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Espoused and Enacted Beliefs of High School English Language Arts Teachers in Writing Instruction

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ESPOUSED AND ENACTED BELIEFS OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS TEACHERS IN WRITING INSTRUCTION

by

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ABSTRACT

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by

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The purpose of the study was to explore the espoused and enacted pedagogical beliefs of secondary language arts teachers with regards to writing instruction and how these beliefs correlate with teacher self-efficacy beliefs. The purpose of this study was to explore how perceived and enacted beliefs affect agency of English Lanauge Arts teachers with regards to writing instruction in the high school classroom. A collective case study design was used to understand what espoused and enacted pedagogical beliefs different teachers have, the alignment or contrast of those beliefs and practices, and how self-efficacy is related to writing instruction. Findings indicate that teacher espoused beliefs aligned with their enacted practices. With regards to instructional scaffolding and student comprehension, English Language Arts teachers in the same school tend to hold strongly similar beliefs. Last, teachers rely heavily on mentor teachers, colleagues, and their own classroom experiences as sources of teaching knowledge.

(241 pages)

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

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Sydnie Schoepf

The purpose of the current study is to explore the espoused beliefs and enacted practices of secondary English Language Arts teachers with regards to writing instruction and how these beliefs correlate with teacher self-efficacy beliefs. The study worked to build upon the literature mainly in the fields of mathematics and science in order to explore what the perceived and enacted beliefs are and how they affect the self-efficacy belief of teachers within the field of writing instruction in the high school classroom. The study used a collective case study design in order to better understand what espoused and enacted pedagogical beliefs different teachers have and their levels of self-efficacy as teachers of writing. Findings indicate that teachers rely heavily on mentor teachers, colleagues, and their own classroom experiences as sources of teaching knowledge. Teacher espoused beliefs, when examined holistically, show alignment with their enacted practices. With regards to instructional scaffolding and student comprehension, English teachers in the same school tend to hold strongly similar beliefs.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As I walk through the halls of the high school that I have made my home, I look into the windows of the classrooms I pass by noting how very different each one looks, from the layout of the room with either tables or desks, where the teacher's desk is in relation, the chosen decorations on the walls. Each room is as unique as the teacher who resides there. No wonder I grew up hearing that teaching was as much an art form as a science. How could two classrooms function the same given how different they are from one another?

My first year of teaching as an Alternative Routes to Licensure (ARL) teacher was a bit of a trial by fire, and I did not last at that school beyond my first year. One of the main things I remember hearing from my principal that still echoes in my mind is that he wanted to be able to walk into my room, hear the beginning of a sentence, walk into the next English Language Arts teacher's room, and hear the end of that sentence. It boggled my mind. How could a principal require lock-step instruction when my room and my teaching style were so very different from other members of the English department?

I then started my M.Ed. program and took a large number of pedagogy courses. I kept being asked "What does it mean to be a masterful teacher?" and "If teaching were a metaphor, what would it be?" For my metaphor, I picked Jungle Tour Guide and was very certain I had the best answer to a question that did not actually have a right answer. I kept thinking about what pedagogical choices I had selected that to me were the obvious right answers when others had taken different stances. I watched. I listened.

When I started my Ph.D. journey I was told, as was everyone in my cohort, that I had to "pick a camp." We learned about all the different theorists and their educational theories that were going to save education and everyone in it. By now I had a number of years of teaching experience and was able to relate what I learned to what I had experienced. I recognized that no one "camp" was fully correct or incorrect, but still watched as most people, including myself, picked the camp they felt was "mostly right" because we were told we needed to pick a camp. I started noticing other teachers, not in my program, who espoused similar beliefs as they clustered their tables for group work or lined their desks up in rows. Suddenly, I saw everything in the classroom represented a theory or a practice or a belief. Everything was intentional, and I wanted to know more.

In seeing the many theories available by the many theorists that teachers are taught, and the number of people who agree with varying theories, it does not surprise me that the classrooms I walk past each day vary so much. Each teacher has had different experiences in education both as a teacher and a student that have led them to the "camp" they have chosen, whether the "camp" belongs entirely to a single theorist or a blend of multiple ideas that works for the specific teacher.

In finding what works, a blend of ideas may be more common than a single theory. Allen and Hunsaker (2016) with reference to the work of Eisner (2002), Kliebard (2004), and Miller (2011), argued that, often, as teachers grow and learn through their classroom experiences, they develop an eclectic approach that combines multiple curriculum ideologies together, making it a challenge to define effective and masterful teachers. Several studies (Grossman et al., 2000; McCarthey, 1992; Wang & Odell, 2003)

have focused on new or preservice teachers arguing that teachers tend to find the approach and pedagogical tools that work for them within their first few years of teaching. Discovering the approach and tools that work for teachers occurs after the "white washing effect" (McQuitty, 2012), where a teacher pushes aside everything they just learned in school to begin learning how to "really teach" from their teacher mentor.

Thus, the current collective cross-case study (Stake, 1995) sought to examine what experienced teachers, who have established beliefs about how to teach effectively, believe and practice in the classroom. Collective case studies (Stake, 1995) take instrumental case studies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) and examine them collectively to better understand how these case studies apply to and exemplify a more general issue for better contextualization. As noted by Putney (2010) "…an *instrumental* case is one that lends itself to the understanding of an issue or phenomenon beyond the case itself" (p. 116). Teacher beliefs and practices about writing instruction has less extant literature than in science or mathematics instruction.

