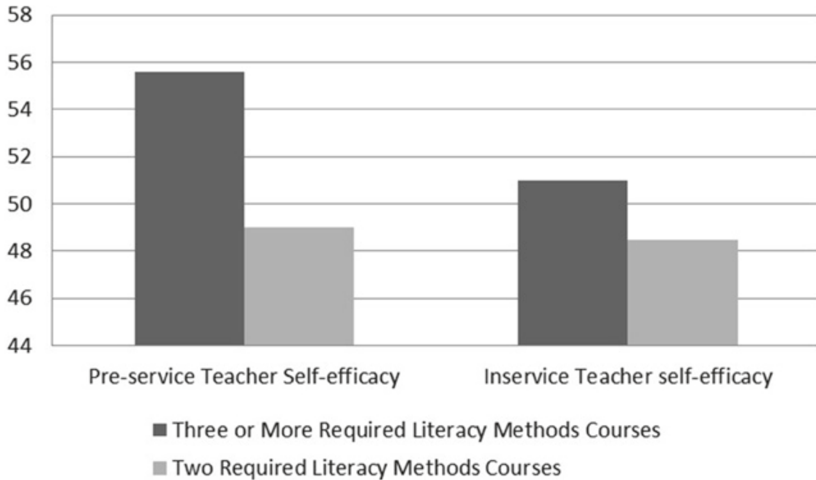

Fig. 9.1 Mean scores of teachers at the teacher candidate (pre-service) and in-service stages related to number of required literacy methods courses

took only two literacy courses, $F\,(1,\,108) = 10.47$, $p = 00$ with a partial η^2 effect size of 0.09. There was no effect for time, and there was no significant interaction effect between time and the number of literacy methods courses. Figure 9.1 illustrates that the score that teacher candidates reported at the end of their program was surprisingly consistent with their in-service teacher score reported after their first year of teaching. Those with higher scores at the teacher candidate stage and reported lower scores at the in-service stage still reported higher means overall when compared to those with the lower scores at both teacher candidate and in-service stages. This finding further illustrates the need for program directors and teacher educators to consider the number of literacy methods courses required of the teacher candidates in their program.

Discussion

In the current study, the transition from the teacher candidate to in-service teacher stage was examined as related to teacher self-efficacy. In essence, how efficacious novice teachers feel about their ability to meet student needs, to provide effective instruction, and to capably

manage the classroom so as to facilitate high student achievement. This study contributes to the literature in many ways. Firstly, this study looked at teacher candidates attending multiple teacher education programs from one Western state in the United States. Most studies of teacher candidate self-efficacy have used samples of teacher candidates from only one program. This enabled a review of how teacher education programs influence teacher candidate self-efficacy, and how schools eventually contribute to in-service teacher self-efficacy.

The high scores reported from the teacher candidates in the current study mirrored the high feelings of self-efficacy at the conclusion of teacher training that have been reported by a myriad of researchers (e.g., Fives et al., 2007; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Moulding et al., 2014; Shaw, Dvorak, & Bates, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Teacher candidates seem to leave their programs feeling highly efficacious. Moreover, two of the six programs produced teacher candidates with higher scores than the other four programs and these results were statistically significant. The reason for these statistically significant differences is not clear. One could speculate that the number of literacy courses is what varies by program more than any other program characteristic. However, Program B required three literacy courses and Program E required only two. Perhaps the variations in teacher candidate self-efficacy by program may be due to the context of the mastery learning experiences that took place outside of the program. If so, this effect needs further examination. It is still unknown how high one's teacher self-efficacy should be or which score is favorable in order for teachers to persevere when things become challenging because teaching is a challenging profession (see: Corcoran, 1995; Veenman, 1984); perseverance is also relation and context-based.

By the time these teacher candidates had finished teaching after one year, their self-efficacy had dropped from the PTS to the ITS scores. This decrease was slight suggesting there is durability (for at least one year) to the efficacy scores held at the end of teacher training. What was also interesting is that the two programs with the highest self-efficacy scores dropped to the same levels as teachers from the remaining four programs noted at the teacher candidate stage. This finding raises further questions about how high a teacher's self-efficacy should be. If efficacy is extremely high, when faced with challenges, do these teachers experience a plummet in self-efficacy that might contribute to them leaving the profession? Or, if one's self-efficacy is extremely low, are these individuals more

likely to quit and leave the profession? It is still unknown what level of teacher self-efficacy is necessary for teachers to be successful and persist in the profession. Interestingly, while most teacher candidates from the various programs dropped in their self-efficacy score, teacher candidates from one program reported higher scores at the novice teacher stage than at the teacher candidate stage. This finding raises additional questions about what happens when drastic drops or increases in self-efficacy occurs. Are the mitigating factors related to initial teacher education or in-service training or mentoring?

When it comes to mastery experiences, the teacher candidates' self-efficacy scores based on student teaching or internship, and one placement or two placements for student teaching did not have a significant influence on self-efficacy. While more research is needed, this finding suggests that the type of capstone mastery teaching teacher candidates experience is not as important as simply having one. When it comes to novice teacher self-efficacy scores, the relationship between supportive mentoring and teacher self-efficacy was found to be highly significant but with only a weak positive correlation. This finding suggests that more than mentoring alone is contributing to higher feelings of self-efficacy and further examination is needed. Moreover, an analysis including vicarious experiences and verbal persuasion is needed.

Finally, this study also contributed to our understanding of teacher self-efficacy development as it tracked teacher candidates as they moved into full-time teaching positions. Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005) emphasized the need for this type of study explaining that "… Longitudinal studies across teacher preparation programs and the first several years in the field could begin to map the development of efficacy beliefs" (p. 346). The results of the current study suggest that teacher self-efficacy beliefs do diminish over time especially during the critical transition from training to teaching, but not significantly so. However, this information could spur school leaders to be more sensitive to these shifts in efficacy. More attention could be paid to supporting and sustaining new teachers as they adjust to the new teaching context. It would also be important that principals and mentor teachers provide copious amounts of verbal persuasion and vicarious learning in addition to mastery experiences at such a critical time in the profession. More research is needed to determine what is a sufficient number of mastery experiences to influence self-efficacy in meaningful ways, and what is a sufficient amount of vicarious learning, and verbal persuasion needed.

Limitations

This study involved self-report data which has limitations in that participants may be more inclined to rate their self-efficacy higher and/or lower due to the phenomenon of social desirability and/or misrepresentation (King & Bruner, 2000). Furthermore, those who opted to complete the surveys may have had more positive or more negative experiences spurring their extreme responses over those whose experiences were more neutral. Survey data is also objective which does not allow for further examination of the responses. Interviews, open-ended questionnaires, or focus groups would have provided for even deeper levels of understanding and conversation. Misra (2014) expressed the value of examining teacher education across programs and countries because the "study of teacher education systems…working in different conditions and following different patterns holds great promise to improve teacher education systems in general" (p. 1). The sample used in the current study was also limited because teacher candidates were all from the United States and were largely White and female. More diverse participants from various countries, contexts, and programs could provide information beyond what was currently possible thus allowing greater potential for generalizability.

Conclusion

Valencia, Place, Martin, and Grossman (2006) suggested that the majority of novice teachers in the United States will be assigned to teach in lower socioeconomic schools where student achievement is low. These assignments may be very different than the mastery experiences that many teacher candidates have during training. Thus, it may be important for novice teachers to see good modeling and receive ample professional development in order to meet the needs of students and to remain in the profession.

Lortie's (1975) "apprenticeship of observation" suggests that teacher candidates come with very strong opinions of what it takes to be a teacher. Questions remain as to whether these perceptions are realistic, viable, and/or helpful. There are also questions about what types of in-service training, mentoring, and professional development should be provided. Are teachers experiencing enough mastery learning opportunities? Do they have sufficient verbal persuasion that is accurate and

supportive? What about vicarious experiences? Are they receiving modeling that is highly effective and trustworthy? Do teacher candidate and novice teachers have opportunities to persevere with challenges so they can see themselves be successful? While the current study addresses some gaps in the research, further research is needed to provide more specific recommendations related to building teacher candidate and in-service teacher self-efficacy.

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CHAPTER 10

Utilizing Relationships as Resources: Social and Emotional Learning and Self-Efficacy

Sharyn Fisher

There is a downward pressure on teachers to increase student academic achievement, yet there is not yet a similar pressure for social and emotional development and mental health. Traditional academics are essential, but not adequate, to address the social and emotional needs of twenty-first-century students; these should be the first priority in education. As of July 2018, New York and Virginia became the first two US states to enact laws requiring mental health education in schools. The social and emotional needs of students can be met be while simultaneously addressing the future needs of students to succeed in the changing workplace and society.

This chapter offers teachers the background knowledge to consider the social, emotional, and self-efficacy of students as they become literate in the twenty-first century. The first section of this chapter defines and discusses social and emotional learning, while the following section sets the stage for learning, noting what teachers must do to create a culture for learning through respect and understanding of their learners before

S. Fisher (✉)
Manalapan-Englishtown Regional School District, Manalapan, NJ, USA
e-mail: sfisher@mersnj.us

The College of New Jersey, Ewing, NJ, USA

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they can adequately support them. This also takes into account the specific, important role the teacher plays in building a positive environment. The third section explores how classroom culture can initiate student motivation, specifically addressing motivation of on-level and struggling students in literacy. Finally, instructional methods and strategies are discussed as well as support for inclusive classrooms that strive to foster self-efficacy in learners. Throughout each section, select teaching tips are presented as examples of classroom-based strategies. Each of these critical issues has implications in the literacy classroom and for future research. As the diverse backgrounds and educational experiences of our students grow, so must teachers' understandings of social and emotional learning as a foundation for the literacy process.

Social and Emotional Learning and Self-Efficacy

Social and emotional learning refers to the development of skills related to recognizing and managing emotions, developing care and concern for others, establishing positive relationships, making responsible decisions, and handling challenging situations constructively. Social and emotional learning competencies include the development of the skills, behaviors, and attitudes needed by students to effectively manage their cognitive and social behavior.

Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy as the beliefs we have about ourselves that cause us to make choices, put forth effort, and persist when faced with challenges. This is an important part of social and emotional learning as it can encourage or hinder our ability to execute certain behaviors or reach certain goals. Self-efficacy has an effect on an individual's goals, choice of activities, effort and persistence, and learning and achievement. Factors affecting the development of self-efficacy include previous successes and failures, current emotional state, messages from people of influence, including parents, teachers, and peers, the success and failures of others, especially those similar to us, and the success and failures as part of group, or our collective self-efficacy.

Bandura defined collective efficacy as, "a group's shared belief in the conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment" (1997, p. 477). Collective teacher self-efficacy is defined as the shared belief that through collective action, educators can positively affect student outcomes, including those who are disengaged or disadvantaged, is an important

construct. When seeking to answer the question, question, “What works best in education?” Hattie (2009) ranked influences related to learning outcomes from extremely positive effects to extremely negative effects. Effect size is a simple way of quantifying the difference between factors. One of the most commonly used scenarios for effect size is to determine the effectiveness of an intervention or educational practice relative to a comparison group or approach. Effect size indicates if an intervention works, and how much impact to expect in a range of scenarios. The average effect size of all the interventions studied was found to be 0.4.

Hattie found the top five influences included response to intervention, cognitive task analysis, teacher estimates of achievement, self-reported grades, and collective teacher efficacy. Collective teacher self-efficacy has a 1.57 effect size, which was the greatest of all factors examined. What does this mean for students? In terms of teaching, this means students demonstrated major growth when teachers believed in them, and this influence is three times more powerful than socioeconomic status (0.52) and parental involvement (0.50) and two times more powerful than prior achievement. Other factors matter, of course, but teachers’ collective beliefs matter more. “Visible teaching and learning occurs… when there is deliberate practice aimed at attaining mastery of the goal, when there is feedback given and sought, and when there are active, passionate, and engaging people (teacher, students, peers) participating in the act of learning” (Hattie, 2009, p. 22).

Education needs teachers who believe in their students and teachers who have high teacher self-efficacy. Students observed self-efficacious behavior during interactions with their teachers and social learning theory suggests that learning occurs through such imitation (Bandura, 1977). In addition, teachers with high self-efficacy are more willing to experiment with new strategies, have higher expectations for their students, set higher goals put more effort into teaching, and are more persistent in helping students learn. Classrooms are sites for more than academics; they are environments for specific cultural and language practices where students come together to engage in meaning-making. Literacy practices in particular are infused with identity. As humans, we express our identity through language, the texts, and multiple forms of media we choose, and the artifacts around us. Like an ecosystem, teachers, students, languages, practices, beliefs, and skills interact and influence each other (Kieschnick, 2017). “The remarkable feature of the evidence is that the greatest effects on student learning occur when

teachers become learners of their own teaching, and when students become their own teachers" (Hattie, 2009, p. 22).

> Teaching Tip: Looking for ways to encourage social and emotional learning in the classroom? Promote positive behaviors by encouraging students when they display good social skills or work habits. Let students know how their effort leads to positive results with specific affirmations; When they know exactly what they did well, they can repeat it! Ask for student input when making decisions about how the classroom will operate in developmentally appropriate ways. Arrange experiences that allow students to become responsible, such as through classroom aids, jobs, peer tutoring, or specific roles in group work. Let students know that it is okay to get answers wrong or take positive risks through modeling or praising attempts.

Classroom Culture and the Importance of an Engaging Teacher

A productive classroom environment allows students to express themselves and learn. Student engagement is positively associated with achievement as well as self-regulation, social and emotional learning outcomes both in and outside of school. Major (2009) defines, "culture as the social and intergenerational glue that defines, connects, sustains, and enriches the members of successful communities" (p. 24). A classroom culture, therefore, can be described as, "a psychological atmosphere that nurtures and shapes students' attitudes about their own identity, classes, school, and learning in general" (p. 24). While this definition does not explicitly mention success, it is still implied; success is a characteristic of all cultures, or at least the ultimate goal.

Teacher–student relationships are experiences that result through the cognitive, behavioral, and emotional interactions among the teacher and students with a 0.72 effect size on student learning (Hattie, 2009). What does this look like in the classroom? This means building rapport, creating a well-managed routine, igniting a sense of community, and bonding over daily occurrences that become inside jokes for each particular group of students. Teachers must strive also create a culture in which students are motivated to pursue interests and feel safe about doing so. Further, students must be able to clearly see the value of such pursuits

and understand the ways in which they are relevant and important in their everyday lives. Students are more likely to engage in the practices they perceive as valuable and competent and to reject or resist the ones they do not. Students are also more likely to learn or adopt new behaviors that they believe will help them in their own circumstances.

Teaching Tip: Greet each child by name at the door before the start of class. Greeting students at the door increases engagement by 20% and reduces disruptions by 9%, which adds 1 hour of learning to each day (Cook et al., 2018). So many times I am tempted to finish up something quickly at my desk or on the computer, but I realize it can wait. My students are here now, and they deserve my attention.

Creating Classroom Cultures that Ignite Motivation and Engagement

What can teachers do to create a classroom culture that motivates and engages students? Successful cultures consist of five major characteristics: clarity and communication, care, connection, collaboration, and community. The key to motivating students is engagement. According to Jackson and Zmuda (2014), there is a distinction between compliant and engaged learners. Among other characteristics, compliant learners do as they are told, and often receive good grades as the result of merely following directions; engaged learners, however, "pursue their own train of thought about the topic under study, regardless of the task at hand…. These learners take risks; they're not afraid to try something new" (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014, pp. 19–20). A quiet classroom does not always serve as evidence of learning, and compliant students are not necessarily engaged students. Engagement requires thinking, and motivation "makes the difference between learning that is superficial and shallow and learning that is deep and internalized" (Gambrell, 1996, p. 15).

Yet, according to Gambrell (1996), instead of teachers asking, "How can I motivate this student to read?" a more appropriate question is, "How do we create an environment in which this student will be motivated to read?" (p. 17). Kohn (2010) suggests it is impossible to motivate students:

> What a teacher *can* do – *all* a teacher can do – is work with students to create a classroom culture, a climate, a curriculum that will nourish and sustain the fundamental inclinations that everyone starts out with: to make sense of oneself and the world, to become increasingly competent at tasks that are regarded as consequential, to connect with (and express oneself to) other people. (p. 16)

Clarity and Communication. Essential components in a productive classroom culture are clarity and communication. When teachers provide clarity by communicating information to the essential questions within a lesson, there is a potential effect size of 0.75 (Hattie, 2009). Teachers can communicate through traditional means, such as a printed syllabus or newsletter, or through a class website, Twitter, Facebook, or other forms of social media. Messaging apps (e.g., Remind) are quick and free methods of getting short communications out. Be explicit about how the activities your students are engaged in are not only purposeful, but also have application in the real world. In other words, offer relevant contexts so that students can tell you what they learned, why they learned it, and how they will use it. When purposeful goals are established, it is also crucial to, "provide clear structures for helping students reach [these] goals" (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014, p. 20). Such structures may include modeling, examples, and rubrics, among others. Next, teachers must "create a supportive classroom culture" (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014, p. 22). If provided the appropriate, "space—the time, a low-stress environment, collaboration with others, and unfailing support from their teacher," they will be more, "willing to think, struggle, and fail" (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014, p. 22). This is also where the last key becomes one of increasing importance: providing the appropriate challenge (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014). Providing students with a specific task, purpose, structure, and support will encourage them to actively, "play with ideas; solve complex, real-world problems; and dig deeper" (Jackson & Zmuda, 2014, p. 24).

Emphasis on clarity and support can also be found in Major's (2009) work on building classroom cultures of success and achievement. According to Major, "the greatest gift you as a teacher can give students… is a positive attitude- a sense that things can go right for them, and a belief in their own ability to succeed" (p. 24). Just as important as the students' actual success is the reassurance that they can succeed, both of which culminate in self-esteem. One of the solutions unique to Major's argument is, "demystify[ing] the good habits of typical

successful performers" (p. 26). At its essence, this means relaying the ways in which achievement is not dependent on, "luck [or] magic… but rather is linked closely to hard work" (Major, 2009, p. 26). Collaborative work serves as a form of modeling, "instead of you *telling* students how to succeed, they *show* each other" (Major, 2009, p. 26).

Teaching Tip: Traditionally, students might worry about a note sent home from school. Instead, send Positive Parent Brag Mail! It's not a bill, junk mail, or silly advertisement; it's just a quick note home to parents that lets them know about something specific and terrific their child did in school that day. Both parents and students appreciate the praise, and it promotes further attention to the identified behavior or skill.

Care. The first step to engage students is to care for them and show they share a purpose in the classroom. Student engagement serves as a primary framework for understanding and combating school fatigue and is positively associated not only with achievement but also other self-regulatory, social, and emotional learning outcomes both in and outside of school. Engaging students in the classroom is a powerful tool that creates an active and positive environment contributing to students' intellectual achievement. Teachers should take into consideration that their students are coming into the classroom with various struggles they face every day.

Teaching Tip: With reference to third space theory (Bhabha, 2004), a student named Victor enjoyed popular culture, fast-paced movies, go-karting, and video games. As his teacher, my goal was to find a book that exposed this student to text in order to target story structure, word decoding, and fluency (school literacy), but the key was to find a title that would represent elements of what was valuable to this particular boy (home literacy). I selected Johanna Hurwitz's, *Class President* because the main character, Julio, doesn't always pay attention or do the best in school. He seemed to be the least likely candidate to be elected as class president, yet throughout the course of the story he learns to value his strongest traits and emerges as the winner. I thought this might appeal to Victor, although interestingly he predicted the book's entire outcome by the third chapter, "He's going to get better throughout the book, run for president and win. That's what always happens in these types of books." Victor was cynical, yet brilliant. I thought having an underdog with similar qualities would motivate him, and yet his street-smarts dictated this isn't how the world always works.