Background

The perceptions and beliefs of teachers influence what is important enough to be taught and what gets omitted (Eisner, 2002). For example, a teacher who holds the belief that writing instruction should focus on critical thinking skills may omit teaching narrative structure in favor of more formal essay writing. Additionally, teacher self-efficacy affects "general orientation toward the educational process as well as their specific instructional activities" (Bandura, 1997, p. 241). It is possible that a teacher who

has high efficiency with argumentative writing may spend more time teaching that style than one who has low efficacy with argumentative writing. Teacher efficacy, in addition to impacting instruction, is also a major contributing factor to teacher commitment as a profession (Coladarci, 1992).

Teacher beliefs encompass far more than teacher efficacy. Based on context, teacher beliefs change in specificity (Alexander & Dochy, 1995) and what beliefs are enacted, even when in seeming conflict with other espoused beliefs (Bryan, 2003). These conflicts arise when beliefs from one belief system are enacted over a different, but occasionally overlapping, belief system (Bryan, 2003; Davis & Sumara, 2006; McQuitty, 2012). Teacher beliefs exist within multiple categories that can become nested or overlapping. For example, what teachers believe in relation to self, context, content, teaching strategies, teaching approach, or students (Fives & Buehl, 2012) may change over time or come in conflict with other beliefs when enacted in the classroom. It is possible that a teacher holds the belief that the most effective way for students to learn is through modeling and guided practice yet teaches through direct instruction when presenting new content. The teacher may shift from direct instruction to guided practice when she or he sees that the studnts have mastered the new content sufficiently for a guided practice approach. In this way, teacher beliefs about instruction may shift based on specific content, context, or the students in the classroom.

The nature of beliefs can be seen through the issues in defining teachers' belief characteristics. Fives and Buehl (2012) found issues with teacher belief research continuity through researcher definitions of teacher beliefs in terms of: (a) having an

implicit or explicit nature, (b) stability, (c) having a situated or more generalized nature, (d) knowledge, and (e) whether or not the belief is independent or part of a larger belief system. Each of these elements play a role in the findings, but vary from researcher to researcher. Nestedness of beliefs (Davis & Sumara, 2006) account for these variations with the argument that certain beliefs are activated based on context (Fives & Buehl, 2012). When a belief is activated, it may overlap with a belief from a different belief system (Bryan, 2003; Davis & Sumara, 2006) and may account for apparent duality, or opposing ideas (Bryan, 2003).

Additionally, teacher beliefs also stem from a range of sources, such as: (a) formal educational training, (b) learning via observation, (c) classroom and other educational experiences, (d) peer collaborations, (e) learning via professional development or similar, and (f) self-reflections (Buehl & Fives, 2009).

Teacher beliefs also can vary based on whether researchers study the espoused beliefs of teachers, the enacted beliefs (also referred to as practices) of teachers, or the association between the two. Research assessing associations between espoused and enacted beliefs can be controversial because for every study showing correlation, another shows a disconnect (Fives & Buehl, 2012). Sometimes this controversy is seen within the same study (Kindberg, 1999) in which some teachers demonstrate aligned espoused and enacted beliefs whereas other teachers do not.

Because beliefs are context-dependent (Alexander & Dochy, 1995; Bryan, 2003; Fives & Buehl, 2012), a study must specify the context for the examination of beliefs. For example, beliefs regarding teaching new content are separate from beliefs regarding how

students learn. Therefore, for the purpose of the current collective case study, I will examine the teaching beliefs, both espoused and enacted, and associated teacher self-efficacy of high school English Language Arts teachers in the same school within the area of writing instruction.

Problem Statement

A large number of studies have contributed to the fields of both writing instruction and teacher beliefs. Although literature exists within these fields separately, a gap in the literature still exists because of the sparse amounts of research conducted in the field of beliefs about teaching writing at the secondary level. Writing instruction research tends to focus on the implementation of a program that focuses on improving one aspect of writing (Dinkins, 2014; Patthey-Chavez, Matsumura, & Valdés, 2004) and largely focuses on the stages of the writing process (Calkins, 1978; Emig, 1971; Kinloch & Ozier, 2011). Teacher belief research has mostly occurred in the areas of science (Bryan, 2003; Lebak, 2015) and mathematics (Polly, Neale, & Pugalee, 2014; Samaniego, 2013) or on one type of teacher belief (Charalambous, Philippou, & Kyriakides, 2002) rather than a holistic representation (Fives & Buehl, 2012). Although much has been done to study these two areas separately, more research is needed within the field of teacher beliefs in the area of writing instruction. The information gained from the current study is intended to help fill the gap in the literature and advance the field of writing instruction with a clearer understanding of the impact that teacher beliefs have in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of the current study was to explore the perceived and enacted beliefs and efficacies of secondary language arts teachers that affect the teaching of writing and the associated self-efficacy of writing instruction components. The present study worked to build upon the extant literature within the field of mathematics and science in order to explore how perceived and enacted beliefs affect agency of teachers within the field of writing instruction in the high school classroom.

The aim of the collective case study is to better understand what perceived and enacted beliefs different English Language Arts teachers hold that affect their approach to writing instruction. Working to identify both patterns as well as unique qualities, I hoped to expand the understanding within the field of efficacy in writing instruction through in-depth examination and analysis of this collective case study (Stake, 1995).

By examining teachers as case studies followed by examining the case studies collectively, I was able to gather detailed and descriptive data to analyze across case studies to identify patterns (Creswell & Poth, 2018) across the participating teachers of a high school's English Language Arts department. The analysis of multiple cases within the field of writing instruction of teachers from diverse backgrounds, all within the same institution to stay for their career, can better inform the field of teacher beliefs and their influence within writing instruction in the secondary English Language Arts classroom.

I used social cognitive theory as the basis for examining teacher self-efficacy and teacher beliefs together. Bandura (1997) stated that teacher beliefs about their own instructional self-efficacy can determine, in part, "how they structure academic activities

in their classrooms and shape students' evaluations of their intellectual capabilities" (p. 240). Bandura further described how higher levels of teacher efficacy contrast with lower levels of teacher efficacy in the classroom and in their behavior and expectations of students.

McQuitty (2012) argued that "[w]hat is needed is an explanation that accounts for these differences [in perceptions and beliefs] and that describes not only the factors impacting writing instruction, but how those influences interact with one another" (p. 359). Thus the researcher intends to add to the extant literature to form a more complete picture of teacher perceptions and beliefs and how they interact with writing instruction.

Research Questions

The present collective case study sought to better understand the perceived and enacted beliefs of high school English Language Arts teachers. Furthermore, I examined how these perceptions and beliefs associated with teacher efficacy of writing instruction at the high school level. The following questions guided the current study.

1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching?
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?
3. How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the present study combined social cognitive theory and complexity theory. This combination works well because, as Bandura (1997) stated,

"[h]uman adaptation and change are rooted in social systems. Therefore, personal agency operates within a broad network of sociostructural influences … people are both producers and products of social systems" (p. 6) The ideas of agency, networks of influences, and reciprocal nature of being both a product and producer is indicative of the systems inherently involved within social cognitive theory.

Davis and Sumara (2006) argued that "[c]omplexity thinking helps us actually take on the work of trying to understand things while we are part of the things we are trying to understand" (p. 16). Further, the researchers argued that, with complexity theory, an individual cannot simply stand back and observe the world but is unavoidably involved, "acknowledge[ing] our implication/complicity" (p. 16) in the events of the world. In this instance, by researching within a world in which I am already a participant as a teacher of a specific English Language Arts department, I recognized my involvement and the understanding I have because of my emic perspective (Creswell, 2013). Hence, I researched with intentionality to show understanding using my positionality into my research while still maintaining my role as a passive observer.

Definitions

Self-efficacy: In the current study, the use of the term self-efficacy will be defined as the perceived beliefs regarding an individual's capabilities "to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3).

Teacher beliefs: Beliefs that teachers hold regarding any content or constructs relating in any way to the field of teaching, learning, or education in general (Fives &

Buehl, 2008; Pajares, 1992). Additionally, the definition includes any "subjective claims that the individual accepts or wants to be true … as well as individuals' conceptions of what should be, ought to be, or is preferable" (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 476).

Teacher enacted beliefs: For reference, the term of teacher enacted beliefs will refer to any teacher actions, planned or unplanned, or talk that is observed in the classroom (Fives & Buehl, 2012).

Teacher espoused beliefs: Within the confines of the present study, the term teacher espoused beliefs will be defined as an expression of belief through verbal or written communication (Fives & Buehl, 2012).

Teaching knowledge: The reference to the term teaching knowledge is defined as a teacher's "personal stock of information, skills, experiences, beliefs, and memories" (Alexander, Schallert, & Hare, 1991, p. 317) which impacts a teacher's practice and approach to teaching.

Teacher efficacy: Also referred to as teacher self-efficacy, the term teacher efficacy will be defined as a belief or "confidence that they can effectively *help* students adjust to classroom demands and master various academic topics" (Ormrod, 2018, p. 143).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

> *After teaching for over a decade, I stride into my classroom confidently. I know exactly what works in my classroom and what my students need. I plan my lessons with mini-instruction components followed by a period of 'I do, we do, y'all do, you do'. I know my students need a gradual release of responsibility before being able to do the new skill on their own. I cluster my chairs into groupings of four at each table because I believe that the "y'all do" component is just as important as the "you do" component in their learning process. I plan my lessons accordingly, making sure to account for the needed practice time before the period ends so that students are not practicing skills at home they haven't solidified in class yet. I believe students do best when their practice is done with me keeping an eye on them, to check on students that need interventions before they learn the new skill incorrectly. I believe that teaching is as much an art form as a science, because what works well for me doesn't seem to work for other teachers (Schoepf, Teaching self-reflection, June 2019).*

Our individual beliefs are a powerful factor that influence our actions (Locke, 1982). As seen in the vignette above, beliefs can be a significant factor in determining our actions and reactions to a situation; a teacher acts and reacts to events in her classroom based on her beliefs regarding teaching and learning and their influence on the design and implementation of learning activities. Webster's dictionary defines belief as "something that is accepted, considered to be true, or held as an opinion; something believed." By identifying and understanding an individual's beliefs, we are more likely to understand their actions (Locke, 1982).

From an educational perspective, individual teacher beliefs influence how they perceive what constitutes learning and how curriculum should be designed to provide the most effective method for student learning. Educational psychologists define beliefs as subjective, based on everyday experiences, personal, and involving emotions/feelings

(Alexander & Dochy, 1995; Southerland, Sinatra, & Matthews, 2001). Beliefs differ from knowledge in that beliefs are what an individual perceives or considers to be a personal truth based from experiences (Southerland et al., 2001; Southerland & Gess-Newsome, 1999) while knowledge is universally/communally accepted as objective or necessarily true and unchanging (Southerland et al., 2001; Southerland & Gess-Newsome, 1999).

Teacher beliefs become a blend of both knowledge and beliefs, with the two concepts being inextricably intertwined (Woodbury, 2000). Consequently, most educational researchers use the term *teacher belief* to refer to both belief and knowledge (Cronin-Jones, 1991) because teacher beliefs consist of teacher's non-emotional, data-driven knowledge as well as their subjective, experience-driven beliefs (Southerland et al., 2001).

In what follows, I will provide a discussion on teacher self-efficacy, teacher beliefs, espoused versus enacted teacher beliefs, and two major components that feed into writing instruction teacher self-efficacy: instructional approaches and writing instruction. The review of the literature will demonstrate the gap in the extant literature and the need for a study focusing on the espoused and enacted teacher beliefs and self-efficacy within the field of high school writing instruction.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Expanding Bandura's definition, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) defined

teacher self-efficacy as a personal judgement regarding her/his capabilities to produce the desired student engagement and learning outcome.