Strong connections are often seen best as students work in small groups, as they have multiple opportunities to work with their peers in a less intimidating manner. It was Theodore Roosevelt who said, "People don't care how much you know until they know how much you care."

Community. As per to Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978), children learn much from social interaction with others. Through interactions with peers and other adults, often through discussions and modeling, mediation takes place, and beliefs and interpretations are conveyed to the child. During this same period, the child internalizes the beliefs to which they are exposed and may assume them as their own.

Teaching and learning takes place in many spaces, and our students will learn at home, in play schemes, or in extracurricular activities. Third space theory (Bhabha, 2004) allows us to think about how students' meaning-making often lies between school (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, and listening literacy) and home. Teachers often access texts for students that target story structure, word decoding, and fluency (i.e., school literacies), but the key is to find a text that represents some elements of the child's value system (i.e., home literacies). School can become a valuable place for students to try out different identities in practice.

Teaching Tip: As a teacher, model mindfulness. Focus attention on academic instructional techniques, but consider techniques that encourage mindfulness. Stress, anxiety, and pressure are affecting students at earlier ages than ever before. Black and Fernando (2014) noted that teachers reported students to be more caring and focused after practicing mindfulness sessions for a period of five weeks. Mindfulness programs improve the social-emotional functioning, behavior, and academic achievement, behavior of both elementary and high school students. In addition, to improving students' mindfulness, a teacher's sense of efficacy, stress, and self-compassion can improve. One strategy is to try five-finger breathing. Have your students spread their fingers out wide, and use their pointer finger from their other hand to trace the outline of their spread-out fingers, moving slowly up, down, and around each finger. Focusing on the hand, breathing slowly, and the gentle touch often has an instant calming effect.

Connection. How can we effectively implement engagement in the classroom to increase student success? Students feel interested in learning when they feel connected to what is being taught. Students need to have a strong understanding for the relevance of the things

they learn. In order for this to happen, teachers must truly know their students. When working with adolescents in an urban district, Wallace and Chhuon (2014, p. 962) noted that, "a number of our participants shared that those teachers who take opportunities to know their students are more likely to teach in ways that engage youth because they are likely to understand more fully the texture of young people's lives." This idea is significant because it shows how powerful engaging students can really be. Simply just showing students that they are cared for and their presence is important can make a huge impact on a student that allows them to feel motivated to learn and succeed.

Teaching Tip: One of my favorite times to connect with students is lunch, because the academic pressure is off. Years ago, I had a shy student named Laura who loved her pet ducks but struggled to make real friends. She was artistic and appreciated crafts, but preferred to stay off to the side, both literally and figuratively. She never drew any attention at all to herself, and she concerned me because to the other students, it was almost as if she weren't there at all. It was the mid-2010s and scrapbooking had been extremely popular for a while, and it had now reached the point where so many friends and colleagues had overflowing boxes of special felt paper, textured stickers, oversized letters, die-cut shapes, colored stamps, and bright borders. I received donations of people's leftover supplies, and a lunch time scrapbooking club was born. The students brought pictures to school once a week and together we learned how to cut, measure, design, crop, and stamp. Laura brought pictures of her beloved ducks, and when her classmates initiated conversations about her pets, Laura was able to respond. It put her in a place of glory because she had such unique pets compared to the other students' cats and dogs. Week after week, I observed as she became a bit more confident in her crafting and a lot more confident in her peer relationships. In turn, the other students became amazed with her knowledge of and care for many different animals (ducks, followed by chickens and eventually a goat).

Collaboration. Children create schemas from what they observe and experience around them. For children, schemas are malleable and changed through exposure to various beliefs, ideas, and information. Piaget (1952, p. 7) defined a schema as, "a cohesive, repeatable action sequence possessing component actions that are tightly interconnected and governed by a core meaning." Teachers may play a crucial role by encouraging children to incorporate new information and reassess their schemas. When a child is confronted with new or conflicting ideas,

teachers can help their students to process and evaluate their experiences to contribute to understanding and learning about the world. An important part of learning about oneself and others is to engage in collaboration.

Students need opportunities to interact with each other, to engage in shared inquiry and discovery as they solve problems and complete a variety of tasks. Teachers should aim to bring students together using a variety of supportive and collaborative learning activities. Collaborative learning is especially beneficial for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms as it fosters an interactive classroom learning environment for all students. It provides students with role models for both academic tasks and behavior, and sets the conditions for students' positive social interactions. In literacy and language arts instruction, collaborative groups, "provide opportunities for able students and less able students to collaborate in constructing meaning from text and enable them to learn from each other by sharing their reflections, opinions, interpretations, and questions" (Montgomery, 2001, p. 6). Through time, students develop their discussion skills and begin to feel more comfortable talking about the content from the text as well as their opinions with their peers and the rest of the class.

> Teaching Tip: *Shiloh,* is one of my favorite novels together in her class. The students grew to love the characters, Marty and his dog, Shiloh, and quickly become angry at what they perceived as an unfair situation. The discussion regarding the characters and their actions was so rich that it became an opportunity for all students to be involved. Students were exposed to each other's ideas, some which complemented their own and others that challenged them. In addition to reading comprehension, the classroom community benefitted as the class pulled together to root for Marty and his dog. The students were so excited about the book that they checked out all of the sequels from our class library, our school library, and the public library. Parents were asking me where they could purchase copies, and inclusion of this book makes a strong argument for reading books as an entire class on some occasions.

Motivating On-Level and Accelerated Readers

Typically, it is easier to inspire motivation for reading in students who already have the skills to read fluently, decode words, and comprehend what they are reading. In the case of on-level and accelerated readers,

engagement with reading material can be fostered through the development of: intrinsic motivation (a student's natural enjoyment and interest in reading); value (the belief that reading is useful and essential); self-efficacy (the belief in the ability to perform tasks); and peer value. In order to assist in student's development of these factors, teachers can implement a variety of strategies that will lead to student motivation.

Motivation to read in the classroom begins with the texts our students want to read. In order to develop a student's intrinsic motivation, it is essential to include student choice in reading material and designated time to read those chosen books. Students can build their interest depending on the topics that appeal to them, which will hold their attention and engagement with a text more effectively than a mandatory reading of works that many students may not be able to relate to or even may resent. Although choice is beneficial, classrooms need to retain their structure, and it is necessary for students to be challenging themselves to think when reading their chosen books. Novels written at multiple grade levels below the reader or for younger audiences are not ideal when encouraging students to develop interest in reading and boost academic achievement. Therefore, it is up to teachers to find a range of quality texts that individuals can enjoy. By providing a range of diverse texts that students can choose from, it is more likely that on-level and accelerated students will benefit from their reading while being motivated to engage with texts.

Writing tasks also provide students with the opportunity to reflect on their reading experiences and explore their perspectives. Research has revealed that, "having adolescents choose a [follow-up] reading task from various options can also improve their curiosity to read, and hence, their willingness to spend more time reading" (Melekoğlu & Wilkerson, 2013, p. 86). By allowing for student choice in formative or summative assessments, it is more likely that students will look forward to picking up a book on their own in order to complete their assignments. Being able to choose between an analytical or personal response to their reading may be the incentive that students need in order to complete their work. If students are given choice, they can choose what is interesting and attainable to them, without compromising the academic value of the task. Increasing the motivation of students through choice can assist in creating engagement and interest in reading among reluctant on-level and accelerated readers.

Teaching Tip: Choice Boards are a way to shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered one. Boards look like graphic organizers that are comprised of different numbers of squares, with an activity detailed inside each square. The activities can be designed to help students learn or reinforce a concept, while still allowing them a choice. Students can be instructed to choose one or more of these activities to complete. Try for tic-tac-toe, 4 corners, or 5-in-a-row bingo!

Motivating Struggling Readers

Most teachers would tell you that their goal is for students to love reading, and inarguably, it is easiest when you have students who already tend to read well. In fact, motivation may be the, "most important part of reading" (Cambria & Guthrie, 2010, p. 16). But, the students who don't love to read and don't read well, the struggling readers, remain a challenge. In the case of reading, Cambria and Guthrie (2010) propose that what is meant by motivation is, "the values, beliefs, and behaviors surrounding reading for an individual" (p. 16) or an emphasis on the will and actions of the student. While student choice can also help to increase the motivation of reluctant, struggling readers, teaching reading skills is vital to increasing the motivation of students who have trouble decoding words, reading fluently, and comprehending text. However, even if struggling students are motivated and engaged with the material, they may still have trouble performing to grade-level standards.

Good readers read fluently, note structure, monitor their understanding while reading, use summaries, make predictions and connections to prior knowledge, and use visuals to make inferences (Edmonds et al., 2009). Because struggling readers are lacking in these areas, it is necessary for teachers to address and build on their essential reading skills. In inclusive classrooms, it is likely that there will be a variety of students with learning and specifically reading disabilities. For these students, skill-building is as crucial as motivation, which can lead to frustration if set goals are not achieved (Klauda & Guthrie, 2016). In order to reach readers of all ability levels, various activities can be implemented that motivate advanced and on-level readers, while also supporting the needs of those who are struggling.

Teaching Tip: Consider how utilizing read alouds every day in the classroom can make texts accessible to all learners. A few years ago, I had a student who struggled with behavior and academics and responded to read-louds by talking loudly, banging his chair, speaking rudely to his classmates and teachers, and trying to build an identity in the classroom as a disruptive student. But, being present during the read alouds had an effect on him. This student found that he related to *Wonder* (R.J. Palacio) on a level that others couldn't, as he has a brother with a serious disability. For the novel, *Letters from Rifka* (Karen Hesse) he was fully engaged as Rifka was separated from her family and spent nearly a year trying to immigrate to America. Surprisingly, *Pippi Longstocking* (Astrid Lindgren) seemed to be his favorite. Perhaps hearing about the girl who breaks all the rules but does so with grace and kindness appeals to him as he began forging a new identity as a reader.

Strategies for Building Reading Comprehension Skills in Inclusive Classrooms

The following includes two common strategies for building reading comprehension skills in inclusive classrooms: literature discussion groups and reciprocal teaching.

Literature Discussion Groups. Literature discussion groups have the potential to build both motivation and reading skills (Pittman & Honchell, 2014). By creating groups that contain students of all abilities, teachers can assign tasks that let each student contribute meaningfully to the group. Literature discussion groups are based on the discussion of texts and connecting them to the individual reader which allow for a variety of opinions and viewpoints to be shared between students of diverse backgrounds. In this way, literature discussion groups are different than other types of groups such as book clubs or literature circles. As a result of peer collaboration, "students, especially struggling readers, can become more motivated readers and learners who can enjoy a text, engage in literate conversation with other about what they read, and gain deeper insights into a wider variety of reading materials" (Pittman & Honchell, 2014, p. 128). The discussion within these groups has the ability to build intrinsic motivation, a value of reading, peer value, and self-efficacy for all students.

Literature discussion groups are effective in creating meaningful discourse among students. However, group discussion alone cannot build

the skills of struggling learners. In order for students to get the most out of these groups and to ensure understanding, students must close read. In close reading activities, students will, "read the text multiple times, benefi[t] from shared readings and teacher modeling, and, most important, discus[s] the work at the word, sentence, and paragraph levels" (Fisher & Frey, 2014, p. 374). Reading a text and interpreting its smallest structural pieces help struggling learners by forcing them to look directly at the text before making assumptions or assertions about it. Close reading gives the reader a deep understanding of the text through multiple readings, which can reveal ideas not previously considered, and inspire interest. By incorporating close reading in small groups, teachers can work to create an inclusive classroom that focuses on reading comprehension without signaling out certain groups based on their ability levels.

Literacy centers allow for a multitude of tasks and strategies to be implemented within a single class period. Effective centers include those that allow for group discussion, small group instruction with the teacher (which would include modeling and close reading), and independent reading of student–chosen texts (Melekoğlu & Wilkerson, 2013). Centers allow for a variety of tasks to be accomplished, and certain activities can be switched out or replaced depending on the unit. Literature discussion groups and learning centers allow for differentiation and accommodate for students' interests within inclusive classrooms.

Teaching Tip: Teachers are reminded that literacy practices are infused with identity. We all express our identity through written and spoken language, dress, and the items and artifacts we have around us. Our ways of speaking, writing, reading, and being are closely linked to our discourse communities. Keep in mind that in the classroom, a student may acquire a particular identity and over time it may become fixed. For example, a student's identity may become one who struggles with reading and writing. As illustration, consider the case of student Kevin (pseudonym); one of his discourse communities was his resource room. Under a tough demeanor of inappropriate language, jokes, and actions, he did share, piece by piece over the course of several months, that he was frustrated with his placement and lack of progress and knew that his frequent angry outbursts in that classroom were due to his own frustrations. Kevin's home activities included popular culture, fast-paced movies, go-karting, and video games. Then during afternoon literacy intervention periods, literature discussion groups started. Kevin's small group read, *The Mouse and the Motorcycle*

> (Beverly Cleary) which was a calculated decision based on a previous success. Very quickly, Kevin was interested in the little mouse Ralph, who bravely explored the hotel on a daily basis (much to his mother's fear), and Keith, who befriended Ralph and shares his prized toy motorcycle. The teacher alternated between reading portions of a chapter and the students reading independently to finish each chapter. Kevin was definitely the slowest reader in terms of fluency; however, he was comprehending and even enjoying the story. He participated fully by reading, asking questions, making predictions, and sharing appropriate and accurate commentary. The teacher made the students aware that the character Ralph appeared in three Cleary stories, and Kevin asked if it was okay to borrow one of the other novels. He read through *Ralph S. Mouse* on his own and even told his parents about it. In this literature discussion group, Kevin's identity was not one of a struggling reader and writer. It was, slowly, emerging as one of a leader.

Reciprocal Teaching. Teaching students to read and write is complex and cannot be addressed simply through the direct instruction of vocabulary, spelling, or reading strategies. Rather, educators need to look beyond the surface of curriculum design and address the issues concerning how language and learning account for literacy development.

The strongest instructional methods are designed to suit the students, the content matter, and the classroom setting. Reciprocal teaching is one, where teachers and students engage in shared reading, discussion, and questioning, and has been demonstrated as an effective teaching practice in various settings by numerous researchers (Coley, DePinto, Craig, & Gardner, 1993; Kelly, Moore, & Tuck, 2001; Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Reciprocal teaching enables students to construct meaning and self-monitor as they read. It is one of many close reading strategies that break reading down into distinct cognitive tasks, and is something that strong readers do without even realizing. A strategy that boosts comprehension as well as engagement, reciprocal teaching is a simple process that can make literacy a major focus in any class. Overall, the goal of reciprocal teaching is to engage students in a natural process that has been modeled and used with consistency in order to achieve the desired effects (Kieschnick, 2017). Following is a summary of the components of the strategy and an illustration of its use.

Predict—Provide a text and give students two minutes to check out the title, cover, and pages. In groups, ask students to make predictions

as to what the text will be about, and record their predictions. Then, ask students to use another minute or so to review the text again and revise the predictions if they so choose. As a class, guide the discussion about each group's predictions and why or why these may be accurate.

Clarify—Ask students to scan, not explicitly read, the first chapter or part of the text (or all if it is a short text) for words they don't recognize or understand. The teacher can guide the students in small group discussions about the meaning of these words.

Question—Ask students to read the text silently or together aloud. Each group should come up with three questions that can be answered after reading the text. Teacher scaffolding and direction is essential in this step as students learn how to develop good questions. Groups can pair up so that one group has to answer another group's questions.

Summarize—Each group should work together to create a succinct summary of the text they just read.

Teaching Tip: The reading workshop model can provide a perfect balance between whole-class, small group, and individual instruction. Consider creating cohesive units that include in-depth lessons that explore all of the required standards while still fitting a theme. It has been my experience that children enjoy learning for a particular purpose, and providing an engaging theme helps to keep their attention. Begin with a whole-class story as a unit kickoff and a place to position whole-class instruction. Then move to utilizing leveled readers that fit the theme and allow for more individualized, differentiated instruction. Leveled readers provide a wide repertoire of exciting titles. Incorporate technology by allowing students who receive modifications to listen to some texts on reading assistive technology. This will help students comprehend the material and participate effectively and with confidence within larger class discussions. Students tend to be focused and participated in reading and small group discussion. Students have multiple opportunities to work with their peers and to utilize flexible grouping. The teacher should attempt to spend some individual time with each student. Students who are not reading on grade level might work with the teacher nearly every day during the language arts block, in addition to the instruction provided during a flexible intervention period. Accelerated readers can be challenged with more difficult texts and enrichment activities.

Creating Inclusive Classrooms

In today's schools, teachers must be prepared to teach students, using certain guidelines with, "students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds in all kinds of classrooms, but particularly in inclusive settings where general and special educators work together to promote the academic, social, and behavioral skills of all students" (Montgomery, 2001, p. 4). To accomplish this, teachers need to take an honest look at their own attitudes and current practice and then assess their relationships with their students and their understanding of their students' diverse backgrounds. For example, teachers should ask themselves some of the following questions: "Do the children in my classroom and school come from diverse cultural backgrounds? What are my perceptions of students from different racial and ethnic groups? How do I respond to my students, based on these perceptions?" (Montgomery, 2001, p. 4). Responses to these questions will prompt teachers to reflect on their own assumptions and biases in a thoughtful and potentially productive way.

In order to ensure that all students are learning in a culturally inclusive classroom, teachers must employ ongoing and culturally aware assessments and instructional methods. This begins with teachers observing their students' social and learning behaviors in all classroom situations and paying special attention to the cognitive styles of all students and their evolving academic skills. In addition, students should have the opportunity to self-evaluate their own performance and document its progress throughout the academic school year. Teachers who take the time to reflect on their own teaching practices can better help their students succeed in the classroom than those who are reluctant to reflect on their own learning.

Culturally responsive teachers believe that culture deeply influences the way children learn (Brown, 2007). For this reason, teachers also need to be aware of family and community values, norms, and experiences, so that they can help students mediate the boundary crossing between home and school. Collaboration and communication with culturally diverse families and with other professionals are essential in culturally inclusive classrooms. Families should be regularly informed about students' progress and encouraged to participate in class and school activities when possible. Equally as important, teachers should establish a strong collaborative relationship with their colleagues in order to

develop instructional programs that enhance learning opportunities (Montgomery, 2001). This contributes to a whole school community as teachers share ideas with other teachers who also interact with their students.

Teaching Tip: A simple, cost-effective way to build an inclusive school community is to create Positive Partners among upper-grade students who are paired up with lower grade students (e.g., fourth graders with first graders). Students can do a number of different activities with their buddies throughout the school year ranging from shared reading, creative arts, puzzles, and science experiments. The older students enjoy the task of being assigned a buddy to mentor, and the younger students look up to their older buddies. Often, the older buddies who may be struggling with self-esteem embrace the opportunity to assist a younger student in some way. This helps promote good character and accountability as well as contributing to self-efficacy for all of the students.

Conclusion

In order to address the wide range of ability levels in reading that are typical in a classroom, various factors must be considered. Motivation and reading comprehension are the two major factors contributing to student engagement with reading. While motivation only works to a certain degree depending on ability level, it is one of the most effective ways to engage accelerated readers. For struggling readers, motivation and reading comprehension skills must be addressed together in order to create the most effective learning environment.