Teacher self-efficacy is highly significant in determining occupational performance (Arik, 2018). Additionally, teacher efficacy is one of the two major factors related to current teachers responding positively when asked if, with their current knowledge and experience, they would still become a classroom teacher (Coladarci, 1992). This is important because many teachers in both elementary and secondary grades report entering the teaching profession feeling low efficacy in the area of writing instruction (McQuitty, 2012). Researchers have found that, in general, a large majority of teachers feel inadequately prepared for the classroom based on their teaching preparation program. The finding of inadequacy spans across teachers of primary grades (Cutler & Graham, 2008), upper elementary and middle school (Gilbert & Graham, 2010), and high school (Kiuhara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009). In addition, the National Commission on Writing (2003) reported that many states do not require a writing pedagogy course to receive teacher certification; rather, the focus is on literature instruction.

Through examining what factors influence a teacher's pedagogy, research could allow us to better understand how to impact teachers and their classrooms more effectively (McQuitty, 2012). However, teachers tend to lack access to new research (Nadelson & Jones, 2016; Nadelson et al., 2016) and turn to alternative options, such as mentor teachers, for help in the classroom (Buehl & Fives, 2009). In understanding teacher beliefs, it is important to note the lack of access to information. This affects where teacher beliefs can come from and might provide insight into how to aid teachers

in the future.

One such self-efficacy study (Hodges, Wright, & McTigue, 2019) focused on preservice ELA teachers preparing to teach middle grade students. Participants were asked to complete surveys related to their teacher efficacy for writing instruction as well as their self-efficacy for writing. Results indicated that although preservice teachers found value in the subject of writing, they had low teacher efficacy within a large number of writing instruction components.

Curtis (2017) found that through teaching how to model effective writing strategies, teacher self-efficacy beliefs improved. Curtis claimed that teachers have to feel confident in their instruction because their beliefs and attitude can impact not only students' writing process but their overall achievement. Teacher confidence affecting student achievement is why teacher self-efficacy beliefs are such a determinant in teaching performance (Arik, 2018).

A number of studies on teacher efficacy have been found to have measurement flaws (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) because the many meanings of self-efficacy become problematic (Wheatley, 2005). With these potential issues taken into consideration, this study uses the Bandura's (1997) definition of self-efficacy. Bandura argued that self-efficacy beliefs influence courses of action, effort, perseverance, self-thoughts (either positive or negative), experiences of stress and depression, and the capability to achieve accomplishments.

Teacher Beliefs

Teacher beliefs are one of the most important factors in understanding how teachers teach in the classroom. Teachers have espoused beliefs that are often utilized and enacted in the classroom. However, the espoused beliefs also may contradict with practices when teachers design and implement learning activities for their students. Espoused beliefs are the expression of belief through a form of verbal or written communication, and enacted beliefs are any actions or talk, whether planned or unplanned, that are observed within the classroom (Fives & Buehl, 2012). The present study will focus on teacher espoused and enacted beliefs. Because these beliefs can also be epistemic in nature, I will provide a brief description of epistemic beliefs. A full overview of epistemic beliefs is beyond the scope of the study.

Teacher Epistemic Beliefs

Epistemic beliefs are an individual's beliefs regarding knowledge and the nature of knowing (Hofer, 2002). Specifically, epistemic beliefs are beliefs about how an individual defines, constructs, justifies, and stores knowledge (Hofer, 2002; Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). Teacher epistemic beliefs impact how teachers define each teaching task (Esterly, 2003).

Teacher epistemic beliefs have six sub-categories nested within them. The six subcategories of teacher epistemic beliefs identified by Fives and Buehl's (2012) meta-analysis were: "(a) self, (b) context or environment, (c) content or knowledge, (d) specific teaching practices, (e) teaching approach, and (f) students" (p. 472). As seen in these sub-

categories, knowledge is a specific component of teacher epistemic beliefs, and as such, knowledge and belief are tightly interwoven within the definition of teacher beliefs (Cronin-Jones, 1991). In addition, teacher epistemic beliefs (or their subcategory beliefs) function as: "(a) filters for interpretation, (b) frames for defining problems, and (c) guides or standards for action" (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 478). These subcategories and functions are helpful tools in defining teacher beliefs and will serve as a priori codes for the current study.

Teacher epistemic beliefs play a key role in effective writing instruction. For example, Zumbrunn and Krause (2012) interviewed seven of the leading research authorities in writing instruction to identify principles underlying effective writing instruction. The researchers found five concepts repeated by many experts as overarching ideas: Effective writing instructors (1) recognize the impact their own writing beliefs, experiences, and practices have on their instruction; (2) encourage both motivation and engagement; (3) begin with clear, deliberate planning but can be flexible; (4) schedule daily instruction and practice; and (5) collaborate and scaffold with students (Zumbrunn & Krause, 2012, p. 347). Effective writing instructors' beliefs about writing influence their practices, planning, and instructional design.

Teacher Espoused Versus Enacted Beliefs

A large body of research exists on espoused versus enacted beliefs. The researchers in most of these studies chose to focus on only a single type of belief for their specific study. For example, Charalambous et al. (2002) focused specifically on teachers' philosophical beliefs, while others (Gibbons, Villafane, Stains, Murphy, & Raker, 2017;

Hodges, Wright, & McTigue, 2019; Strahan, 2016) focused solely on teachers' espoused beliefs. These studies that focused on a specific type of belief, rather than a more holistic approach involving both teacher beliefs and practices, are limited in their explanatory value. Thus, the narrow focus of single belief studies can lead to finding inconsistencies between belief and practice (Fives & Buehl, 2012).