A variety of strategies assist in building the motivation and reading comprehension of students in inclusive classrooms. Student choice allows for students to customize their learning to fit their needs, while small groups allow for multiple viewpoints to be heard and appreciated. Literacy centers that address close reading strategies and small group student–teacher interaction are effective in teaching reading comprehension skills. Motivation and reading comprehension strategies should be implemented in inclusive classrooms in order to effectively reach reluctant and struggling readers.

Classrooms are spaces than can be infused with our students' identities. By acknowledging existing identities, students can be supported in their language learning, which then becomes a tool for developing new

identities. By placing value on students' identities, teachers can achieve more, especially if they collectively believe that they can do. When relationships are strong enough to allow individual student–teacher interaction, both teachers and students teach and learn.

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CHAPTER 11

Building Collective Teacher Efficacy Through Teacher Collaboration

Vicki Park, Douglas Fisher, and Nancy Frey

"I'm seeing about a 50% jump in the number of students who have evidence and reasons in their writing." This comment was made by one of the secondary school English teachers during their collaborative planning time as the group examined student work samples. The team had previously analyzed results from the state assessment and noted that their students' scores on writing from sources were not strong. They decided that they could not address this on their own, so they enlisted the help of the science and social studies teachers at their school. The English teachers developed materials highlighting claims, evidence, and reasons in writing that could be consistently addressed in classes across the school. They met with the science and history teachers to enlist their help and then co-planned discipline-based writing tasks.

V. Park (✉) · D. Fisher · N. Frey
San Diego State University, San Diego, CA, USA
e-mail: vpark@sdsu.edu

D. Fisher
e-mail: dfisher@mail.sdsu.edu

N. Frey
e-mail: nfrey@sdsu.edu

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As one of the history teachers noted, “We have students writing a lot in our classes, but we don’t use the frame of claim, evidence, and reason. Of course, that structure fits with writing in history, but we just didn’t think about it. We’re all taking this on, not just because of the test scores, but because this is a skill that our students will need when they go to college.”

Nine weeks later after the co-planning and implementation, the English teachers were analyzing the results. When they got to scoring the students’ writing samples, the results were clear. Significant gains in students’ abilities to make a claim using textual evidence and support that claim with reasons were realized. In this chapter, we could more fully explore the structure of the lessons, the commitment from the whole school, the leadership of the English teachers, or students’ responses to the experience, but we won’t. Instead, we will focus on the fact that this experience, and those like it, built collective efficacy with the teachers. As a result of teachers engaging in their peer collaborative learning, they improved students’ achievement. We believe they did so because they learned to function as a collective, rather than as individual teachers trying their best, on their own, to improve learning outcomes for students. When teams come together and have specific kinds of experiences as we will see, the team changes in its beliefs about efficacy, or the ability to produce the desired result. Several chapters in this book have focused on individual teacher efficacy, which is critically important for success. But we argue that there is power in the collective and that collective teacher efficacy should be the goal of collaborative efforts.

The Value of the Collective

Collective efficacy is often overlooked in discussions about school improvement, despite the fact that this construct exerts significant influence on students’ learning and achievement. Several studies have documented the fact that collective efficacy predicts student achievement in schools (Bandura, 1993; Goddard, 2001) and may support effort, persistence, and resilience for both students and teachers (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004; Goddard & Skrla, 2006). Conversely, when educators lack a sense of collective efficacy, schools experience lower levels of performance and effort (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Goddard, Goddard, Sook Kim, and Miller (2015) note that evidence about the influence of enactive experiences, such as teacher collaboration, on collective efficacy beliefs is limited. Although the field recognizes that

collective efficacy matters, researchers still have much to learn about how it matters—the specific practices, routines, tools, and shared knowledge that supports the development and sustainability of collective efficacy. At the secondary school level especially, is not clear how efficacious high school English teachers develop their sense of collective efficacy and the actions they take to engage themselves and their colleagues in increasing efficacy. The integral question is: What might be useful in helping teachers increase their collective efficacy and thus improve student learning?

In this chapter, we review the conceptualization of collective efficacy, outlining the key sources of its development. We then explore how collective efficacy may be supported within schools, offering a framework for understanding the specific sources of efficacy beliefs embedded in professional learning communities. Finally, we examine how collective efficacy is nurtured or constrained within organizational contexts such as an urban high school. We conclude with recommendations that teachers and leaders can use to mobilize the impact of efficacy in their schools. We hope that this provides readers with examples of ways to improve teacher efficacy, individually and collectively, such that teachers develop their agency and identity, and as a result, their job satisfaction and impact on students.

Why Collective Efficacy Works

Research on collective efficacy suggests that it can serve as a powerful indicator of school improvement that leads to student learning. Perceived collective efficacy in schools can be broadly defined as, “the judgment of teachers in a school that the faculty as a whole can organize and execute the courses of action required to have a positive effect on student[s]” (Goddard et al., 2004, p. 4). Simply put, it is the shared belief that collective action will lead to desired outcomes. According to Hattie (2016), “based on a synthesis of more than 1,500 meta-analyses, collective teacher efficacy is greater than three times more powerful and predictive of student achievement than socioeconomic status. It is more than double the effect of prior achievement and more than triple the effect of home environment and parent involvement. It is also greater than three times more predictive of student achievement than student motivation and concentration, persistence, and engagement” (cited in Donohoo, Hattie, & Eells, 2018, pp. 41–42).

According to Bandura (1993, 1997), there are four sources of experiences that shape efficacy beliefs. The first source is *mastery (i.e., enactive)*

experience whereby perceptions of a performance as successful raise efficacy beliefs and reinforce the expectation of future performance proficiency. That is, past successful experiences can contribute to the belief that one or a team can be successful in a future experience. Mastery may be the most powerful source of efficacy information (Goddard et al., 2004) although research on how and in what ways mastery experiences contribute to collective efficacy is limited (Goddard et al., 2015; Voelkel & Chrispeels, 2017).

The second source of efficacy beliefs, *vicarious experiences*, refers to when an individual has the opportunity to observe a skill modeled by someone else with whom the individual identifies with. If the modeler performs well, the observer's sense of efficacy is also likely to be enhanced. This type of modeling is commonly used to develop students' reading skills (e.g., Fisher & Frey, 2012) and can be mobilized with adults as well. Ross and Bruce (2007) designed a professional development program that explicitly addressed the four sources of teacher efficacy, intentionally including opportunities for teachers to engage in mastery and vicarious experiences. The researchers found that the program had, "a positive effect on teacher expectations about their ability to handle student-management issues" (p. 58).

The third source is known as *social persuasion*, whereby individuals are provided with performance feedback from colleagues and leaders. These experiences can be formal and informal and entail encouragement or concrete advice on improving practice (Goddard et al., 2004).

The fourth source of efficacy beliefs is referred to as the *affective state*, whereby emotional levels (e.g., excitement or anxiety) contribute to individual's perception of competence. At the collective level, "the emotional tone of the organization" (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004, p. 190) influences the way in which groups work and how they view their work (cited in Fisher & Frey, forthcoming). These four sources of experiences suggest the dynamic and complex nature of fostering efficacy beliefs within teams and schools. Lived experiences coupled with modeling, feedback, and emotional responses all play a role in shaping beliefs about collective efficacy.

Collective Efficacy and Teacher Collaboration: A Reciprocal Relationship

Rather than an individual characteristic, collective efficacy is a quality reflected in organizations and teams, through interactions and shared beliefs. In schools, this suggests that in order to understand how

collective efficacy is developed, scholars need to attend to group processes and organizational learning. Goddard et al. (2015) argue that teacher collaboration is a key form of enactive experience that is associated with collective efficacy beliefs in schools (p. 508). Studies suggest that collective efficacy mediates the effects of professional learning communities (PLCs) on student achievement (Goddard et al., 2015; Moolenaar, Sleegers, & Daly, 2012). Voelkel and Chrispeels (2017) examined the link between PLCs and teachers' collective efficacy and found that higher functioning PLCs predicated higher levels of teacher efficacy. The authors note that, "Without a shared sense that they can make a difference and achieve desired goals, professional learning communities are unlikely to set challenging goals, look at student work in ways that delve into teacher practices, or invest in new ways of teaching" (p. 506). Consequently, PLCs and teacher collaboration are important sources of building or constraining collective efficacy in a school. In other words, it works both ways. When PLCs or teacher collaboration is poor, collective efficacy decreases.

Scholars who study PLCs and teacher collaboration note that there is a wide variation in PLC characteristics and how PLCs are practiced (e.g., Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, & Thomas, 2006; Vangrieken, Dochy, Raes, & Kyndt, 2015; Vescio, Ross, & Adams, 2008). Several reviews of research outline how effective professional learning communities exhibit key characteristics such as shared values and vision; collective responsibility; reflective professional inquiry; and collaboration (Hord, 1997; Kelchtermans, 2006; Stoll et al., 2006; Vescio et al., 2008). Studies of PLCs suggest that there are key practices that lead to more robust forms of PLCs that can support teacher and student learning. Research evidence demonstrates that not all forms of teacher teaming and collaboration lead to substantive reflection and improvement in practice (Ronfeldt, Farmer, McQueen, & Grissom, 2015; Vangrieken et al., 2015; Vescio et al., 2008). These studies also suggest the ways in which collective efficacy may be fostered or hindered. For example, Ronfeldt and colleagues (2015) found not only better achievement gains in math and reading in schools where teachers engaged in quality collaboration, but also greater improvements in teacher growth.

Focusing on curriculum, instructional decision making, and analyzing student data have been found to more likely to promote student achievement gains (Gallimore, Ermeling, Saunders, & Goldenberg, 2009; Ronfeldt et al., 2015; Vescio et al., 2008). Voelkel and Chrispeels (2017)

found that teacher efficacy was fostered as teachers analyzed student data to decide what changes in instruction were needed to ensure students mastered learning goals. Schools were also more likely to demonstrate gains in student achievement when there was frequent collaboration, using structured inquiry protocols and student data, and led by trained instructional leaders (Gallimore et al., 2009; Saunders, Goldenberg, & Gallimore, 2009).

Some studies also suggest that team interactions matter for collaboration. Young's (2006) case study of teachers' use of data in elementary schools found that grade level teams within the same school exhibited different professional norms. In terms of collaboration with regard to data use, groups ranged from, "story-swapping" to joint work. Teams also exhibited differences in relation to their interaction styles ranging from "team discord" to "team cohesion." For example, Young (2006) found that a second-grade team had relatively high cohesion, but the content of their collaboration was not based on joint work. Rather, discussions concentrated on one veteran teacher who offered advice to novice teachers. This was in contrast to a third-grade team at another school where the members jointly worked together to develop grade-level consistency, shared lessons, and solved problems. Consequently, team cohesiveness by itself does not lead to a focus on instructional improvement in the service of student learning. Why? There are instances in which teachers may exchange stories without developing common goals and sharing lessons, nor offering a critical examination of one another's practices. Storytelling, sharing, and providing instrumental help are considered practices that are on the independent end of the continuum of collaboration as these practices are likely to lead to superficial learning or little change in classroom practice. By contrast, "joint work," where teacher groups engage in shared deliberation about recurring problems of teaching and learning are considered to be on the interdependent end of the continuum (Little, 1990).

Taken together, the literature on both collective efficacy and PLCs suggests several key shared routines, tools, norms, and identities that may foster the development of collective efficacy in a school. PLCs, as ongoing sites of teacher interaction, provide sources for the formation of beliefs about collective efficacy potentially through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, socialization, and emotional tone. In Table 11.1, we identify specific routines, tools, shared identities, and norms that research suggests support the development of positive

Table 11.1 Sources of efficacy beliefs in PLCs

Sources of efficacy beliefs	*Routines*	*Tools*	*Shared identities*	*Norms*
Mastery	Regular formal and informal collaborative planning meetings	Student data and other evidence of learning	"We are centered on student learning needs"	Shared decision making about instructional practices and policies
	Shared opportunities to deepen literacy content knowledge, learning standards, and pedagogy	Protocols to analyze effectiveness of instructional practice/lesson plans	"We support student mastery and instructional rigor"	Experimentation
Vicarious	Time to visit one another's classroom to observe instructional practice/lessons	Scheduling flexibility and coverage of classes		De-privatization of practice
	Modeling of both instructional practice and PLC facilitation	New content and pedagogy (e.g., book study, lessons, etc.)	"We are all both experts and learners"	Everyone "puts work on the table" to be shared, analyzed, and reviewed
	Opportunities to learn from external sources	Protocols to analyze instructional practice and student work		
Social persuasion/socialization	Feedback processes include both strengths and opportunities for growth	Protocols and processes for examining instructional practices and student data	"We are change agents" "We value each other as colleagues and as people"	Interdependence All play an important role in facilitating shared learning and student growth
Affective state ("Emotional Tone")	Celebrating success and engaging in shared problem solving of challenges	Protocol such as community circles	"We build on our success and persist through our challenges together"	Acknowledge challenges and successes Shared problem solving

collective efficacy. These practices and processes are aligned with the four sources of efficacy beliefs. At a glance, this framework enables us to explore how collective efficacy development may be embedded in the work of PLCs.

Enacting Collective Efficacy in an Urban High School

There are a number of tools that teachers and leaders use to develop collective efficacy. These are important considerations for raising student achievement and for creating a workplace in which teachers thrive. That is not an either/or proposition. Calculated actions create both students and teachers who thrive. Following are five essential practices that we have found integral to enacting collective efficacy.

"Sacred Time to Collaborate." The group of English teachers that informed this chapter had time together every week of the school year. Students were released one day per week at 12:30 and the team met from 1:00 to 4:00 p.m. For collective efficacy to grow, teachers need time to collaborate. But just providing them time to do so, without structures and goals, may not result in improved experiences for teachers or better learning for students. As one of the teachers noted:

> At my last school, we meet every week but the topics were so mundane. We talked about which books would be read in each grade level and we talked about assembly schedules and department logistics. Sometimes we got to student work, but there was never enough time to really talk about what we were seeing. Mostly we just scored papers and gave students the feedback. Here, there is sacred time to collaborate, and we do collaborate. We roll up our sleeves, so to speak, and get the real work done.

This group of teachers was guided by a teacher leader, one of their own who had more formal training in facilitation skills. As a team, they focused on specific questions to guide their work, including:

- Where are we going?
- Where are we now?
- How do we move learning forward?
- What did we learn today?
- Who benefited and who did not benefit?

For example, during a conversation about where they were going with student learning, the team analyzed standards to identify levels of rigor. What started off as a seemingly very difficult task developed into a skill set these teachers had that they were invited to share with others at their school and with the district. As one of the teachers noted:

> Who hasn't read the standards? Yeah, we all know them. But did we really know them? No. When we started to analyze the standards for their rigor, it was really hard. I wasn't so sure of myself. But when we designed tasks to allow students to demonstrate mastery, it became much clearer. Now, we're all comfortable with task analysis and the rigor matrix, which means that we know the standards a lot better. It really felt good that first time to develop a task and have confidence that it was at the right level of complexity for students.

Another teacher talked about the collective discussion about moving learning forward. She noted that the team was talking about using a jigsaw and that they all had different experiences with this strategy and that they all had different definitions of how it was supposed to look. As part of their collaborative time, one of the teachers engaged the rest of the group in a jigsaw lesson and then led a debrief about the process and how it impacted the learning of the adults in the room. As the teacher noted:

> We had this shared experience and then had time to talk about the components of the lesson that worked for us. We had several ah-ha moments about the aspects that would really move the learning forward. It was great to have the time to do that, but then we all decided that we would jigsaw at least twice the next week so that we could come back together and talk about how it worked and what we might need to change for our students.

When asked about that following week, the teacher said:

> [It was] one of the best meetings of the year for me. We all had stories to share about students who had not yet had any success who were talking about the text and sharing ideas. We also talked about the ways that it created equity of voice in our classrooms and how much the students really seemed to like it. We noted that it took more time, but that the time was worth it because students were doing the work together and the teacher

> was able to meet with small groups for some additional instruction. It was pretty amazing that we all did it and we all had some success with it. For me, that was a turning point this year. That's when I saw us come together as a team this year. There are two new people on our team and that day was the day that this team became a team.

"We Have Goals." As the team came together to engage in their collective work; they established goals for their efforts. These goals were focused on students' learning and allowed teachers to collect data to determine if the goals had been met. At the outset of their collaborative work, the goals were short term and easy to accomplish quickly. For example, the team set a goal to help a new teacher redesign an assessment that had been used by a previous teacher. The goal was to, "Collaboratively re-design the 'attribution of sources' assessment to improve horizontal alignment and student mastery." Obviously, this can be accomplished quickly and fairly easily. Over time, their goals become more complex, requiring more time and attention.

During their collaborative planning time the next week, they analyzed the assessment, compared items with the standards, discussed learning that should occur at each grade level so that students could successfully attribute sources, and thus avoid plagiarism. They crafted some items together and agreed on some items from the previous assessment that were appropriate. The teachers completed the task in about 75 minutes before transitioning into their next task, which was to focus on students' self-assessment of their writing. One of the teachers interrupted the facilitator, saying,

> I just need to say this. We did it! We set a goal and we were able to accomplish what we set out to do. Not all teams are able to do that. And it feels good. It's not my assessment and I hope you [pointing to the new teacher] like the tool. I just feel really good about the assessment and our ability to collaborate and reach our goals.

Their work together continued and they set goals that were longer- and longer-term ones. For example, they agreed to focus on "Developing the public speaking skills, including confidence, of our students." As part of their conversation about this goal, the team noted the need to develop assessment tools and lessons. They devoted an entire meeting to this work and agreed to integrate public speaking skills across the grade levels. As one of the teachers noted, "We have goals, and when we agree on those goals, we meet them. Let's do this."

"Putting Work on the Table." In order to de-privatize practice and engage in joint work, teachers have to feel that they can trust one another as colleagues and as professionals. Depending on the configuration of a team (e.g., whether they are new or established teams), it may take time to develop routines, norms, and shared identities. However, directly and immediately engaging in joint work and analyzing student work within PLCs can also provide the foundation for trust to deepen. The English teachers regularly shared their work within their meetings, not to simply engage in story-swapping about what lessons they were implementing, but to analyze student learning and to refine instructional practice. Teachers took turns volunteering to "put work on the table."

During one PLC meeting, the team decided to use the *Notice and Wonder Protocol for Student Work* to examine essays (Venables, 2017). One of the teachers shared a rubric for the assignment and two completed essays reflecting typical student work. In the essay, students were required to provide claims, evidence, and reasons in their analysis of a poem. Following the protocol, the teachers made *notice* statements both about the rubric and student work. The team noticed that the rubric clearly outlined the expectations of the assignment and that students accurately used and explained literary techniques in their analyses such as similes, metaphors, and tone. They then wondered if all students, especially English language learners and students with disabilities, could access some of the challenging vocabulary in the poem and what scaffolding was used. They wondered if students understood the distinction between making claims about their own interpretations or the author's. They also wondered if students could use the essay to compare it with a previous assignment as a means to reflect on their growth. After multiple rounds of *noticings* and *wonderings*, the presenting teacher reflected about what he learned from the team's feedback and how he planned to revise the assignment and build on it moving forward. The team then debriefed about the protocol and what they learned as a result of going through the process. They were mindful to explicitly ask themselves, "How did we build community knowledge? What did the tool, protocol, or discussion do for us as a PLC team?" As they shared their insights, they concluded that the protocol enabled them to focus on actual student and teacher work, and that they appreciated the opportunity to hear everyone's thinking on one lesson. For the non-presenting members of the team, they also appreciated the opportunity to review writing at another grade level and considered the ways in which they could

continue to strengthen students' abilities to effectively use claims, evidence, and reasons across all grade levels. By putting work on the table, the team created shared knowledge about instructional practice and expectations for student learning.