Fives and Buehl (2012) identified a conflict in the extant literature with regards to teacher practices relating to teacher beliefs. The authors found that for each study that reported consistency between teacher beliefs and teacher practices, an equal number of studies reported inconsistencies between teacher's beliefs and practices. Similarly, Bereczki and Kárpáti (2018) reviewed studies focusing on creativity beliefs and how these teacher beliefs regarding creativity affected their enacted classroom practices. The researchers identified several disparities in the findings, including beliefs that both enabled and hindered the development of creativity in schools.

Further, Charalambous et al. (2002) found discrepancies between philosophical beliefs of teachers and their teaching practices, even while noting that philosophical beliefs remained congruent with content knowledge beliefs. Fives and Buehl (2012) postulated that the dualistic nature of teacher belief systems may contain discrepancies, such as believing science is constantly evolving yet teaching a traditional structure with rote memorization of facts (Bryan, 2003). The discrepancies between specific belief types and teaching practices evident within these examples (Bereczki & Kárpáti, 2018; Charalambous et al., 2002) exemplify the issues with examining beliefs in a nonholistic manner in comparison to holistic approaches that include both espoused and enacted

beliefs.

In examining the belief systems of a preservice elementary teacher, Bryan (2003) found that her case study participant had three foundational beliefs: (a) value of the educational subject, (b) nature of the subject's concepts, and (c) control in the classroom. Bryan also identified three beliefs categories where dualistic beliefs were found: (a) how children learn the subject, (b) the student's role, and (c) the teacher's role. She found that the teacher in her case study held dualistic beliefs that contained contradictory nested beliefs. The teacher believed students learned best by doing, but often taught using lecture. Bryan explained, "...[the findings] accentuate the complexity and nestedness of teachers' belief systems and underscore the significance of identifying prospective teachers' beliefs, [both] espoused and enacted" (p. 835). Complexity theory emphasizes the importance of both espoused and enacted beliefs in the classroom. With nested belief systems, teacher beliefs and practices can contradict one another yet still work within the teaching paradigm for the teacher. Nested beliefs occur when belief systems share some overlap without serving the same purpose (Bryan, 2003). Often these dualistic belief systems are described as discrepant (Bereczki & Kárpáti, 2018; Charalambous et al., 2002) and can impact classroom instruction. This could be seen in what the teacher believes to be best instructional practice (teaching approach) overlapping with beliefs about content and showing conflict regarding teaching strategies. A math teacher may believe that learning occurs best when kids are actively engaged and working through problems, but then approaches teaching using lecture and memorization of formulas. These belief systems are separate, but thay have some overlapping qualities. The conflict

comes when the overlapping components do not align with one another, creating dualistic belief systems.

Bryan (2003) posited that her findings highlight the importance of identifying espoused and enacted teacher beliefs. The inconsistency between espoused and enacted beliefs may also stem from alternative factors, including specificity, context, area/topic of belief, belief function (Fives & Buehl, 2012), or belief source (Fives & Buehl, 2008).

Beliefs can vary depending on level of generality or specificity. Different beliefs are espoused depending on context (Buehl & Alexander, 2005; Fives & Buehl, 2012). For example, beliefs may differ when giving instruction on writing structure, being highly specific such as "my students need clear modeling before they begin" versus student work time, where beliefs are more generalized like "students should work in groups." As the context shifts, so may the specificity. Context is important, and one of the issues within the literature is the gaps within specific subject areas. Table 1 provides a general understanding where these gaps in the literature exist.

As seen in Table 1, only a few studies have been conducted that examine English Language Arts teacher beliefs. One such study (Hammond, 2015), focused on pre-K to second-grade classroom teachers, found students' reading knowledge of great importance to the participant classroom teachers. Yet researchers found the participant literacy precursor skills to be low. Although teachers held the belief that reading knowledge was important, their enacted abilities demonstrated low levels of understanding The researchers concluded the enacted practices of the studied classroom teachers to be inconsistent with their teacher knowledge results. An additional study (Howard & Miller,

Table 1

Extant Literature on Teacher Beliefs

Content area	Author (Year)	Grade level investigated			
		Pre-service	Elem. School	Middle School	High School
Language arts	Hammond (2015)		x		
	Howard & Miller (2017)			x	
Science	Bryan (2003)		x		
	Lebak (2015)				x
	Lederman & Gess-Newsome (1989)	x			
	McLaury (2011)	x			
	Polly & Hannafin (2011)		x		
	Southerland & Gess-Newsome (1999)	x			
	Tobin & McRobbie (1997)				x
	Vaino (2009)				x
Mathematics	Mewborn (2002)	x			
	Negrieros (2017)		x		
	Polly et al. (2014)		x		
	Polly et al (2013)		x		
	Samaniego (2013)				x
	Song & Looi (2012)		x		
	Woodbury (2000)				x
History	Thornton (1995)				x
Multiple subjects	Buehl & Fives (2009)	x	x	x	x
	Chrysostomou & Philippou (2009)	x	x	x	x
	Fives & Buehl (2008)	x	x	x	x
	Kindberg (1999)			x	
	Polly & Hannafin (2011)		x		
	Tanriverdi (2012)	x			

2017) investigated characteristics and behaviors of an effective middle school English Language Arts teacher who taught in a school where the majority of students received free or reduced-fee lunch. The findings revealed three main themes related to the

examined teacher's beliefs, with a locus of enacted beliefs centered on classroom culture: (a) high expectations with follow through, (b) building up of individual relationships as well as classroom culture, and (c) self-authored actions through agency. These few studies on English Language Arts teacher beliefs indicate a gap where more research needs to occur to increase understanding, especially within the area of secondary English Language Arts writing instruction.