Collective efficacy was built in two ways through these experiences within the PLC. First, by focusing on specific learning standards and student work, the team deepened their content and instructional knowledge about how to teach the use of claims, evidence, and reasons. They also reinforced key instructional scaffolds focused on ensuring that all students had access to the curriculum. Second, the team built collective efficacy as a PLC by reflecting on the use of tools and development of their shared knowledge. Consequently, they expanded their capacity not only as teachers, but also as professional learning community.

"Witnessing Learning in Action." Given that collective efficacy also develops based on vicarious experiences, the teachers at this school were provided time to visit one another. The leadership arranged for some additional prep time for some teachers and compensated others for their prep time, buying out their prep one day each week or every other week. They created a system in which teachers were provided the opportunity to visit each other during instruction on a regular basis. This was by invitation and not mandatory, but every teacher took advantage of the opportunity.

Importantly, this was not time to simply observe the behaviors of teachers. Rather, the focus was on student learning. As one of the teachers said,

> We were encouraged to look down, not up. I mean we were reminded that it's okay to see what the teacher is doing, by looking up, but it was also important to look down and see what the students were learning as a result. It's like we get to witness learning in action.

This focus helped teachers determine the impact that their peers were having on students' learning.

For example, during a close reading lesson of a complex text, the visiting teacher noticed that the questions were a powerful tool that the teacher used to ensure students' learning. As he noted,

> The questions were really pushing their thinking and the students were talking about the possible answers to the questions with their group members. The group I was with really struggled with the text, but the questions

> provided some scaffolding that really helped them come to understand the text. I think that the flow of the questions is really important to help students develop skills in text analysis. I can see that the planning of these questions is really important because the teacher never told the students what to think about the text, but rather guided their understanding as they read, re-read, and discussed the text based on the questions being asked.

The observing teacher also noted that he wanted to learn more about these types of questions so that he could provide similar lessons for his students. He asked for resources that the teacher had used, which she provided. She also offered to co-teach a lesson with him using the questions they developed together. And she described the difficulty she had when she first started using complex texts, telling him,

> It was really hard for me at first. I didn't like to see my students struggle and I would jump in and rescue them. In fact, I thought I was a bad teacher and that this wasn't an appropriate way to engage students who struggled with reading and who had histories of negative experiences with texts. But then, I said that in our collaborative planning meeting; this was a few years ago, it was like the flood gates opened. We were all trying this and we were all feeling the same. We talked about how difficult it was to plan the lesson, especially when you felt like the students were suffering.

Then, she focused on the success that they had with the interim assessments, adding,

> But when we got the interim assessment results back, we were shocked and so happy! The scores were great. The increases were strong and the students were able to read much more complex texts than they could at the beginning of the year on the initial assessments. We had quite a celebration meeting that next week. When we asked students about [their experience], they all talked about the confidence they had in reading the passages on the assessment. They talked about how they used the re-reading skills and just took their time to really focus on what the text was saying. This really changed our belief in the process and in our ability to impact our students learning as a team.

"Taking Time to Celebrate." The comment about celebrating is also noteworthy as recognizing successes also helps build and maintain collective efficacy. The entire school comes together twice per year to review data on a larger scale. Before the school year starts, there is a

day-long facilitated meeting in which all of the staff engage in a review of students' performance from the previous year. This includes academic, behavioral, and social data. The meeting room is filled with data charts that summarize graduation rates, college readiness levels, attendance, discipline, English language learners' progress, school climate, and teacher satisfaction. As one of the English teachers noted,

> There is always a lot to celebrate at the Fall retreat. We note areas of impact and review our goals to see where we are. For example, we wanted to have more success on the college and career indicators and the percentage increased from 54% to 76% in two years. When those numbers were announced, the staff cheered. We also talked about what we did to change those numbers and how we had to keep doing those things. We have a protocol to acknowledge the successes we have had and it involves talking about the impact on students with three other staff members. It really feels good to do it.

As part of the Fall retreat, teachers also meet in departments to talk about their work for the year ahead and the staff agrees on areas of future focus. As another English teacher noted,

> It's not just celebrations. It's important to recognize success, but it's also important to know what still needs to be done. There is always room for growth and we have to decide what to tackle next. But it's part of the celebration. We know that we can do it because we just saw data about our impact and then we take on the next challenge.

The Spring retreat, one week after the semester ends, allows the staff to review progress thus far in the school year. The data review focuses on attendance, discipline, progress on college readiness indicators, semester grades, and climate. As with the Fall retreat, there are always areas for celebration and areas that need additional attention. As one of the English teachers noted,

> I think it's a good idea to come together after semester 1. We're tired and the holidays are over. This is like a little booster shot. You get to see the data. And yes, there are celebrations. But it's also a time for reflection and to re-commit to impacting students' lives. Oh, and the celebrations are not just about students and school. We celebrate each other. We celebrate life accomplishments with each other and we celebrate our friendships. It's a very special event for all of us and we leave more prepared to finish the year strong.

Recommendations

The lessons learned from these high school English teachers as they collaborated to improve student learning, and their own work experiences, are transferable to other schools. We did not describe the demographics of the school yet because we want readers to see themselves in the experience. Over 75% of the students in the school qualify for free lunch. In addition, 18% of the students have in Individualized Education Plan for their disability. Over 90% of the students speak a language other than English at home. The school is located in the inner-city and serves a very diverse population of students. And the school out-performs all other high schools in the neighborhood. Thus, we think that the lessons we have learned about collective teacher efficacy and the power of teacher collaboration can be applied to schools with a myriad of demographic profiles; these lessons are summarized here as five recommendations:

1. *Time to collaborate*. None of this could have happened had teachers not been provided time to work together. We believe that building and maintaining collective teacher efficacy requires face-to-face time with teachers. School leaders have to be creative and courageous in creating the time and space teachers need to collaborate. At this school, they use banked minutes (providing the minimum number of instructional minutes required by the state, but not the same number for each day of the week) to release students one day per week after lunch. This option might not be possible in all schools in which case there is a challenge for leaders to find time for teachers to work together on consequential tasks.
2. *Procedures and processes.* As we have noted, simply providing time for teacher collaboration is not likely to change students' learning. As Venables (2017) notes, facilitation is an important aspect of teacher collaboration and professional learning communities. In this school, teacher leaders were supported in their development of their facilitation skills. They were provided a number of different protocols to engage their colleagues in the difficult conversations necessary to move student learning forward, while also developing teacher collective efficacy. Without such procedures and processes, teams can flounder and some members of the group will become cynical of the process. With strong processes and procedures, teams develop habits for interacting with each other, confidence in their efforts, and are much more likely to realize the results they hoped for.

3. *Early wins.* Given that collective teacher efficacy feeds on mastery experiences, our experiences suggest that teacher teams would benefit from a series of small successes at the outset of their collective efforts. As the adage suggests, "success breeds success." Spiro (2011) notes, these initial, small successes—or early wins—"demonstrate concretely that achieving the change goal is feasible and will result in benefits for those involved" (p. 91). Spiro continues, noting that there are specific conditions necessary to harvest the early wins, including:
   - Tangible and observable: The win must be obvious and real in ways that everyone can see it and understand it;
   - Achievable: The win must be realized, so plan wins that you can achieve. Failure will cause more damage, so plan carefully;
   - Perceived by most as having benefits: Participants should see the early win as valuable and beneficial, most likely for students but also perhaps for staff members. The idea is that the win means something;
   - Nonthreatening: There are people who are skeptical or who oppose the efforts, so the early win cannot threaten them. We suggest planning a win in an area that is safe for all of those involved;
   - Symbolic of shared value: The win has to be viewed as a win. In other words, the win has to have symbolic value, even if it is a proxy to a much larger win down the road.
4. *Get out of your room.* Vicarious experiences, or learning from others, are an important aspect of building collective efficacy (not to mention a powerful way to increase self-efficacy). The school we described in this chapter has formal supports in place for teachers to observe one another; some schools do not. But a lack of dedicated release-time should not be a hindrance. We believe that it's a good use of planning time to visit other teachers' classrooms and see students learning. The impact can be as powerful as planning a lesson on your own. The ideas that are generated from observing teaching and learning can make you a better teacher and can reinforce the power of a collective team. Go visit classrooms on a regular basis and liberate the ideas from those classrooms and use them in your own.
5. *Celebrate success.* Far too many schools, and teams within those schools, fail to celebrate the success they experience. It seems that

school systems are perpetually focused on what's wrong, what needs to be fixed, or which students are not doing well. It's time to change that narrative if we hope to increase teacher collective efficacy. When we recognize success, we are more prepared for the next challenge. When we take time to celebrate, our batteries are re-charged. When we recognize that our successes come from the group, our collective efficacy grows.

Conclusion

Collective teacher efficacy is not a new concept. Bandura described it decades ago and several researchers have documented the power of this construct on learning. Many school-based teams lack collective efficacy and teachers are left alone, as if they were independent contractors, to do all of the work in their classrooms. In those situations, teachers create and re-create everything on their own. They may develop their own self-efficacy, which is important. But the power in the collective cannot be overstated. There are clear guidelines that teams and leaders can use to create and maintain collective efficacy with teachers. It's a choice that school staff members make between benign neglect of the collective and active facilitation of the collective. It's worth the effort, for the success of students and staff, to redouble our efforts in building effective, collaborative groups. We see teacher teams, such as those created in PLCs, as a pathway to build the collective.

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CHAPTER 12

Teachers' Collective and Self-Efficacy as Reform Agents: One Teacher Discusses Her Place in Reforming Literacy Instruction

Phillip Poulton, Mallihai Tambyah, and Annette Woods

Introduction

In this chapter, we draw on the concepts of self- and collective efficacy to consider how teachers are positioned within school reform processes in the current education context. In particular, we examine a school reform context involving school-based curriculum development focused on the learning area of English in an Australian primary (elementary) school. We argue that in such literacy reform contexts, it is important to understand the varied perceptions and responses teachers have to change that are influenced by self- and collective efficacy beliefs. We use the term

P. Poulton (✉) · M. Tambyah · A. Woods
Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

M. Tambyah
e-mail: m.tambyah@qut.edu.au

A. Woods
e-mail: annette.woods@qut.edu.au

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self-efficacy to describe an individual teacher's beliefs about their capacity to perform certain "teacher" tasks in a way that meet given educational goals (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Teacher collective efficacy in contrast aims to represent the teacher's beliefs about the capacity of all involved in a school or system—for example all of the teachers in one school—to perform teaching in a way that creates quality outcomes for all students (Bandura, 2012; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004). As such, collective efficacy refers to the capacity of a teacher to assess and evaluate the capacity of the whole staff to produce a positive impact on the students in the school (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). Much of the current research available in this area aims to define and measure these concepts, with a particular recent focus on comparing dimensions and measuring similarities between the two concepts (e.g., Malinen & Savolainen, 2016).

We commence this chapter by briefly outlining current priorities evident in educational reforms in Australia and other Western nations before detailing the reform context of where the larger study that informed this chapter took place. Key concepts related to professional agency are then discussed before the constructs of self- and collective efficacy are introduced in relation to teacher professionalism and reform contexts. We are interested in taking these two constructs forward as we investigate how one teacher talks about herself as a teacher, her relationships with other teachers and leaders, and her work as a teacher within a school that was undertaking reform in English curriculum planning and literacy instruction. The data analyzed in this chapter was collected as part of a larger school reform study that aimed to consider teacher professional agency in a school reform process that foregrounded school-based curriculum development. This school was situated within a system focused on the provision of a pre-defined curriculum as a way of implementing curriculum reform. In the tradition of many school reform researchers before us, we aim to tell a counter story (e.g., Comber & Woods, 2017, 2018) as a way to resist deficit discourses that currently circulate about teachers and teacher quality. In order to do this, we draw on the example of one teacher. This data provides a departure from the data corpus in that this teacher demonstrates high levels of self-efficacy about both herself as an individual, and the teacher collective in which she works. In this chapter, we investigate dimensions of her talk and perspective to consider self- and collective teacher-efficacy and perception of professional agency (Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2017) to enact curriculum reform in the learning area of

English. This teacher's approach to teaching literacy, the curriculum, and her professional work is analyzed and discussed in relation to Bandura's (1997) sources of efficacy information, and Biesta and Tedder's (2007) temporal dimensions of professional agency. We argue that agentive teachers' self- and collective efficacy beliefs influence perceptions of professional agency in the context of school-based curriculum reform.

Educational Reforms

Schools in Australia and other Western contexts are currently in a cycle of what seems to be continual renewal and change. Current reforms in these contexts foreground discourses that focus on the challenges and affordances presented by globalization and are central to education for the future, creating a demand for new skills and knowledge thought necessary for national competitiveness and student success in a global economy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). As a result, common priorities in educational reforms in such Western contexts have appeared in curriculum development, representations of teacher quality, technology-assisted learning, literacy and numeracy standards, and student assessment (Sahlberg, 2011). In particular, curriculum development and reform have been highlighted as a significant tool for change in a "progressive" society. In countries such as Australia, England, and Scotland, recent large-scale reform efforts can be viewed as attempts to improve the quality and quantity of human capital and the development of skills and dispositions required for a knowledge economy. Despite this, there continues to be critique about the positioning of globalization and resultant neoliberal politics as central to the provision of a quality education (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010).

Educational reform strategies range from top-down approaches where schools merely implement centrally controlled, highly defined initiatives and systems, to bottom-up approaches that enable schools and teachers to be innovators in their own contexts (Fullan, 2016). Reform movements sit somewhere on a continuum between these two binary positions—often combining strategies of differing levels of definition and control without question or query. Teachers are told to encourage inquiry learning with their students on the one hand, while constrained by highly defined curriculum on the other. Systemic educational reform in the USA, UK, and Australia has recently adopted more top-down approaches to curriculum reform through standards-based policies, prescribed curricula, performance targets, and standardized assessments

(Nichols & Berliner, 2007; Sahlberg, 2011). These approaches are based on the assumption that by describing what teachers and students can do through prescribed innovations, and increasing competitiveness between schools, teachers, and students, it is possible to raise the quality of teaching and learning (Fullan, 2016; Sahlberg, 2011). And yet, teacher quality is difficult to achieve in a context where they are left unable to make professional decisions, and where reform compromises teachers' professional agency and professional identity. In these contexts, there is evidence to suggest that teachers' motivations, self- and collective efficacy, and job satisfaction are diminished (Comber & Nixon, 2009; Day, 2017).

In contrast, other contexts such as Finland and Scotland are reported to have adopted more balanced top-down, bottom-up approaches to curriculum reform. Consequently, national or state-level directives and frameworks are implemented together with support mechanisms to ensure that the local level capacity of schools and teachers to engage, learn, and respond to such change is valued (Pietarinen, Pyhalto, & Soini, 2017). Such approaches enable flexibility within curriculum development and delivery, allowing teachers to "facilitate aligned yet context-sensitive" implementation of the curriculum (Pietarinen et al., 2017, p. 24). By this way of thinking, it is vital to acknowledge the value of school-based curriculum development practices, which decentralize curriculum decision-making and empower schools to make major decisions about curriculum content, design, organization, and assessment of learning (Skilbeck, 2005).

In Australia, education is bound by a complicated set of responsibilities and funding arrangements. State governments are in fact responsible for governing and funding public education within their jurisdiction, while the Federal government funds non-government school systems nationally. Increasingly however, there has been a shift in the control of decision-making from State governments to the Federal government on issues related to curriculum across all systems. This has been evident through mechanisms that tie funding to adherence to a regime of testing,[1] and adoption of a relatively new national curriculum.[2] As such, curriculum and school reform in Australia illustrate unique features of the—often fraught—relationship between the Federal government and state-based educational authorities. This chapter draws on a larger study conducted in one Australian state-funded public school, and in the following section, we briefly outline the curriculum reform context of the state of Queensland, within the broader context of educational reform in Australia.

Current Reform Context of Queensland, Australia

Teachers in Australia have experienced the impacts of numerous debates, innovation, and change over the past 30 years in education. In more recent times, Australia's response to globalization and goals outlined in the *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* (MCEETYA, 2008) has included the development of the Australian Curriculum (Henderson & Zajda, 2015), the first Australian national curriculum to be developed and adopted by all states and territories. This large-scale curriculum reform aims to prepare "young people for a rapidly evolving world of new work, new cultures and new technology, in which they will need capacities and dispositions to cope with significant global change" (Lingard & McGregor, 2014, p. 106). Since 2013, the Australian Curriculum is being implemented nationally through a staggered roll-out of curriculum for eight key learning areas. After stalemates in discussions with the State authorities, the Federal government eventually agreed to an arrangement where approaches and resources to support the implementation of the Australian Curriculum are at the discretion of individual states and territories. The state of Queensland took the decision to embrace all learning areas of the Australian Curriculum as soon as they were made publicly available, rather than adopting a lengthier implementation timeline as was the case in some other states (Mills & McGregor, 2016).

To support such a rapid implementation, the Department of Education in Queensland developed top-down, system developed teaching and learning resources, referred to as *Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C),* for key learning areas of the new curriculum including Mathematics, English, History, and Science. These resources include whole school and year level planning documents based on the content of the Australian Curriculum (Education Queensland, 2013). These moves marked a stark shift in curriculum and syllabus design practices in Queensland, which until the introduction of *C2C* had included syllabus and curriculum documents that mapped out expectations, broad aims and objectives and indications of content, but provided a good deal of space for teacher decision-making about the curriculum in their classrooms. These documents could be defined as low definition in that they outlined, "expected coverage and standards without attempting to 'script' or 'control' pedagogy" and provided support for school-based curriculum design and planning (Luke, Weir, & Woods, 2008, p. 44). *C2C* now exists as

a top-down, system-developed resource that is not contextualized to school conditions, and the state education authority now states that it is dependent on the professional judgment of teachers to adapt or adopt such resources based on student needs and student context (Education Queensland, 2013; Luke, Woods, & Weir, 2013). Although *C2C* continues to be used in Queensland state schools, recent state-level initiatives such as the *School Improvement Hierarchy* (Department of Education and Training, 2016) developed by the Queensland Department of Education indicate a subtle movement away from the sole and prescriptive use of top-down, system developed resources. The *School Improvement Hierarchy* encourages schools to develop coherent and sequential plans based on the Australian Curriculum to ensure consistent teaching and learning across the state, mirroring values of past school-based curriculum development (Department of Education and Training, 2016). While the department is supportive of schools adapting curriculum to their local context, it is likely that the return to strong practices in local curriculum development will take some time after a five-year period where the high-definition curriculum has been used so widely.

Prior to the introduction of *Curriculum into the Classroom* the state of Queensland had a long history associated with school-based curriculum and assessment design. This included the trial and development of *New Basics* (Luke, 2000), an approach to curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment that emphasized the development of twenty-first-century knowledge and skills and in the senior schooling domain, the development of school-based tasks and assessment programs based on requirements of senior school syllabi (QCAA, 2018). With recent system moves to support locally designed curriculum, it appears that some state schools in the Queensland public education system are returning to the values behind school-based curriculum development, an approach that is highlighting the responsible freedom, accountability, efficacy, and responsiveness of all school community members in curriculum design, adaption, and delivery (Department of Education and Training, 2016; Skilbeck, 2005).