More research has been done in the field of teacher epistemic beliefs of science instruction than teacher epistemic beliefs of English Language Arts. Four studies examined the beliefs of preservice teachers within the field of science teaching. One such study, conducted by Lederman and Gess-Newsome (1989), found that preservice teachers believed that planning had two components, creation and mental rehearsal. They also identified twelve categories of concerns in preservice teacher beliefs that started with concerns for self and transitioned into concerns for students. Southerland and Gess-Newsome (1999) identified that preservice teachers approach science teaching with a positivistic approach, indicating that knowledge of science concepts and principles, teaching, and learning are fixed and unchangeable. These two studies provide an important understanding regarding the nature of preservice teacher beliefs, indicating their fixed, positivistic views.

A third study, conducted by Bryan (2003), identified both foundational beliefs as well as dualistic beliefs of elementary teachers. The foundational beliefs involved the value of science, classroom control, and the nature of science concepts and instructional goals. The dualistic beliefs were based categorically in beliefs of how children learn

science, the science student's role, and the science teacher's role. These dualistic beliefs had contradictory nests of beliefs within these categories, resulting in Bryan's argument of the nestedness and complexity of teacher beliefs.

The fourth study of preservice science teacher beliefs about science instruction was conducted by McLaury (2011). McLaury found that beliefs, not assessments, were the determinant for a participant's perception of success. Additionally, the author noted that challenges to these beliefs resulted in the challenges being ignored. Rather, new beliefs came from inter- and intrapersonal interactions. Both studies by Bryan (2003) and McLaury indicate the importance of understanding teacher beliefs because of their importance to classroom practice.

Teacher beliefs about science instruction at the high school level have also been examined. For example, Lebak (2015) found that the relationship between teacher belief and practice was complex, indicating that initially espoused beliefs were inconsistent with practice. Additionally, that some beliefs emerged as more influential on teacher practice than others. In a case study examining the espoused versus enacted beliefs of a chemistry teacher, Tobin and McRobbie (1997) found that the teacher's espoused beliefs regarding science opposed his enacted practice. Although he claimed science was evolving and changing, his practice was traditional, with concepts as fixed, unchanging facts to be memorized. Finally, Vaino (2009) identified beliefs to be one of three types: peripheral (espoused but not enacted), core (espoused and enacted), or emerging (new beliefs coming from Vaino's intervention). The idea of belief types indicates that the espoused and enacted beliefs of teachers are important to clarify and understand because

they do not necessarily align. More work needs to be done in different areas to better understand the issue.

In the field of mathematics, the majority of studies have focused on elementary classroom teachers. Mewborn (2002) followed a preservice teacher into their second year in the classroom, during which time the teacher's belief systems changed, due in part to the use of reflective thinking to enable belief change. In a separate study of elementary mathematics teacher beliefs, Negreiros (2017) gave evidence to indicate why school site matters. The study took place at a STEAM focused charter school with findings to indicate that teachers were more on board with STEAM instruction and reform to bring math instruction into real world situations. These findings indicate the importance of the study's context.

Song and Looi (2012) studied two elementary math teachers as they were given the same lesson to teach on division and fractions. The beliefs of the two teachers differed, which the authors claimed to be from the instructional practices differing. The authors argued that these differences, stemming from teacher belief differences, resulted in different student learning processes and outcomes.

Further research on teacher beliefs regarding mathematics instruction was conducted by Polly et al. (2014). Polly and colleagues found that professional development produces statistically significant changes in teacher knowledge, instructional practices, and beliefs regarding math and math instruction. In an earlier study, Polly et al. (2013) found a statistically significant relationship between teacher beliefs and instructional practices. Interestingly, the results showed no statistically

significant relationship between teacher beliefs and instructional practices when those beliefs and practices were related to student mathematics achievement. These studies show the vexing issue of the dualistic nature of espoused and enacted beliefs. Polly et al. (2013) exemplify the issue with their finding that variables (teacher beliefs compared to instructional practice versus instructional practice relating to student achievement) change the relationships between espoused beliefs and enacted practices.

In the high school setting, Samaniego (2013) evaluated a mathematics department in regard to the reforms or mandates given to them by their district or administration. Findings indicated that teachers did not simply adopt each mandate or reform, but rather evaluated each independently. If the teachers did not adopt them holistically, components of the reforms were not blended into instruction, but rather were discarded completely, giving a sense of the autonomy with which teachers work. Woodbury (2000) conducted a case study of four math teachers at two high schools, finding that teachers work with a great sense of autonomy, teaching in a unique manner based on what they believe is best for the needs of their students.

Thornton (1995) also conducted a case study, following a high school history student teacher. The author noted that ,even when there were perceived or real constraints on a teacher's autonomy, the teacher still held great power over shaping the curriculum of their classroom.

A number of studies involve multiple subjects and/or grade levels in their analysis of teacher beliefs. Fives and Buehl (2008) and Buehl and Fives (2009) produced articles based on research from a large group of preservice (n = 53) and practicing (n = 57)

teachers taking college courses. They identified that their teacher participants valued several aspects pertaining to teaching knowledge and that these teachers held complex beliefs regarding teaching ability (Fives & Buehl, 2008). The authors also identified teacher knowledge as stemming from six sources: (a) formal education, (b) formalized bodies of knowledge, (c) observational learning, (d) collaboration, (e) enactive experiences, and (f) self-reflection (Buehl & Fives, 2009, p. 367). Tanriverdi (2012) conducted a study of 632 preservice teachers, finding that preservice teachers who believed ability to learn was innate were only superficially motivated to learn, whereas preservice teachers who believed learning depended on effort were motivated at a deeper level to learn.