These values are also evident in more recent educational policies in countries like Finland, parts of Canada, and Scotland. In these systems, school-based curriculum development practices, supported by top-level systems and frameworks, are providing schools with greater opportunities to plan and implement curriculum that is contextually relevant and responsive to student needs (Priestley, Minty, & Eager, 2014). Building

on Schleicher (2008), Luke et al., (2013) argue that such curriculum reform efforts demonstrate a balance between informed prescription and informed professionalism, where centralized expectations and standards occur in a context where teacher capacity is valued. This then forms a key dimension in strengthening teacher professionalism, supporting higher levels of professional agency, motivation, and efficacy (Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson, 2015). The examples of past and re-emerging school-based curriculum development practices in Queensland affirm the importance of valuing teacher decision-making and professionalism that supports and promotes teacher efficacy. We will now briefly outline key concepts related to professional agency, drawing on ecological ways of understanding what it means to be agentive as a teacher (Biesta & Tedder, 2006), before exploring ideas about teachers' self and collective efficacy and the influence of such efficacy beliefs in reform contexts.

Professional Agency

Biesta and Tedder (2006) argue that professional agency is the capacity to "critically shape [teachers'] responses to problematic situations" (p. 11). Much of the debate about agency has focused on binary views between the capacity of individuals with the structural constraints of society—however as is the case in so many sociological debates, the either or positions of proponents of these binary understandings have proved less than useful when trying to bring professional agency as a lens to understand change and reform in education. To counter these problems, Biesta and Tedder (2007) propose an ecological model of agency, building on Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) notion of agency. Emirbayer and Mische (1998) viewed human agency as the engagement of actors in different structural environments, offering a temporal, three-dimensional conceptualization. Agency is seen to result from the iterational, influences from the past, the practical-evaluative, engagement with the present, and the projective predictions for the future (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998).

Biesta and Tedder (2007) offer a more ecological conceptualization, arguing that agency is something that is achieved not just possessed, where individual capacity together with available resourcing, structural and contextual factors work together. Moments of agency may fluctuate over time and are highly dependent on individuals in particular situations, within particular ecologies and time frames (Biesta & Tedder, 2007).

In this way, agency is achieved through the interplay of the temporal dimensions including the iterational, past day-to-day experiences, interactions and school culture; in the practical-evaluative where the teacher considers what is practical and feasible, in reference to contextual factors such as social, cultural, and material resources; and in the projective, in reference to their short-term and long-term aspirations and motivations (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Priestley et al., 2015).

What we are interested in this chapter to consider is how one teacher, who has well-developed ideas about her own agency in literacy reform, attributes her self- and collective efficacy as she discusses how she and colleagues work together to reform English curriculum planning and instructional practices at her school. We first map out how self- and collective efficacy has been theorized recently with a particular focus on its use in the reform literature.

Self- and Collective Efficacy

Teachers' self-perceptions and reactions to change have a significant role in the implementation and success of reform efforts (Donnell & Gettinger, 2015). In reform contexts, innovation and knowledge development are not only dependent on teachers' skills and capabilities, but also from professional efficacy beliefs, motivations, and the school context (Nielsen, Barry, & Staab, 2008; Pietarinen et al., 2017). Efficacy beliefs are embedded in social cognitive theory, where humans exercise intentional influence over one's actions through different forms of agency. In regards to personal agency, influence is attributed to what one is able to control directly, while collective agency refers to the collective pooling of knowledge, skills, resources, and actions to shape future outcomes (Bandura, 2012). It is important to note that efficacy beliefs are personal judgments on the capability of an individual or collective and are not necessarily accurate assessments of such capabilities (Goddard et al., 2004).

In reform contexts, it is important to understand the varied perceptions and reactions teachers have to change (Donnell & Gettinger, 2015). The behaviors of an individual or organization to change are strongly influenced by two distinct types of efficacy—these being self- and collective efficacy. Self-efficacy is central to the exercise of control and achievement of agency. Individuals are more likely to make decisions and take action if they have belief in their own capabilities to succeed

(Goddard & Goddard, 2001). These beliefs help motivate individuals to persevere through difficult situations as they work toward personal goals and assist an individual in attributing the causes of success and failure to what they experience (Bandura, 2012).

In a school context, teachers' self-efficacy can be conceptualized as being about, "individual teacher beliefs in their own ability to plan, organize and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals" (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010, p. 1059). Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy are task-specific and influenced by situational demands, meaning that teachers may not perceive levels of self-efficacy across all teaching areas or contexts in a uniform manner. These perceptions have an overall impact on the investment, time, and effort teachers place in innovating or altering their instructional practice, goals, and future aspirations (Goddard et al., 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

However, teachers not only have perceptions of their own efficacy but also perceptions on the collective capability of the group of teachers they work with. These group perceptions emerge as an organizational property referred to as collective efficacy (Goddard et al., 2004). Collective efficacy is a group-level attribute resulting from the interactions between different group members, associated tasks, levels of effort, shared thoughts, stress levels, and levels of achievement (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Teachers' collective efficacy involves the "perceptions of teachers in a school that the faculty as whole can organize and execute the course of actions required to have a positive effect on students" (Goddard & Goddard, 2001, p. 809). The beliefs of an individual teacher about their own capabilities can be enhanced or weakened by the perceptions of the collective capability of the group that form the normative and behavioral environment of the school (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). High levels of collective teacher efficacy often result in teachers in a school more readily accepting challenging goals, adopting strong organizational effort and persistence that leads to greater student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000).

Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy and collective efficacy are viewed as different but related constructs that regularly interact together (Goddard et al., 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). It is difficult to separate these constructs as both self- and collective efficacy are influenced by four key sources of information—mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and affective states

(Bandura, 1997; Malinen & Savolainen, 2016). Mastery experiences are a significant source of efficacy information. These experiences relate to perceptions of a performance or action as successful, resulting in a rise in efficacy beliefs and the expectation that future performance or action will be proficient (Goddard et al., 2004). Vicarious experiences refer to the observation of another person modeling a performance or action. The successful modeling of a performance or action tends to raise an observer's own beliefs and aspirations of their own capabilities (Bandura, 2012). Social persuasion occurs when one is persuaded to believe that they can successfully complete a performance or action through encouragement or specific task-related feedback. Affective states refer to one's level of arousal in a performance or action. These states are either positive, experienced as anticipation or excitement, or negative, experienced as anxiety or worry. Affective sources of information are considered crucial in the development of both self- and collective efficacy beliefs (Goddard et al., 2004; Tschannen-Moran & McCaster, 2009).

Although self-efficacy and collective efficacy are different, there exists a correlation between both constructs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). A school culture characterized by high levels of collective efficacy is more likely to exert a stronger influence on individual teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy. A strong sense of collective efficacy enhances self-efficacy while weaker collective beliefs of efficacy undermine teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). Schools with high levels of self- and collective efficacy often demonstrate high levels of effective teaching and learning that lead to successful educational outcomes (Chong & Ong, 2016). Although perceived collective efficacy in a school has an effect on individual perceptions of self-efficacy, this does not mean that membership in a team defined by high levels of collective efficacy automatically results in increased self-efficacy for all the teachers in the team (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). We are interested in the implications of self- and collective efficacy in a school-based curriculum reform context focused on improving teaching and learning in English and literacy.

Self- and Collective Efficacy in Literacy Reform

Teachers' commitment to and acceptance of reform efforts in a school can be attributed to efficacy beliefs (Donnell & Gettinger, 2015). The influence of teachers' self- and collective efficacy beliefs in contexts

of literacy reform has been explored in a study of five US elementary schools. In literacy reform focusing on improving reading instruction, Nielsen et al. (2008) found that forces such as teachers' efficacy beliefs, professional knowledge, and school context affected professional change. The authors also found that collaboration and ongoing professional development structures enabled teachers to gain more information and confidence in improving their instructional practices. Such confidence led to the development of greater self-efficacy beliefs and a shift in focus from themselves as the learner of new literacy practices to their expectations for student learning. This team approach to professional development was found to support teachers' sense of collective efficacy (Nielsen et al., 2008). The intensity, duration, and collaborative nature of professional development provide greater opportunities for teachers to experience collective mastery experiences and vicariously experience one another's successes (Chambers Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). Self-efficacy and collective efficacy beliefs can be enhanced through authentic mastery experiences that occur in the teachers' own context. Such experiences, together with coaching, verbal persuasion, and high-quality feedback, can lead to strong efficacy beliefs and the adoption of new instructional practices (Kaniuka, 2012; Tschannen-Moran & McCaster, 2009).

So we argue that self- and collective efficacy contribute to teachers' overall acceptance and commitment to school reform initiatives. However, if teachers are increasingly being required to accept reform and position themselves as agents of change within their own schools, there is a further need to understand teachers' efficacy in more varied reform contexts. There is limited literature taking an Australian perspective on teachers' self- and collective efficacy as reform agents in contexts where top-down, bottom-up approaches (described below) to literacy reform are in play. Additionally, there is a need to better understand how teachers draw on their self- and collective efficacy beliefs in their perceptions of professional agency. The data analyzed in this chapter provide a unique opportunity to consider the ideas of efficacy and professional agency together in the context of a literacy reform.

In recognition of the gap in our understandings of teacher self- and collective efficacy in school-based curriculum reform in the learning area of English, we draw on data collected as part of a larger school reform study focusing on teachers' professional agency in a top-down, bottom-up reform context. In this school, teachers were supported as

reform agents in the up-take of school-based curriculum development practices. In this chapter, we take the concepts of self- and collective efficacy described previously, to investigate how one teacher talked about "being" a teacher and her relationships with other teachers and school leaders. We consider how this teacher draws on both representations of efficacy when discussing her capacity as a teacher and professional agency when implementing literacy reform .

Teachers' Professional Agency in a Context of Top-Down, Bottom-Up Approach to Literacy Reform

Professional agency can be described as the notion that professionals, such as teachers, "have the power to act, to affect matters, to make decisions and choices and take stances" (Vahasantanen, 2015, p. 2). In the larger study, one author was positioned as teacher-researcher, working and researching in his school. The study was designed as a single case study to examine Australian primary (elementary) school teachers' perceptions of their own professional agency in a context of a top-down, bottom-up approach to implementing reform in English curriculum planning and enactment. As part of the analysis of teacher professional agency, it became evident that concepts of teachers' self- and collective efficacy were also featured in the talk of teachers—especially one teacher who seemed to have a very well developed understanding of her own agency. As such, we have taken these concepts back to data collected from this teacher as a way to understand the teacher's approach more fully, and to consider the implications of these ways of being for success in school-based literacy reform.

The school is a large metropolitan primary school in Queensland, Australia, serving a community described as high socioeconomic according to a variety of measures.[3] The school is located in a mainly residential suburb and surrounded by a combination of low and medium-density housing. At the time of the larger study, the school had over 1000 students enrolled and a large teaching staff of 43 classroom teachers. A majority of the student population identified as having a language background other than standard Australian English and cultural diversity was a feature of the school population. A large proportion of the families in the school were working professionals, with very high levels of education, and were actively involved in community aspects of the school,

including music and sporting endeavors. This combination of high socioeconomic status and high cultural diversity is somewhat unusual for the Australian context, where high socioeconomic status often signifies monocultural communities.

At the time of the larger study, teachers at the school were being asked to engage in a reform that focused on systematic curriculum delivery of the Australian Curriculum in English. A school audit prompted a review of school curriculum and assessment processes guided by the Queensland Department of Education's *School Improvement Hierarchy* (Department of Education and Training, 2016). This top-down, system-level hierarchy is a framework for scaling, sustaining, and sharing school improvement initiatives across Queensland state schools.

The school leadership and teaching community embarked on a bottom-up response to such top-down influences, positioning the teachers as reform agents in embedding school-based curriculum development practices in the learning area of English. As a result, in their English planning and teaching, the teachers and leaders decided to move away from the use of *C2C*—the top-down, system developed curriculum resources (Education Queensland, 2013). The *C2C* resources include units of work, teaching and student materials, and formative and summative assessment tasks across all eight key learning areas outlined in the Australian Curriculum (Education Queensland, 2013). Instead of taking these units forward as a given (which had been the approach prior to the latest curriculum reform at the school), teaching teams at the school worked collaboratively to design and implement English units based on the achievement standards and content from the Australian Curriculum. However as mandated by the State, the new approach incorporated the formative and summative assessment tasks provided as part of the English *C2C* resources. These initiatives acknowledged school autonomy and teachers' responsiveness to local needs.

The larger study focused on capturing six participating teachers' perceptions of their professional agency from an English collaborative planning session in 2017 and subsequent teaching of the planned unit of work in the same year. Data for the case study were collected utilizing two research cycles. The first research cycle focused on capturing teachers' perceptions of their agency after engaging in a planning session, while the second cycle focused on teachers' perceptions of agency after teaching the English unit of work in classrooms. Each cycle consisted of an interview and analysis or review of school curriculum documents.

Written curriculum documents such as the whole school curriculum and assessment overview and individual English unit plans for the final term of the school year, 10 weeks in total, enriched the case study context and offered opportunities to learn more about the values, cultures, and attitudes of the school being investigated (Simons, 2009).

A hybrid approach to thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012) was used to draw findings from the larger data set, drawing on the inductive and data-centered approach of Boyatzis (1998) and the deductive code development and codebook construction of Crabtree and Miller (1992). This approach is highly interpretative and useful in capturing complex meanings found in texts such as interview transcripts and written documents (Guest et al., 2012). A number of sequential and recursive analytical strategies were used, including text segmentation, initial coding and codebook construction, searching, reviewing and defining themes, and verifying links and associations (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest et al., 2012).

Although this larger study explored teachers' perceptions of professional agency, it also raised questions about teachers' self- and collective efficacy in regards to agency. In particular, we noted how self- and collective efficacy beliefs influence teachers' perceptions of their own professional agency and wondered about their role as agents of change in this English reform context. In this chapter, our focus is on one teacher from this larger data set. Emily has been selected as her data was discussed in the larger analysis as a crux in our thinking; her responses seem to provide a departure from findings evident in other areas of the data corpus. We draw on data collected from Emily during two interviews to assist us in learning more about teachers' self- and collective efficacy. The data reported below was collected during an interview after a shared planning session to plan for the year level English unit for the upcoming school term, and another interview conducted after Emily had taught the unit.

Emily's Discussions About Teaching, Curriculum, and Being a Professional

At the time that these interviews took place, Emily had over 14 years teaching experience in a variety of full-time and part-time classroom roles. She first began teaching in the early years of schooling and had

worked across most primary (elementary) school year levels as a classroom teacher. Emily described her teaching approach as student-centered, combining explicit instruction together with small group work to support student learning. She discussed how she valued strong working relationships with her teaching team, sharing teaching ideas and student resources. Emily commented regularly throughout the interviews that "her team" (referring to those teachers who worked on the same year level) had an open-door policy, and although each teacher in her team had different approaches to teaching and learning, they had a collaborative work environment.

Emily had previously experienced curriculum and pedagogical reforms through the *New Basics* trial in Queensland (Luke, 2000) and the introduction of the *C2C* resources (Education Queensland, 2013). While she had been on the receiving end of top-down curriculum reforms, she had not before experienced the level of bottom-up, school-based reform that was occurring in the school. Emily discussed herself as a reform agent and considered herself to have high levels of professional agency when planning and teaching. Emily commented in the following interview extract after the planning session:

Researcher: …so how would you describe your level of agency?
Emily: Yeah, I think I have a lot of input and ability to make decisions in regards to what happens to my kids in my classroom.

Emily's perceptions of agency were found to reveal how important her beliefs about her capacity to be a good teacher were. However, it also became evident that she placed relationships with other teachers, and her capacity to work well with her colleagues as being crucial in her representation of herself as a reform agent. During the post-planning session, Emily commented on the collaboration and trust evident in her team:

Researcher: How would you want to see your team operate?
Emily: Well we have pretty much an open-door policy now in terms of coming in and looking at what each other are doing, and sharing student work, and helping; you know, 'Can you re-mark this for me?' Or um, so it is quite collaborative in that way.
Researcher: So you said we now have, when did that change?

Emily: I do think it's been; it's certainly stepped up, it's really stepped up this year. Yeah, I think that whole… And it usually takes one or two people to just say, 'Yeah book it in and come in, book a time.'

As such, Emily became an interesting case to help us consider self-efficacy and collective efficacy and how one teacher who consistently represented herself as agentive, might draw on both representations when discussing her capacity and agency as a teacher.

To explore the self- and collective efficacy beliefs that Emily drew upon when discussing her professional agency, we refer to Bandura's (1997) notion of four sources of efficacy information, including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and affective states. Further, we position Emily's self- and collective efficacy beliefs as existing within the iterational, practical-evaluative, and projective dimensions of her professional agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). In doing so, we strengthen a temporal conceptualization of professional agency as the interplay of individual capacity together with available resourcing, structural and contextual factors (Biesta & Tedder, 2007; Priestley et al., 2015). Emily's confidence as a reform agent, and self- and collective efficacy can be viewed as contributing factors to successful school reform alongside individual capacity and structural and contextual features at the school.

Emily discusses her self-efficacy by drawing on notions of her own professional history which aligns to the iterational dimension of professional agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007) with ideas about cultural factors, values, and beliefs which align with practical-evaluative dimension of professional agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007), and reflecting on her own mastery as a curriculum worker. Goddard et al. (2004) point out that mastery experiences are reported by individuals with high levels of self-efficacy through narratives of successful performance and actions. This in turn results in beliefs about future performance and expected high levels of proficiency. Note how in the extract below, Emily discusses her English planning as a "very simple process" once you have curriculum knowledge about the content, and where you need to take students. She mixes expertise in the curriculum and the capacity to assess and adapt to the individual and group needs of her students, framing this as being part of her strength as a teacher. Emily reflects on this during an interview after the unit of work had been taught:

> If you understand lessons and how they're planned and units of work you can pull. You know, it's a very simple process, once you've got the curriculum knowledge of your year level. Like certainly sitting in it for a while is important and I'm on year four going in, so I'm in a position where I know the content. So I can look at a lesson and know the objective and know where I'm trying to get them to and can think about things in a different way.

Emily understands that her professional history has impacted upon her current status as a teacher and the important curriculum knowledge that she currently has. She presents herself and her past actions as central to her competency and self-efficacy beliefs. Emily's professional history, including past mastery experiences, exists as, "the sorts of experiences that might contribute to the development of the sorts of qualities and capacities required" for teachers to be agentic (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 32). This is exemplified in the extract below (after the planning session) as she suggests that it is not just her time on her year level but rather some of the work she has done over the years to "pull" the English curriculum apart that now makes the intent of the curriculum so evident to her as a teacher.

> I think that I definitely understand the curriculum intent more you know, but I've been on the same year level now for four years and I think that's come about more from that experience and the work that's been done pulling it apart as part of the planning.

Emily's strong self-efficacy beliefs seemed to be influenced by her professional history and past mastery experiences—all aspects associated with the iterational dimension of her professional agency. She drew on these past experiences and personal and professional values to perceive high levels of professional agency to confidently plan and teach her English unit of work.

Emily is also clear that she should constantly reflect on her own ideas and beliefs that exist from her own mastery experiences (Bandura, 1997) in the past. In an interview after the planning session, she discusses this as a part of her strength as a teacher—her strong mastery of the English curriculum and ability to adapt enables constant reflection on and improvement of her teaching practice.

> I don't know, I don't trust easily [laugh] even myself. I'm not willing to say the way I did it last year is the way it should be done this year because I'm getting new kids. Everything can be done better and life's boring if you do it the same way every time. So I think it's a having a culture of reflecting and improving.

Emily's self-efficacy draws from mastery of the English curriculum and belief in her own abilities which seem to have shaped her ideas, values, and beliefs of what it means to be an exemplary teacher. These current ideas, values, and beliefs exist as cultural factors at work within the practical-evaluative dimension of her professional agency as a teacher and she continues to evaluate the issues at hand and the possibilities of instruction and action in her English lessons (Biesta & Tedder, 2006; Priestley et al., 2015).

This is also the case when Emily discusses vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1997) such as observing or being mentored by another teaching colleague. Such vicarious experiences continue to exist as a source of information interacting with the ideas, values, and beliefs that exist in the practical-evaluative dimension of her agency. While observation of others and opportunities for collaborative planning were features of the school-based reform practices at this school, she perceives her own skills as central to her practice. The following is a discussion with Emily after the planning session:

> *Emily*: I mean I'm fairly comfortable as a teacher, this is my comfort zone. Put me in front of a staffroom in front of people and it's a different story. But I'm really comfortable with people coming in and out of my classroom in terms of either working with kids alongside me or watching me. That doesn't really, that doesn't really bother me. What was your question before that?
>
> *Researcher*: It was looking at when you were at your planning sessions… drawing upon other experiences you may have had…
>
> *Emily*: Yes, I think I am…probably one of the things I reflect upon after planning is that I am really willing to speak up.
>
> *Researcher*: What do you normally speak up about?
>
> *Emily*: Well, I have you know, 'No don't take that out,' 'Yes, I like that,' or you know um, I don't want things to be too rash and I guess I am bit of a control freak in some ways.
>
> *Researcher*: Do you feel like you've got that space so that you can do that?
>
> *Emily*: Absolutely.

After the unit had been taught, and when asked to reflect on whether she had made changes to her own teaching of the unit collaboratively planned with her colleagues, again she squarely places her own competence as a teacher as a central issue.

> *Researcher*: So when you think about how you have made changes to the way the unit is taught in your class, what do you think the main reasons are?
>
> *Emily*: I make them for myself. I make them for the kids. I look for ways that I can make it interesting to teach because if it's interesting for me to teach and deliver, I know that the kids are going to be more engaged. I did talk yeah…that's it engagement really.
>
> *Researcher*: So when you said, 'For myself that's making it interesting,' Why do you think it's important for that to happen?
>
> *Emily*: Well, I love to teach when I can have some creativity. And you know, I think that's been a real misconception of the C2C, is that it limits that; well, only if you allow it to.

Here, Emily draws on her own affective state (Bandura, 1997) as a source of information to explain how she promotes a constructive and engaging teaching–learning relationship. She aspires to teach her English lessons in a way that is of interest to her so that student engagement is maximized. Such aspiration and motivation in her teaching exist within the projective dimension of her agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007), where she continues to engage in imaginative reconstruction of possible future actions, goals, and appropriate courses of action for her classroom (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998).

However, even when discussing the collective efficacy of her colleagues, which she does foreground throughout her discussion, her own capacity is always a prime feature of her explanation of how things work. Below after the planning session, Emily discusses the strength in her team's differences, and how they are serious about their jobs but able to get along and have fun. She then proceeds to talk about the esteem that she perceives school leaders (the Head of Curriculum [HOC] and Deputy Principal) hold for her and in how she is perceived by them:

> We've got a very, we've had a really good team. Where we're all really different, really different, and I think we all publicly recognize that in each other. We're all very, we take our jobs seriously, but we can joke with each other and we are all very honest with each other. I'm really comfortable

with our HOC. I'm really comfortable with the Deputy. I feel like I am, I've got some professional credibility that they value me. So it's easier to speak up if you know that they know that you're not just a whiner or you're giving feedback that is actually going to be taken on board or noted like recognized as feedback not as a whining, that's really important.

She uses examples from both vicarious and social persuasion experiences when describing the collective efficacy of her team. In these experiences, Emily draws on structural factors within the practical-evaluative dimension of her agency including strong social relationships, the establishment of clear roles in the team, and the presence of trust among her colleagues. Collective efficacy beliefs can be influenced by such relationships that result from positive instances of collaboration between teachers and school leaders (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Emily enjoys positive relationships with her Head of Curriculum and Deputy Principal and such relationships foster credibility and mutual respect within the team. Such respect within the team enables each teacher the discretion to make individual decisions about teaching practices that best suit his/her particular class. Emily alludes to this in the extract below after teaching the unit.

Researcher: So those types of activities that you've spoken about, are they your choices, decisions or are they based in that C2C unit?

Emily: No, they're things that I bring in because I see oh these kids really don't know how to use that. Whereas or they don't know how to use so let's just bring in more. So I do that in warm up type work.

Researcher: So in the actual unit, are there opportunities to do things like that?

Emily: Yeah, well we're under the instruction that the shared assessment is the lockdown bit. Your professional judgment in how you get them there, that's you. If you want to follow the sequence of lessons lockstep, that's perfectly fine. But if you see a need in your students that's not being addressed, or that you want to address in a different way, then absolutely go for it, and that's how we talk about it. I mean we've got our [planning document] set up with all the C2C lessons in it. Sure, and that's helpful because it's helpful...because it gives you the choice to use it or not to use it and it's, do you know what I mean?

Emily continues to represent herself as agentive when discussing both her self-efficacy and the collective efficacy of her team. In the extract below, after teaching the unit, note this centralization of Emily, through

the repetitive use of "I" when asked to explain her feeling able to make professional decisions along the way:

> *Researcher*: So at any point did you feel that you couldn't make your own decision about a learning activity?
> *Emily*: No.
> *Researcher*: Why do you think that is then?
> *Emily*: I feel that…I feel that the [Deputy Principal] and [Head of Curriculum] they support and encourage me in the decisions that I make and I do…I think they know that I value results and that I know where my kids are at. I think I've got professional respect so I think they know that if I make a change then, and they're interested in the why. I think that I have freedom to make decisions around the unit.

Although Emily places emphasis on her own feelings in the extract above, she does make continued reference to the respect, support, and strong relationships she experienced within her teaching team and with some members of the school leadership team as well. She reciprocates this trust, referring to the importance of adhering to what has been collaboratively agreed upon by the team in relation to a literacy assessment task:

> I think that I have freedom to make decisions around the unit as long as I'm not veering from what's agreed upon for the year level as a shared assessment task. Like I would never make changes that were for example around the modeled response and giving kids access to the modeled response in the [unit on] Storm Boy….

Such factors exist as social structures in the practical-evaluative dimension of not only her professional agency but perhaps the agency of the teaching colleagues around her as well. These structures, formed through collaborative planning sessions, sharing, and feedback, exist as sources of information that contribute to the collective efficacy beliefs of Emily and her team.

Conclusions

We conclude that Emily's case provides an ideal opportunity to explore the constructs of self- and collective efficacy together with temporal dimensions of professional agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). In doing so, we strengthen our understanding of how some teachers draw on their

self- and collective efficacy beliefs when describing their professional agency in a reform context. We argue that Emily's self- and collective efficacy beliefs were contributing factors in her strong perception as a reform agent when implementing changes in her English curriculum planning, teaching, and assessment. Such innovation required in reform contexts can be largely dependent on teachers' knowledge, alongside their efficacy beliefs and motivations to adopt and process new ideas (Pyhalto, Pietarinen, & Soini, 2012).

Self-efficacy beliefs are vital then in the achievement of agency, as individuals and collectives are more likely to pursue ideas and remain resilient in the face of challenges when they believe they have the capacity and ability to succeed (Goddard & Goddard, 2001). Emily's perceptions as being agentive drew on self-efficacy beliefs in all three temporal dimensions of her professional agency (Biesta & Tedder, 2007). First, in the iterational dimension of her agency, mastery experiences that developed Emily's strong English curriculum knowledge of her year level and classroom instructional practices strengthened her self-efficacy beliefs as being an agentive teacher. Mastery experiences have the ability to enhance a teacher's capacity to be effective decision-makers and often shapes their thoughts on what is possible or viable in a change context (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013; Kaniuka, 2012). These mastery experiences were important aspects of Emily's efficacy beliefs in engaging successfully as a reform agent in the English curriculum planning sessions with her colleagues and English instruction in her own classroom.

Second, in the practical-evaluative dimension of her agency, Emily's past mastery experiences shaped her current ideas, values, and beliefs of what it meant to be agentic in her present situation. Vicarious experiences like classroom observations and collaboration with peers also raised the self-efficacy beliefs and aspirations Emily had in her own capabilities as a teacher (Bandura, 2012). Mastery experiences and the embedding of such vicarious experiences in the context of a classroom have a powerful influence on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Last, in the projective dimension of her agency, Emily drew on her affective state to support her self-efficacy beliefs. Emily revealed aspirations that her own engagement, alongside the engagement of her students, was central to her agency in choosing instructional practices in her English lessons. Short-term and long-term aspirations for work can be viewed as significant factors in maintaining strong self-efficacy beliefs.

We have drawn on the argument that collective efficacy is important in building a culture of resilience and persistence for teachers to exercise professional agency so that innovative teaching and student learning can be fostered (Goddard et al., 2004). Emily's teacher agency was influenced by the collective efficacy beliefs she and her colleagues held. She drew on vicarious and social persuasion experiences in the practical-evaluative dimension of her agency to outline factors in her everyday school life that enabled such strong collective efficacy beliefs to form. These included structural factors like positive social relationships between team members, the establishment of clear roles and expectations and trust among her colleagues. Reciprocal relationships held with members in the school leadership team provided Emily and perhaps her colleagues, the support required to implement change. This experience supports Goddard, Goddard, Kim, and Millar's (2015) argument that "shared interactions among group members serve as the building blocks of collective efficacy" (p. 504).

In order to support such positive relationships and foster reforms in literacy instruction, it is important that teachers like Emily and her colleagues are provided with the time for collaborative planning, sharing, and feedback. It is through such collaborative activities that relationships can be strengthened and teachers gain information and skills required to take risks in such instructional reform (Nielsen et al., 2008). The case of Emily has broadened an ecological conceptualization of agency, revealing that teachers' self- and collective efficacy beliefs can be based on sources of information within the temporal dimensions of professional agency. In literacy reform, such sources of efficacy information then can be considered as part of the interplay of individual capacity, resourcing and structural and contextual factors that contribute to teachers' professional agency. If teachers are to be agentic in similar reform contexts, schools should carefully consider the importance of mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and affective states (Bandura, 1997) in shaping teachers' self- and collective efficacy beliefs. These beliefs are influential constructs on teachers' perceptions of their own professional agency and ability to successfully engage in school-based curriculum development practices.

Notes

1. All Australian children now sit national tests in years 3, 5, 7, and 9. Known as National Assessment Program in Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) these tests are sat in May of each year.
2. The first national curriculum in Australia was agreed to in 2008, leading to the design of English, Mathematics, Science, and History F-10. The curriculum continues to be developed over time.
3. One such measure of Australian schools includes the Index of Community Socio-educational Advantage (ICSEA) value. ICSEA is a numeric scale or level of a school's educational advantage based on student and school factors (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2015).

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CHAPTER 13

Concluding Thoughts

Tiffany L. Gallagher and Katia Ciampa

This volume, *Teaching Literacy in the Twenty-First Century Classroom: Teacher Knowledge, Self-Efficacy, and Minding the Gap*, offers a contemporary compilation on the overlooked domain of self-efficacy of English language arts and literacy teachers. By bringing together the most recent work of researchers in both teacher candidate and in-service education, we have begun to map the trajectory of knowledge and self-efficacy from its formative stages to professional practice and on the teacher collective as a whole. This is important to shed light on the potential influences that temporal, experiential, and professional learning/development factors might have on self-efficacy. Herein, there are chapters that now inform what we know of literacy teacher self-efficacy in so far as we are able to measure it. There are also chapters that elaborate on topics such as: how teacher educators and facilitators might augment their practices to enhance self-efficacy in their teacher candidates and in-service

T. L. Gallagher (✉)
Educational Studies, Brock University, St. Catharines, ON, Canada
e-mail: tgallagher@brocku.ca

K. Ciampa
Literacy Education, Widener University, Chester, PA, USA
e-mail: kciampa@widener.edu

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teachers; how individual literacy teacher's self-efficacy evolves during in-service, and the significant impact of teachers' collective efficacy on students' literacy achievement.

The first part, *Knowledge and Measuring of Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, is about what teacher education programs need to reconsider in the content and methods they employ to begin to mold the self-efficacy of teacher candidates. Part I is an important foundation to lay with respect to the work of teacher educators who strive to provide teacher candidates with the daunting background to teach English language arts. This first part includes chapters that examine what is included in literacy methods courses including pedagogical and content knowledge, and questions how we measure teacher candidates' self-efficacy as a function of their preparation. It is a noteworthy task to prepare teacher candidates with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to teach English language arts and literacy. Research on core concepts related to literacy pedagogies is plentiful but lacks cohesion in terms of delineating what are the essential concepts for teacher candidates to learn and apply in practice. For example, the often referenced National Reading Panel (2000) components of effective reading instruction (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension) falls short on honoring student diversity and multimodal literacies. Teacher candidates are experiencing such realities in their practicum work and must be prepared for these challenges. Minicozzi and Dardzinski, in Chapter 2, remind us that teacher candidates need to be involved in a lively theory-to-practice synergy to engage with content and effectively apply it in extended long-term placements—these are the underpinnings of developing teacher candidates' nascent self-efficacy. Minicozzi and Dardzinski cite Bandura (1977) and the contention that mastery experiences (i.e., authentic teaching) when compared to vicarious experiences, verbal communication, and physiological/emotional state contribute most significantly to self-efficacy. Mastery experiences include assuming the duties of a "real" English language arts teacher and providing literacy instruction through modeled, shared, guided, and independent practice. Knowing this can be helpful for teacher educators to create a profile of the conditions necessary to support the self-efficacy of teacher candidates.

The basic constructs that need to be acquired as foundational to teaching language and literacy is a matter of concern and discussion among literacy teacher educators in several countries. Chapter authors, Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi studied teacher candidates from four

countries and found that there was a lack of knowledge of certain basic language constructs needed to teach early reading skills. Based on the notion that during teacher education, there is the occasion to support the pedagogical and content knowledge learning of teacher candidates of language and literacy (including respective national policy documents/curricula), this is an imperative need to address. In Chapter 3, Binks-Cantrell, Washburn, and Joshi propose a tool to measure this knowledge. Readers might consider the utility and potential applications of this proposed tool: (1) pre- vs. post-teacher education as a baseline for the teacher candidate growth or efficacy of the teacher education program; (2) qualifications for licensure; (3) baseline of a beginning teacher's requisite knowledge prior to early in-service practice; (4) evaluation of in-service teachers' practice; (5) identification of a teacher who needs to attend professional learning.

To some extent, teacher educators need to explicitly address how to accurately define and assess their teacher candidates' self-efficacy. In Chapter 4, Washburn and Mulcahy share a tool to query the synergy among pedagogical content knowledge, perceived ability, and self-efficacy beliefs about teaching reading. Why? Teacher candidates tend to express a certain degree of confidence in their ability and influence to teach reading-related concepts. This especially is the case with elementary teachers who are confident in their abilities to teach early literacy skills and differentiate for struggling readers. Indeed, it is important to consider language and literacy content that is reflective of the reality of teaching in today's classrooms with a myriad of learning needs and technologies as well as the social, emotional, and cultural diversity.

The question burns on: What are the essential and relevant aspects of twenty-first-century literacy for teacher candidates to learn and should these be deemed as required prior to beginning practice? Seminal national policies and documents such as the aforementioned National Reading Panel (2000) and Rose Review (2006) are now up to two decades old and this begs the question of their relevance in the twenty-first century of literacy education. Thus, there is an obvious need to measure teacher self-efficacy as it relates to contemporary twenty-first-century literacies, given that these constructs are not addressed in many stale-dated instruments. This includes aspects of teachers' beliefs for language instruction such as reading, writing, viewing, listening, communicating using visual, audible and digital materials, comprehension strategies, motivation, differentiated instruction, diversity and culturally responsive

teaching. In Chapter 5, Ciampa and Gallagher employ a new instrument for literacy teacher educators and professional learning leaders to gauge teacher candidate and in-service teachers' self-efficacy for literacy instruction in today's twenty-first century classrooms. Taken together, the four chapters in this first part of the book offer tools for teacher educators and facilitators to consider as they ponder what is important in their context, program, and jurisdiction to impart to their teacher candidate and in-service teachers.

The second part, *Practices to Build Literacy Teachers' Self-Efficacy*, is about reimagining teacher education work in ways that teacher candidates are set up for success to build their self-efficacy and in ways that in-service teachers are honored for the experiences that galvanize their self-efficacy. Part II is an important, contemporary portion of this text as it offers examples for both teacher educators and teaching professionals to model and emulate as they strive to enact multimodal pedagogies. As DiCesare and Rowsell suggest in Chapter 6, this might begin with the premise that our programs in teacher education need to recognize the need for teacher candidates to be immersed in multimodal learning environments, and most importantly, for multimodal pedagogies to be modeled for them as best practices. This mirrors the reality of how K-12 students (that they are being trained to work with) are engaged in twenty-first-century multimodal literacies beyond their school walls. Teacher educators need to model interactive and flexible ways of learning in online and offline environments that engender communication and collaboration among teacher candidates and their students. This is a departure from traditional methods in literacy teacher education and might be a leap for many teacher educators to make. For teacher educators, this involves taking risks, being open to change and embracing ambiguity—exactly what we ask teacher candidates and in-service teachers to do. By modeling practices that are consistent with multimodal pedagogies using digital media, there is a complement with the contemporary literacy engagement practices of young learners and this affirms a self-efficacious connection with K-12 students and both their teacher candidates and in-service teachers.

As noted, such engagement with twenty-first-century literacy practices might be uncomfortable for some teacher educators (including professional learning facilitators) or teacher candidates/in-service teachers. However, this is an example of the process of continued professional growth as an educator. Indeed, teacher educators have the opportunity

to lay the premise that to be a teacher is to be a lifelong learner in the profession. To accomplish this, teachers need both the skills of reflection and how to craft narratives of their experiences as a part of their life's work and professional journey. In Chapter 7, Bartow Jacobs describes how observations, co-created opportunities, and personal reflections can be crafted into narratives or texts that describe salient events in teachers' practice and offer an invitation for peer discussion. These narratives articulate teachers' beliefs and contribute to a sense of identity and self-efficacy. This entails preparing teachers (at all stages in their practice) with the skills of reflection and utility of narratives to question their beliefs about literacy instruction. When working with in-service teachers who possess self-efficacy beliefs about teaching literacy, facilitators need to see themselves as contributors to the transformation of teachers' beliefs and practices. In Chapter 8, Mora, Cañas, Rodriguesz, and Salazar contend that there is a need for an extended reflexivity toward transformative teacher education practices. Teacher educators often come to this role as former K-12 school teachers and need to negotiate and transform their own identities and self-efficacy. This insider-outsider reflexivity offers considerations for teacher education and in-service English education programs that strive for an emphasis on literacies theory and practice in their curricula.