Examining the relationship between espoused and enacted beliefs, Kindberg (1999) conducted a two-person case study with a science teacher in their second year and an English Language Arts teacher in their nineteenth year who were on the same eighth grade team in their school. Kindberg found that the science teacher held espoused and enacted beliefs that aligned with one another, whereas the English Language Arts teacher demonstrated conflict between her espoused and enacted beliefs. Kindberg did not expand upon why these differences between the two teachers existed. Polly and Hannafin (2011) also conducted a two-person study with elementary teachers, finding little alignment between espoused beliefs and enacted practices.

The studies identified above show a sizeable amount of literature regarding teacher beliefs. The research has focused on teachers' beliefs about science and mathematics instruction more than other areas. Additionally, by examining the available

research, a gap has been identified within the research of teacher beliefs in the area of English Language Arts. The gap demonstrates a need for additional studies to further expand the knowledge base.

Foundational Learning Theories Informing Teacher Beliefs

A factor influencing teacher beliefs is their philosophical beliefs on the nature of knowledge and knowing. More specifically, in relation to their beliefs about writing instruction, it is plausible that their beliefs are founded upon one or more seminal learning theories. I have purposefully selected four learning theories to highlight for the current study. These four theories have been prominent in U.S. educational settings, both in practice (e.g., elementary and secondary level education) as well as teacher preparation programs. In what follows, I present an abbreviated overview of each theory that teachers are likely to draw upon for their classroom instruction. Detailed descriptions of each theory are beyond the scope of the present literature review.

Behaviorism. Learning is the result of a stimulus-response-reinforcement (Skinner, 1948). Pavlov (1927) first introduced the concept of stimulus-response learning as classical conditioning. Classical conditioning presents two simultaneous stimuli in a learning environment (Ormrod, 2018). An example of classical conditioning is the well-known study of the dog salivating to the sound of the bell. Pavlov introduced food to the dogs in his study at the same time he rang a bell. The dogs came to associate the sound of the bell with food and began salivating to the sound of the bell even when food was not presented.

Skinner (1948) built upon classical conditioning to include positive or negative reinforcement based on action, which became known as operant conditioning (Ormrod, 2018). Positive reinforcement occurs when something is added or given based on the action, which includes discipline, for example, a child misbehaves and receives a punishment of an additional chore. The addition of the chore is the positive reinforcement working to extinguish or deter the inappropriate behavior. Negative reinforcement occurs when something is taken away. A child screams when a snake is presented. Happy with the response, the researcher studying childhood responses removes the snake from the child's play area. The negative reinforcement encourages the child to scream when the snake is present in order to remove it. Operant conditioning in the classroom is seen in the changing of behavior through modification in classroom management. The use of operant conditioning is common through the use of external motivation based in reward/incentive systems based on a defined plan with a clear performance goal, whether behavioral or academic (Driscoll, 2005).

Cognitivism. Cognitive psychology, also referred to as information processing psychology (Nussbaum, 1999), studies how individuals process information in the act of learning or problem solving. Cognitive-information processing (CIP) theory views learning as information input with storage (putting new information into memory), encoding (making the information memorable enough to retain), and retrieval (the recall of stored information; Ormrod, 2018). The input of information is based on the idea that three forms of memory exist: sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory (Driscoll, 2005; Nussbaum, 1999). Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) posited that

information is passed from sensory memory into short-term/working memory, and finally into long-term memory. Working memory, which comes after sensory memory, is information using conscious thought and through encoding can be sent to long-term memory, which exists in subconscious thought (Driscoll, 2005; Ormrod, 2018).

Teachers who espouse cognitivism attempt to provide manageable chunks of information to students in a way that attaches the new learning to their existing schema (Anderson, 1978). An individual's schema acts as an organized network of propositions. Propositions are units of information that can be either visual or verbal representations (Nussbaum, 1999). Through the priming of prior knowledge, propositions can be added into the existing network. Additionally, schema theory supports the use of scaffolding activities that build upon one another to teach a large concept over multiple days, or through the use of an advanced organizer (Bruning, Schraw, & Norby, 2011; Driscoll, 2005) to chunk and track concept learning.

Developmental cognitivism (Piaget, 1984) argues that children and adolescents follow linear stages of development: Sensorimotor, Preoperational, Concrete, and Formal (Ormrod, 2018). The Sensorimotor Stage (birth ~ 2 years) defines perceptions and behaviors based on how children understand the world. Their understanding comes mainly from their physical interactions. The Sensorimotor Stage can be seen with an infant who refuses to crawl across a glass floor to get a toy based on their prior interactions with falling. Next follows the Preoperational Stage (2 ~ 6 or 7 years) where children begin to reason, though not always perceived by adults as logical. The Preoperational Stage allows for children to think and discuss things beyond just what

they have experienced. A child devising a ‘leprechaun trap’ reasons that when they climb the stuffed animal pile to admire the beautiful rainbow, they’ll fall through the stuffed animals and become trapped. In the Concrete Operations Stage (6 or 7 ~ 11 or 12 years), children are able to reason logically about concrete, realistic situations. Additionally, they can recognize differing perspectives. A child in the Concrete Operations Stage is able to talk through what happened on the playground and why it made Zoe upset but not Jane.

The final stage is Formal Operations, which stems from 11 or 12 years through adulthood. Abstract thinking and hypothetical situations can be logically processed, as well as more advanced reasoning used in science and math. Students at the Formal Operations Stage would be able to work through how to create a formula to find slope using problem-based learning, rather than memorizing a formula.

From a developmental cognitivist perspective, educators design instruction based on their students’ developmental stage. Further, state educational standards take into account student developmental stages when setting benchmarks for student achievement.