The third part, *In-Service Literacy Teachers' and Collective Efficacy*, encourages readers to ruminate about the interplay among teacher candidates' self-efficacy as they transition into beginning practice, and in-service teachers' self-efficacy in relation to the collective efficacy. In Chapter 9, Clark reviews a few conditions related to teacher candidates' self-efficacy: the more practical experience they have in teacher education, the greater the positive influence on self-efficacy; the higher the self-efficacy at graduation, the greater the decline in beginning practice; the decline in self-efficacy is not immediate, occurring instead as a decay after one year post-teacher education. Do teacher educators set up teacher candidates with unrealistic expectations? This chapter author purports that the transition from teacher education to in-service leaves questions about what is strong or high self-efficacy relative to years of practice. Readers are encouraged to ponder about whom has the responsibility to enhance self-efficacy in novice teachers: teacher educators, mentor teachers, school districts, professional learning providers, and/or the novice teachers themselves?

Understanding teachers' self-efficacy to teach English language arts and literacy requires an understanding of its relation to learners' self-efficacy and the efficacy residing in the context of the learning place. In Chapter 10, Fisher states that the self-efficacious teacher is confident to create a classroom that is motivating and collaborative where students feel respected and engaged in valuable tasks. This is also the classroom that students perceive as safe to take learning risks in as there is abundant communication and support. English language arts instruction lends itself naturally to a classroom culture that has opportunities to communicate, show care, connect, and collaborate in a community. Much work needs to be done to affirm students and their own positive, internalized self-attributions. Respect for readers as self-determined learners can implicitly suggest that what they are doing is valued and worthy. This sends the message to students that they are engaging in tasks that will in turn enhance their self-efficacy. Moreover, the school community or collective needs to hold confidence in the learning of all its students. The latter, as cited by Hattie (2009), holds great promise and power to impact the learning, achievement, and self-efficacy of students.

The role of teachers' collective efficacy on students' achievement calls to consideration how facilitators and leaders can foster it. In Chapter 11, Park, Fisher, and Frey state that it is not surprising that productive professional learning communities (PLC's) have high collective efficacy. The formation and work of productive PLC's requires much procedural knowledge, dedication, and facilitation. This might focus on analyzing student data in a way that directs future instructional decisions among a teaching staff that trusts and respects each other as professionals. School leaders need to offer support for the dedicated time to meet and debrief as teachers and explicitly acknowledge how changes in practices, attainment of goals, student growth metrics are important and should not be underestimated as this contributes to collective efficacy. This is not to say that once a teacher or school possesses efficacy, that it is static. In Chapter 12, Poulton, Tambyah, and Woods provide an example of how a teacher's self-efficacy and that of the collective is dynamic and circumstances can be challenged as such in curriculum reform. Curricular reform is akin to a high stakes assessment situation that tests a teacher's self-efficacy (i.e., How did students in my class perform?) and teachers' collective efficacy (i.e., How did our school perform on the test?). Top-down curriculum reform with prescribed standards and achievement levels leaves little self-determination for teachers as professionals and

their self-efficacy and that of their collective often declines. Conversely, bottom-up, localized curriculum decision making promotes a sense of professional agency and self-efficacy in educators thrives—this is what Poulton, Tambyah, and Woods describe in a case study. The perception of collective efficacy can positively or negatively influence individual teacher self-efficacy. The role of a supportive, positive school leader is clear to build collective efficacy. Self-efficacious teachers recognize the utility of their past professional experience and mastery experiences to fuel current reflection on practice.

The editors' original call was one to international scholars studying teacher candidates' and in-service teachers' self-efficacy and beliefs related to twenty-first-century literacy instruction and diversity. Chapters in this book have brought to the fore the contemporary reality of teaching literacy in contexts where learners have varied backgrounds, experiences, strengths, and challenges. For example, in Chapter 2, there is a discussion on the considerations to prepare teacher candidates to teach literacy in diverse classrooms beginning with sensitivity to factors such as socio-culture, race, disadvantage, and disability. This chapter highlights the focus in one teacher education program that includes extended field placements in low socioeconomic schools and how teacher candidates are accounting for learning differences. According to the local district administrators, this program has well-prepared teacher candidates for the complex diversity in schools. In another example, the survey, *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction in the twenty-first Century*, that is described in Chapter 5, is a revised instrument that now includes question items on such topics as motivation, differentiated instruction, diversity, and culturally responsive teaching. Results from the administration of this survey in two countries indicated a decline in teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs about diversity over the duration of their program given their acute awareness of the impact that it has on literacy instruction. It is contended that this instrument is better capturing the reality of teaching in today's classrooms with a variety of learning needs and technologies as well as social, emotional, and cultural diversity. The authors in Chapter 6 argue for significant shifts in the ways that teacher education in language and literacy is facilitated: ways that should emulate the principles of Universal Design for Learning and accommodate all learner differences. In Chapter 7, attention paid to how narratives and literacy-based inquiry about field experiences can support the development of teacher candidates' understandings of pedagogy, culture,

and identity. This is timely as in Chapter 9, the reality of novice teachers beginning their careers in low socioeconomic schools is brought to light. Most encouraging are statistics that are summarized in Chapters 10 and 11 that state that the impact of teachers' collective self-efficacy and beliefs in their students' abilities are three times more influential than students' socioeconomic status on students' achievement. Clearly, this book is timely as teachers can positively affect student outcomes, including those students who are disengaged or disadvantaged. Chapter 10 concludes with the recommendation that culturally responsive teachers need to collaborate and communicate with culturally diverse families to create inclusive classrooms. The high school profiled in Chapter 11 is an example of one that mobilizes teacher collaboration within an inner-city school that has a significant proportion of students identified with disabilities, ESL, and low socioeconomic status. These authors focus on how efficacious high school English teachers in this urban school believe that their collective efforts impact students' literacy lives. Finally, Chapter 12 also provided a review of educational reform in Australia with a focus on teacher self- and collective efficacy profiling an urban school that has high cultural diversity.

Connecting Practice to Theory

The chapter authors in this book have made steady reference to the work of Albert Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory and his construct of self-efficacy. Social cognitive theory views human functioning as a reciprocal interaction between an individual's personal (e.g., beliefs), behavioral, and environmental factors (Bandura, 1986). This is an intricate view of how an individual functions within his/her world. Accordingly, Bandura did point out that, "A theory that denies that thoughts can regulate actions does not lend itself readily to the explanation of complex human behavior" (p. 15).

For a teacher, there is nothing more interactive and complex than a classroom of human learners. Rooted in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), self-efficacy for teaching refers to a teacher's, "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 783). Such judgment is self-evaluated either informally (most often) or with self-reported surveys. Three chapters in this book have grappled

with how to best measure teachers' knowledge to teach early reading skills (Binks-Cantrell, Washburn & Joshi, see this volume), the interaction of pedagogical content knowledge, perceived ability and self-efficacy beliefs about teaching reading (Washburn & Mulcahy, see this volume) and teachers' self-efficacy in language instruction in the technically, socially, emotionally, and culturally diverse classrooms of the twenty-first century (Ciampa & Gallagher, see this volume).

This book, *Teaching Literacy in the Twenty-First Century Classroom: Teacher Knowledge, Self-Efficacy, and Minding the Gap*, is proof that the study of teacher self-efficacy has evolved and is an important construct in teacher education. It has been argued that once the teachers' efficacy beliefs are established, they are generally difficult to change; however, these beliefs have been found to be more amenable to change during the early phases of learning to teach (Hoy & Spero, 2005). Indeed, Chapter 9 author (Clark) has zeroed in on teacher candidates' self-efficacy as they transition into beginning practice, and the potential shifts in in-service teachers' self-efficacy in relation to the collective efficacy. This is why it was important in this book to address both the self-efficacy for literacy teaching of both teacher candidates and in-service teachers and the bridge between the two. Accordingly, teacher educators and professional learning facilitators need to acknowledge the importance of appreciating and fostering the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers prior to and while working with them, respectively, to develop their practice. How? As Chapters 7 (Bartow Jacobs) and 8 (Mora, Cañas, Rodriguesz, & Salazar) have presented, teacher reflection through narratives and reflexivity are components in the process of literacy teachers' enhanced practice. Aptly, Bandura (1986, p. 21) stated that, "People not only gain understanding through reflection, they evaluate and alter their own thinking."

Considerations: Teacher Educators, Practicing Teachers, Professional Learning Facilitators, and School Leaders

This concluding chapter has melded the concepts, issues, and insights of the previous chapters into some concluding thoughts on the significance of understanding and appreciating teacher candidates' and in-service teachers' efficacy for literacy instruction and collective efficacy. There are inherent considerations for teacher education, teacher practice, professional learning, and school leadership.

Teacher education programs have an unbridled opportunity to uncover the emerging self-efficacy beliefs of teacher candidates as they learn what, who, when, where, why, and how to teach English language arts and literacy. The context in which their sources of efficacy are experienced plays an important role in the development of preservice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction. All teacher candidates have background experience as literacy learners. Some have experiences that are fraught with emotions that date back to negative personal learning experiences, while others have memories of stolid English language arts teachers and being disengaged. Indeed, there are teacher candidates who reflect on their background experiences in learning to be literate with positive regard to emulate the methods in which they were inspired to communicate, read, and write. These background experiences shape the beliefs that teacher candidates begin to formulate about their own ability to teach English language arts and literacy. Literacy teacher educators must scaffold teacher candidates to peel back these beliefs early in their course work in order to first identify them. Then, teacher candidates can begin to reflect on what they are learning in teacher education as well as what they experiencing as they begin classroom observations and practica that challenge these assumptions. This is an integral first step in literacy teacher development.

It is essential for teacher candidates to explore the beliefs that inform their future classroom decisions from the beginning of their teacher preparation programs as they strive to meet the linguistic, cognitive, social, emotional, and physical needs of students across a variety of practica settings (Caudle & Moran, 2012). As such, it is important to appreciate the complex relationship between teaching beliefs and practice across time, bridging experiences in teacher preparation programs to field experiences in K-12 classrooms. Indeed, teacher candidates with volunteer and work experience have high self-efficacy related to student engagement and differentiation (Ciampa & Gallagher, 2017). However, practice teaching experience does not always contribute to high self-efficacy for teaching ELA, in fact Ciampa and Gallagher (2017) found a negative correlation between the two with Canadian teacher candidates. If teacher educators are to produce teachers with high self-efficacy who can influence student literacy achievement in meaningful ways, a close examination of their prefatory experiences and beliefs in light of the training they receive to teach literacy is necessary.

In-service or practicing teachers often focus on what goes wrong in an English language arts lesson or the lack of impact that they perceive that they have on a student to read and/or write. In the words of Bandura (1998), "We are more heavily invested in the theories of failure than we are in the theories of success." Practicing teachers need to take pause and acknowledge their teaching successes and consider them in light of their malleable self-efficacy. Chapters in this volume discuss the ways in which teachers of English language arts can assess their self-efficacy. This might be a launching point to self-identify areas of literacy instruction that a teacher perceives as effective and those areas that need support and professional learning. It is quite likely that there are other teaching faculty with similar needs. These teaching colleagues might be sharing the same needs for professional learning via online platforms (i.e., blogs) or next door in the same school site. For K-12 teachers, the value of collaborating to support the needs of their own literacy instruction is well established (Schellert, Butler, & Higginson, 2008). Collegial collaboration can enhance teachers' pedagogical knowledge through engaging in critical reflection and goal-directed, self-regulated learning (Stephens & Heidi, 2014; Toll, 2007; Walpole & McKenna, 2012). This book has several chapters that bring to light the prominence of a teacher's self-efficacy for literacy instruction in relation to the collective efficacy to collaborate and reform literacy instruction.

It is generally accepted that professional learning that supports teachers' growth fosters educational improvement (Fullan, Hill, & Crevola, 2006) and enhances student achievement (Elish-Pipler & L'Allier, 2011). We know that facilitating the professional growth of teachers is a complex process; critical reflection, new knowledge, and efficacy are required to promote such growth. This potentially supports teachers' implementation of new instructional practices that foster increased literacy learning (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Gusky, 2002). Professional learning facilitators might consider adopting the role of a 'Literacy Teacher Self-Efficacy Coach'—this would be one who guides the growth of an in-service teacher's beliefs about his/her effect to address the literacy learning needs of students.

Coaching models of professional learning have been recommended for over two decades (Kise, 2006; Knight, 2011). Coaching at the school and district levels has the potential to enhance teachers' literacy instructional practices. Coaching models in teacher professional learning have been compared to the gradual increase of responsibility model (Pearson

& Gallagher, 1983) and differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2003). To accomplish this it is important for coaches to work collaboratively to build on teachers' existing professional knowledge and support their self-directed professional growth and self-efficacy (Penuel, Phillips, & Harris, 2014; Stover, Kissel, Haag, & Shoniker, 2011). "Coaching is the art of identifying and developing a [teacher's] strengths" (Kise, 2006, p. 139). Focusing on strengths is essential for effective coaching as these are intertwined with a teacher's beliefs about education. Coaches must tailor professional learning to meet the teacher's needs and as such will directly impact the teacher's self-efficacy. Coaches strive to enable teachers to enhance their own practice from where they are in their current practice and in accordance with their classroom context. In particular, literacy coaching methods employed can range from interpersonal conversations or dialogic discourse to reflection or intrapersonal thinking (Froelich & Puig, 2007). Similar to others (Elish-Piper & L'Allier, 2011), we view literacy coaching as an opportunity to further enhance teachers' instructional practices, build their repertoire of skills, and offer practical solutions that foster effective student learning. Most notably, coaching can also be an opportunity to explicitly address self-efficacy and collective efficacy.

Chapters in this book have encouragingly presented the case for the power of the collective efficacy of teachers in a school to impact the literacy achievement of their students. This is a bit like a team mentality—would a high performing professional sports team not collectively believe that they can perform and win? Does the team not visualize plays that they believe they can execute, plan how to defend against the strongest offense, and rally together to score and win? Bandura (1986) would agree, "People regulate their level and distribution of effort in accordance with the effects they expect their actions to have. As a result, their behavior is better predicted from their beliefs than from the actual consequences of their actions" (p. 129). So, we are at a point where we know collective efficacy beliefs are important to student literacy achievement (and indeed in other curricular areas as well), but we haven't deconstructed collective efficacy and what is needed to foster and grow it. This is an area of fruitful future research.

This is where the emphasis shifts in terms of considerations derived from this text. Let's consider the potential of a potent mixture of student, teacher and collective efficacy for literacy learning and instruction. How are all three addressed and bolstered? Or, if one is addressed, do

the other two follow? We know that perception of collective efficacy can positively or negatively influence individual self-efficacy and both, and for decades we have known of the effects of teacher self-efficacy on student efficacy (Schunk, 1991). There needs to be the necessary school context including resources to build collective efficacy (Park, Fisher & Frey, see this volume) and a teacher's capacity to have agency (Poulton, Tambyah & Woods, see this volume). Professional agency is a more fulsome term than self-determination. The latter is usually used with reference to students to describe their perceptions of being enabled, whereas professional agency is the ability or power to enact change. A major part of being agentive is holding the perception of your own sense of internalized control to make a difference—you are in control of the rudder of the ship.

Working under the assumption that prospective change in instructional practice is beneficial to learners, then school leaders/administrators should first target teachers' individual self-efficacy and the collective efficacy of the school *prior to* professional learning initiatives that might involve change or reform. It's analogous to an inoculation to change. This requires time for teachers to collaborate, plan, share, and deconstruct experiences. This is integral to foster relationships, learn, develop skills, and build a foundation on which to take risks. It has been described (e.g., Park, Fisher, & Frey) as a focus on analyzing student data in a way that directs future instructional decisions to bring together a teaching faculty with a common, non-personally threatening goal and develop collective efficacy. This also involves sharing instructional experiences and working through problems of practice. There is power in supporting mastery experiences and the power is in affirming them explicitly. This requires organization, dedication, leadership, and skilled facilitation. Simply, the role of a supportive, positive school leader is essential to build teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy.

Implications for Future Practice and Research

We feel strongly that this book has spoken to the interests of undergraduate and graduate education students, teacher educators, practicing teachers, and educators in K-12 leadership roles (i.e., professional learning facilitators, instructional coaches, consultants, administrators) who all seek to develop and foster teacher candidate and in-service teacher efficacy beliefs for literacy instruction. The chapter authors have provided

research, cases, and applications that are practical, useful, and significant for school leaders who appreciate the impact of self-efficacy in the classroom and any learning environment associated with literacy learning. This book also includes revised and validated measures of teachers' sense of efficacy for literacy instruction which may be valuable tools at the elementary, secondary, and postsecondary levels. Future research might employ any combination of these tools in international contexts.

Additionally, this book has provided practical suggestions for those involved in designing teacher preparation programs, coursework, and professional development for literacy instruction in the twenty-first century. Research into the process of facilitating such professional education offerings would be an interesting pursuit. This might be enacted in different international sites and then a cross-comparison of the findings as they relate to the impact on teachers' self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and student performance. This book offers a foundation for undergraduate and graduate students in literacy and educational psychology courses to use as fodder for their work in the field as they consider their own practice or related studies. Finally, in-service teachers seeking continuing education credits or certification as specialists in literacy instruction such as instructional coaches, reading supervisors, reading specialists, adult and English as a second language instructors might consider how constructs from this book apply to them personally as they enhance their own self-efficacy but also to their colleagues with whom they share specialized skill sets in literacy education. There are opportunities to enhance the collective efficacy of such groups of specialized literacy educators.

A final word, "A problem of future research is to clarify how young children learn what type of social comparative information is most useful for efficacy evaluation" (Bandura, 1986, p. 421). Our students are observing us as educators. They are observing their teacher candidates in practicum, their classroom teachers, their school leaders, and the consultants and coaches in the classrooms. It is incumbent on us all to be the best educators possible and present as positive, self-efficacious professionals.

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Index

A
Action Canada Task Force, 8, 85, 86, 92
Affective state. *See* Physiological state/arousal
Agency
definition of, 250–251
personal versus collective agency, 250. *See also* Professional agency
Alger, C.L., 25, 28
Al Otaiba, S., 66
Alphabetic principle, 7, 46, 96
Alphabetics, 40
Attrition, novice teacher, 173–175
Autoethnographic narratives, 146, 149. *See also* "English Language II: Literacies in Second Languages" (Colombian graduate seminar)

B
Babbie, E., 180
Babur, N., 49
Bandura, A., 2
on collective efficacy, 200, 221, 235, 242, 247, 278, 279
definition of self-efficacy, 2, 25, 64, 120, 175, 201
on evaluating causes of success and failure, 247
and evaluating social comparative information, 280
on mastery experiences, 279
on personal versus collective agency, 246
social cognitive theory of, 174, 274
on sources of efficacy information, 23–26, 146, 177–179, 201, 222, 241, 252–254, 261, 272, 275

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on theory of failure and theory of success, 277
on value of reflection, 275
on vicarious experiences, 254, 261, 268
Barry, A.L., 249
Biesta, G., 241, 245–246
Binks-Cantrell, E., 7, 84, 92–96, 274–276
Black, D.S., 206
Bos, C., 50
Bottom-up educational reform, 7, 242, 249–253, 273
Boyatzi, R.E., 252
Bruce, C., 222
Brucker, P.O., 49
Burke Spero, R.B., 192

C

Cambria, J., 210
Canadian Language and Literacy Research Network (CLLRNET), 44–45
Canadians for 21st Century Learning and Innovation, 8, 85, 86
Cañas, C., 11, 271, 275
Chhuon, V., 207
Choice boards, 210
Chrispeels, J.H., 223
Ciampa, K., 8, 9, 66, 67, 270, 275, 276–278
Clark, S.K., 11–12, 65, 77, 271, 275
Class President (Hurwitz), 205
Classroom culture, 203–210
and care, 207–208
and clarity and collaboration, 208–211
and communication, 204–206
and community, 206–207
and connection, 206–208
Clift, Renée, 150
Close reading, 212, 213, 216, 230
Coaching models, 277
Collaboration for Effective Educator Development, Accountability, and Reform (CEEDAR) Center (University of Florida), 77–78
Collective efficacy, 1, 4, 5, 12–14, 271, 277, 278–280
Bandura, A., on, 200, 222, 235, 240, 278
definition of, 202, 220
and graduate literacy education, 152, 153, 161
and mastery (enactive) experiences, 222, 227–232, 234, 247–250
and mentoring, 152
and physiological state/arousal, 223–226, 248
reasons for success of, 222–226
recommendations for, 233–235
role and value of, 221–222
role of experience in, 220
and school reform, 239–262
and teacher collaboration, 222–226
teacher interview, 267–276
in urban high school, 226–232
and vicarious experiences, 224, 230, 234, 247–250, 260, 261, 268
Colombian graduate education, 147–149
Learning and Teaching Processes in Second Languages (MA program), 147, 150
Literacies in Second Languages Project (LSLP), 148–149, 161, 162
mentoring, 151–152, 163, 187–188, 193
merger of in-service and higher education, 145. *See also* "English Language II: Literacies in Second Languages"

Commeyras, M., 29
Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children (U.S.), 45
Common Core State Standards (CCSS), 19, 31, 83, 92
Content knowledge
  and national literacy initiatives, 7, 47–59
  self-efficacy compared with, 3
  and Survey of Basic Language Constructs, 40, 50–59, 92–96, 268–270
  and whole language instruction, 40
Critical literacies, 147, 148, 150, 154–157
Critical narratives, 93, 119–121
  and beliefs about English Language Arts teaching, 127–133
  as critical form of reflection and learning, 123–124
  critical narrative of fieldwork assignment, 124–126
  data sources and analysis, 126–127
  and productive professional uncertainty, 133–139
  and reframing practice-based teaching, 121–123
  in teacher education programs, 139–140
Cunningham, A., 47, 66
Curricular reform. *See* Educational reform
Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C), 243–245, 253–254, 258

D
Dardzinski, J., 6, 7, 268
Decoding, 22, 40, 44–46, 51, 108, 152, 157, 205, 206, 208, 210
DeGroff, L., 29
Di Cesare, D., 9, 10, 93, 146, 270
Digital citizenship, 104, 117
Digital pedagogy. *See* Multimodal pedagogies
Digital spaces, 112–114
Diverse classrooms, 32–33

E
Educational reform, 240–242
  and affective states, 257, 260, 261, 274
  bottom-up reform, 7, 250–253, 273
  common practices, 241–244
  Curriculum into the Classroom (C2C), 243–244, 251–252, 253, 258
  literacy reform, 248–250
  Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians, 243–244
  New Basics, 244, 253
  and professional agency, 240–241, 242, 245–246, 254–261, 272–274, 278
  in Queensland, Australia, 251–276
  School Improvement Hierarchy, 251–252
  and self- and collective efficacy, 252–257
  and teacher interview, 267–276
  top-down reform, 7, 253–254, 272
Emergent literacy coursework, 30
Emirbayer, A., 245
Emotional state/arousal. *See* Physiological state/arousal
Enactive experiences, 220, 222, 223. *See also* Mastery experiences
"English Language II: Literacies in Second Languages" (Colombian graduate seminar)

applications for(second) language curriculum, 161–163
and critical literacies, 147–150, 154–156
and mentoring, 154–155, 159, 160–161, 163
narrative of graduate student's transformation through grief, 154–156
narrative of graduate student's transformation to rural education, 156–159
narrative of graduate student's transitioned to seminar instructor, 152–154
narrative of seminar creator, 149–152
narrative takeaways: identity and self-efficacy, 159
narrative takeaways: mentorship, 160–161
narrative takeaways: merging teaching and scholarship, 160–161
narrative takeaways: research, 161
narrative takeaways: understanding concept of literacy, 158
and new literacies, 148, 150
origins of, 147–148, 149–152
and research, 161–162
syllabus, 148, 151, 154

F

Fernando, R., 206
Fielding-Barnsley, R., 49
Fieldwork
alignment with reading instruction and course work experiences, 28
consistency, 28
constructive, 28
coursework in, 30–32
effective components of, 28
as essential element of teacher education courses, 28–34
global aspect of, 28
impact on teacher self-efficacy, 25, 26
and mentor teachers, 28–35
minimum number of hours, 30
redefining as learning by doing, 26–28, 33
related directly to coursework, 28–30
Fisher, D., 12, 13, 272
Fisher, S., 12–13, 279
Foorman, B.R., 47
Frey, N., 12, 13, 272, 279

G

Gallagher, T.L., 8, 9, 67, 270, 275, 276–278
Gaming, 106, 107, 109, 156, 205, 212. *See also* Videogames
Gaming literacies, 148
Gandhi, Mohandas, 4
Global South, 148. *See also* Colombian graduate education
Goddard, R.D., 220–222
Goddard, Y.L., 261
Grapheme–phoneme correspondences, 43
Greeting students, 203
Grossman, P., 193
Guthrie, J.T., 210

H

Hacking
class structure, 112–113
hacker mindset, 105
lectures, 110–112
presentation slides, 110–112

time for, 116
Hattie, J., 200–203, 221
Helfrich, S.R., 65, 77
Higher Education Collaborative (U.S.), 41, 47
Hoy, W.K., 261

I

Inclusive classrooms, 91, 200, 208, 210, 211–217, 274
Informational text coursework, 31–32
In-service education and professional learning, 275–280
 coaching models, 277
 and collective efficacy, 275
 and Colombian graduate literacy education, 146, 153, 155, 156, 158–161, 162, 280
 and extended reflexivity, 154, 157, 158–161, 163, 271
 and Literacy Teacher Self-Efficacy Coach, 277
 merger with higher education, 145
 and multimodal pedagogies, 104
 and reading initiatives, 41, 44, 57
 and requisite knowledge, 269
 and scientifically-based reading research, 41
 and teacher self-efficacy, 93, 95, 97, 155, 179, 180–183, 184, 186, 189, 190–192, 194, 267, 269, 273, 275, 279
 and theories of success, 277
 and 21st-century literacy practices, 93
Institutional Review Boards (IRBs), 69–70
International Literacy Association (2017) Standards for Reading Professionals, 8, 85, 86
Intrinsic motivation, 26, 64, 209, 211

J

Jackson, R., 204
Jacobs, K.B., 10, 93, 271, 275
Joshi, R., 7, 84, 274–276

K

Kaestle, C.F., 158
Kim, E.S., 261
Kinesthetic learning experiences, 30

L

Lake, V.E., 66
Leader-Janssen, E.M., 66, 67
Learning differences, 33, 109, 273
Lectures
 and collective efficacy, 155
 and multimodality, 109–110
Letters from Rifka (Hesse), 211
Literacies in Second Languages Project (LSLP), 148–149, 151, 153, 158, 161. *See also* Columbian graduate education
Literacy centers, 212, 216
literacy reform, 250–251
Literacy Taskforce (New Zealand), 39, 43–44, 45–46, 47
Literature discussion groups, 212–214
Lortie, D.C., 176, 193
Luke, A., 245
Lyon, G.R., 49

M

Major, M.R., 204–206
Martin, S., 193
Mastery experiences, 279
 Bandura, A., on, 261, 280
 and collective efficacy, 220–223, 224–232
 enactive experiences, 220, 222, 223

and professional agency, 259–261, 273–275
and teacher candidates, 23–26, 27, 276, 279
Mather, N., 49
McCutchen, D., 49
Media Awareness Network (2010), 8, 85, 86
Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians, 243–244
Mentor students, 216
Mentor teachers
and critical narratives, 126, 133, 136
for fieldwork experiences, 33–35, 95
and graduate literacy education, 147, 148, 151, 150–152, 153–154, 159, 160–161, 163
and multimodal pedagogies, 109, 113, 114
and participatory culture, 107
responsibility of, 277
and transition to full-time teaching, 179–180, 188, 192
and vicarious experiences, 178–179, 256
Mentor texts, 91
Millar, R., 261
Mindfulness, 206
Minicozzi, L., 6, 7, 268
Mische, A., 245
Moats, L.C., 49, 63, 64
Mora, R.A., 11, 271, 275
Mouse and the Motorcycle, The (Cleary), 212
Mulcahy, C., 8, 84, 95, 269, 275
Multimodal pedagogies, 105–106, 114–116, 270
assessment, 114–115
communication and collaboration, 111–114
and digital citizens, 117
digital spaces, 112–114
digital storybook, 115–116
hacking the lecture, 110–111
multimodal teacher education training, 107–109
participatory literacy teacher education pedagogy, 105–106
Personal Literacy Stories, 114–116
in rural schools, 156–159
screencast recording, 113
screenshots, 111
social media, 104, 107, 204
and teacher self-efficacy, 28, 90, 91, 93–94, 104, 109
teaching beyond a print mindset, 109–110
videos, 107, 110–112, 113–114

N

National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Framework for 21st Century Curriculum and Assessment, 8, 85, 86
National Council on Teacher Quality, 20, 28–30, 49
National Literacy Strategy (England), 41, 43
National Reading Panel (U.S.), 47, 92
alignment with National Strategy for Early Literacy, 45, 46
on early reading, 45
on essential components for learning to read, 22, 47, 269
and *Reading First* initiative, 47, 53
Rose Review compared with, 55
Teaching Children to Read, 22, 39, 43, 45
National Strategy for Early Literacy (Canada), 39, 45–47
New Basics, 244, 253

New literacies, 10, 93–94, 108, 115–117, 148, 150, 249. *See also* Multimodal pedagogies
Nielsen, D.C., 249
No Child Left Behind (NCLB). *See* Reading First (U.S. initiative)
Notice and Wonder Protocol for Student Work, 229
Novice teachers
  attrition, 173–174
  in low socio-economic schools, 193
  and mentors, 173–179, 183, 184, 187, 192, 193
  opportunities for praxis, 162
  and participatory teacher education, 106
  and reality shock, 173
  self-efficacy, 180, 186–194, 280

O

One-on-one instruction, 66, 177

P

Pajares, F., 175
Park, V., 12, 13, 272, 279
Participatory literacy, 105–107
Phonemic awareness, 22, 26, 28, 30, 33, 41, 45–47, 50–53, 57–58, 67, 70, 74–76, 96, 108, 268
Phonological awareness, 34, 40, 45, 46, 51, 57, 65, 95, 96
Physiological state/arousal, 176, 268
  and collective efficacy, 200, 221–222, 249
  and teacher candidates, 25, 26, 177
Pippi Longstocking (Lindgren), 211
Place, N., 193
Positive Parent Brag Mail, 205
Poulton, P., 13, 272, 273, 279
Presentation slides and software, 111–113
Pre-service teacher. *See under* Teacher candidate
Primary Framework for Literacy (England), 43
Print awareness, 45, 46
Problem-solving, 92, 106, 110, 111, 125
Productive professional learning communities (PLC's), 222–226, 228–230, 235, 272
Professional agency, 241–242, 245, 249–251, 255–261, 272–275, 279
Professional learning. *See* In-service education and professional learning
Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2
Purdie, N., 49

Q

Queensland, Australia, 243, 251–275. *See also* Educational reform

R

Ralph S. Mouse (Cleary), 213
Rankin-Erickson, J.L., 66, 67
Read alouds, 34, 113, 155–156, 211
Reading First (U.S. initiative), 41, 47, 53
Reading initiatives
  Canada, 44–45
  comparison of, 45–47
  England, 41–43
  New Zealand, 43–44
  and teacher candidate knowledge, 47–59
  United States, 40–41

Reading instruction, effective components of, 6, 22
alphabetics, 40
comprehension, 6, 23, 40, 41
fluency, 6, 40, 41
National Reading Panel on, 22, 47, 269
opportunities to write to foster reading understanding, 23
oral reading, 41
phonemic awareness, 6, 22, 26, 28, 30, 33, 41, 45–46, 50–54, 65, 67, 70, 74–76, 96, 108, 268
phonics, 6, 22, 40–41
systematic and explicit instructional strategies, 23, 41
vocabulary, 6, 23, 41
Reading wars, 22
Reality shock (transition to full-time teaching), 173–175
Reciprocal teaching, 213
Reflexivity, 6, 11, 146–147, 149, 275–276
narrative of graduate student's transformation through grief, 154–156
narrative of graduate student's transformation to rural education, 156–159
narrative of graduate student's transitioned to seminar instructor, 152–154
narrative of seminar creator, 149–152
Reform. *See* School reform
Remediation, 30
Research-based reading instruction (RBRI), 39, 40. *See also* Reading initiatives
Resilience, 26, 27, 175, 220, 261
Rodríguez, A.K., 11, 271, 275
Ronfeldt, M., 223
Rose Review (England), 39, 42, 58, 92, 269
applications of, 58
effects of, 58
emphasis on phonics instruction, 46, 57
Literacy Taskforce compared with, 46–47
National Literacy Strategy compared with, 43
National Reading Panel compared with, 45–46, 46–49, 53, 55
National Strategy for Early Literacy compared with, 44
and phonemic awareness, 57
Ross, J., 222
Rowsell, J., 9, 92, 93, 103–117, 150, 270
Rural education
and multimodal pedagogy, 151, 156–159
and teacher self-efficacy, 95
transformation from graduate student to rural teacher, 156–159, 160

S

Salazar, N., 11, 271, 275
Schleicher, A., 245
School Improvement Hierarchy, 251–252
School reform. *See* Educational reform
Screen reading and screen-based text, 113–115
Self-efficacy, 272. *See also* Bandura, A.; Collective efficacy; Mastery experiences; Physiological state/arousal; Social persuasion; Teacher candidate self-efficacy; Teacher self-efficacy; Verbal persuasion; Vicarious experiences
Bandura's definition of, 3, 25, 64, 120, 175, 200

and critical narratives, 127–146
knowledge compared with, 3
role in teacher education, 23–25
role in teaching reading, 64–77
sources of influence for, 25–26, 161, 176–177, 221, 246, 254–255, 260, 271, 276
Semantics, 23, 46
Shiloh (Naylor), 208–209
Snow, C.E., 47–49
Social and emotional learning, 202
building reading skills in inclusive classrooms, 211–214
and care, 206–208
and clarity and collaboration, 207–209
and classroom culture, 203–210
and communication, 204–206
and community, 207–208
and connection, 206–208
creating inclusive classrooms, 215–217
and literature discussion groups, 211–213
mindfulness, 206
motivating on-level and accelerated readers, 208–209
motivating struggling readers, 210–211
and reciprocal teaching, 213
and self-efficacy, 200–202
Social Cognitive Theory, 25, 174, 246
Social media, 104, 107, 204
Social persuasion, 222, 247, 254, 258, 261. *See also* Verbal persuasion
Spear-Swerling, L., 51, 66
Special education teacher candidates, 64, 67–71, 75, 77–78, 96
Spelling, 30, 43, 65, 213
Staab, P.T., 261
Storytelling, 30, 111, 135, 224
Street, B., 152–153, 159
Survey of Basic Language Constructs, 40, 50–59, 92–96, 268–270
Canadian teacher candidate sample, 54
England teacher candidate sample, 54
New Zealand teacher candidate sample, 49
results and discussions, 53–59
United States teacher candidate sample, 47
Survey of Reading-Related Knowledge and Perception, 70–78
data analysis, 70–75
data source, 70
discussion, 75–78
limitations and conclusions, 77–78
participants, 67–70
result: certification focus and area, 74–75
results: perceptions about reading-related constructs, 73
results: previous exposure to reading-related constructs, 74–76
results: self-efficacy beliefs about reading instruction, 73–74
Syllabi, 28, 33, 148, 151, 153, 154, 204, 243, 244
Syntax, 23

T

Tambyah, M., 13, 272, 273, 279
Teacher candidates
beliefs about 21st-century literacy instruction, 88–97
and mastery experiences, 25–26, 27, 176–178, 180, 185, 188, 191–192, 268, 279
modeling behavior of master teachers, 23–25

and national literacy initiatives, 7, 47–59
and reading instruction knowledge, 19–35
special education, 64, 67–71, 75, 77–78, 96
and Survey of Basic Language Constructs, 40, 50–59, 95–96, 268–270
Teacher candidate self-efficacy, 176–179, 184–194. *See also* Self-efficacy
assessment of, 73–78
context and country research, 178–179
definition of, 180
influences on, 176–178
and mastery experiences, 176–178
and verbal persuasion, 178–179
and vicarious experiences, 177
Teacher Development Agency (England), 43
Teacher self-efficacy, 176. *See also* Collective efficacy; Self-efficacy; Teacher candidate self-efficacy
characterisitics of, 26–28
and collective efficacy, 254–257
and competence to teach, 27
and contextual features, 27
and culture context, 175–177
definition of, 26, 84
effect of in-class interactive lessons on, 26, 70
effect of positive fieldwork experience on, 26
high TSE, 78, 84
impact of, 3–4, 26–27, 64–66, 274, 278
malleability of, 84
need for research on, 2–4, 145–146
in novice teachers, 173–194
and transition to full-time teaching, 188–194
variability over time, 71–72
Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction (TSELI), 8, 65, 67, 85–86, 280
Teaching Children to Read (National Reading Panel report), 22. *See also* National Reading Panel (U.S.)
Tedder, M., 245, 256–257
Text structure, 23
cause/effect, 31
compare and contrast, 31
explicit instruction for, 31
problem/solution, 31
sequence, 31
text description, 31
Thirdspacetheory, 206–207
Top-down educational reform, 7, 250–251, 253, 272
Tschannen-Moran, M., 25, 175, 176
Tyger, R.L., 158

U

Usher, E.L., 175

V

Valencia, S., 193
Verbal persuasion, 25, 26, 176, 178–179, 189, 192, 193, 249. *See also* Social persuasion
Vicarious experiences
Bandura, A., on, 254, 261, 268
and collective efficacy, 222, 224, 230, 234, 254–256, 261, 271, 272
and professional agency, 256, 259–261, 273

and teacher candidates, 25–26, 177, 178, 189, 191, 193, 194, 280
Video discussion boards, 113
Videogames, 105, 109, 110, 156, 205, 212
Videos, 107, 110, 111, 112–114
Vocabulary, 6, 22, 23, 41
Voelkel, R.H., Jr., 222, 223

W
Wallace, T., 207
Washburn, E., 7, 8, 65, 66, 84, 95, 96, 268–270, 275
Weir, K., 245
Whole language instruction, 22, 40
Willis, Arlette, 150, 160
Wonder (Palacio), 211
Woods, A., 13, 245, 272, 273, 279
Woolfolk Hoy, A.W., 175, 192, 261
Word recognition (decoding), 22, 40, 42, 44, 46, 51, 88, 95, 152, 157, 206, 208, 210, 212, 214

Y
Young, V.M., 224–226

Z
Zmuda, A., 204