Socio-cultural theory. Vygotsky (1978) believed in the social origins of thinkin, positing that only through social activities can complex mental processes emerge. Adults convey to children, both informally as well as formally, how to culturally interpret and respond to their environment (Ormrod, 2018). One of the most powerful cultural tools that culture provides to learners is the tool of language. Early in life thought and language become interdependent and act as the strongest cognitive tools to enhance thinking ability (Ormrod, 2018).

Vygotsky’s (1978) theory emphasizes the use of teaching in a student’s Zone of

Proximal Development (ZPD) through the use of scaffolded instruction (Driscoll, 2005) and interactive problem solving with an adult or more experienced peer (Wink & Putney, 2001). Learning is what pulls development forward, with scaffolded instruction and intersubjective interaction helping drive internalization (Driscoll, 2005; Wink & Putney, 2001).

Social cognitive theory. Recognizing the key role that those around the learner have upon the learner and their abilities to learn, Bandura (1986) developed social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory is focused upon on modeling and agency, of which self-efficacy and triadic reciprocal causation are key elements. Additionally, social cognitive theory states that students learn through observation, modeling, realistic achievement expectations crafted collaboratively with teacher and student, and self-regulation (Bandura, 1997).

Teachers with a social cognitivist perspective approach instruction utilizing the ideas of social learning. A teacher may model a skill as an "I do" step, followed by "we do" which is guided instruction as a class, then "y'all do" where students work on the skills in groups, and ends with "you do" where students work on the skill independently.

These learning theories, along with others, are taught to preservice teachers in their university teacher preparation programs. Although many new studies expand or elaborate on these theories to better understand student learning in classroom settings, many teachers do not use research as their main tool to help guide instructional practice due to lack of accessibility or time (Nadelson & Jones, 2016; Nadelson et al., 2016). Rather, teachers rely on personal and shared experiences (Bandura, 2018; Jasparro &

Billups, 2012; Nadelson & Jones, 2016; Nadelson et al., 2016) and the blending of concepts from various theorists (Allen & Hunsaker, 2016; Fives & Buehl, 2012) to craft their personal teaching style (Miller, 2011).

Instructional approaches. Several studies exist regarding instructional approach and the impact of the approach upon student learning. These studies tend to disagree regarding efficacy and terminology. Studies demonstrating the disagreement within efficacy and terminology are identified below. While an exhaustive overview of instructional approaches is outside the purview of the present study, the following section includes studies most relevant to the current study.

In a longitudinal study focusing on dialogic classroom interactions, Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, and Prendergast (1997) identified four main instructional approaches that can happen individually or in conjunction with one another during the school day: teacher-centered, where direct instruction and lecture are frequently seen; student-centered, where small group discussions frequently occur; individual student conferencing, where students get one-on-one time with the teacher; or environmental, which attempts to balance student, teacher, activities, materials, and learning tasks. Nystrand et al. found that the largest effect size for writing performance was with using environmental groups at a mean effect size (*ES*) of 0.44. Natural process groups followed (*ES* = 0.19). Individual student conferences come in third (*ES* = 0.17) and the most common mode Nystrand et al. found, presentational, was fourth (*ES* = 0.02).

These effect sizes are not entirely in line with the meta-analyses conducted by Hattie (2009), who argued that the most important things a teacher can do is ensure

clarity (*ES* = 0.75), demonstrate and maintain credibility (*ES* = 0.90), have belief of the student's abilities for achievement (*ES* = 1.29), and do mini lessons or lesson reviews (*ES* = 0.88), indicating that teacher-led instruction may be more important than Nystrand et al.'s study would indicate. The disagreement supports Smagorinsky's (2009) argument that any practice can be a "best practice" for the "right teacher in the right situation" (p. 20) and can lead to great results.

Hattie's (2009) meta-analyses demonstrates what can be considered an effective practice based on the size of the studies involved with each meta-analysis, but Hattie's meta-analysis must not be considered the only resource to determine what works and what does not. If it could, the issues with low test scores nationwide (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2012; Salahu-Din, Persky, & Miller, 2008) would no longer be an issue.

Several studies have attempted to find the reason behind why no magic wand or "silver bullet" (Smagorinsky, 2009) exists that will fix educational deficiencies. One such argument is the significant differences teachers have when it comes to instructional approach, supporting the need for a better understanding of the influences on teachers' selections of instructional approaches.

Lipson, Mosenthal, Daniels, and Woodside-Jiron (2000) followed 11 teachers who each espoused the use of the process writing approach, which is nothing more than a more detailed version of Rohman's (1957) stages approach. Lipson et al. identified four distinct groupings or curricular styles based on the four administered belief scales the researchers assessed. The researchers posited four orientations to teaching and learning,

which they did not identify. Based on these four orientations, they assessed teacher beliefs via belief scales, finding four groupings: curricularist, inquiry, polytheoric, and minimalist. These four groupings differ from the four categories identified by Miller (2011).

Miller (2011) posited that four types of teachers exist, manifesting instructional approach differently in the classroom based on curricular styles: linear thinkers, holists, laissez-faire advocates, and critical theorists. Using Miller's curricular approach quiz, Jasparro and Billups (2012) identified patterns in the approaches of individuals regarding preparation. Study participants recognized that their "own personal style creeps into how and what I am teaching all the time" (p. 13) as teachers construct and rely upon a personal belief system regarding classroom education, working to meet state standards.

Teacher perceptions regarding writing, in terms of how and what they teach, are influenced by their curricular approach. Their curricular approach evolves with the teachers as they continually have new or repeating experiences in the classroom. These teacher beliefs directly impact writing instruction (Lipson et al., 2000). The differences in teacher beliefs create different interpretations of the process approach, "creating very different climates and purposes for writing" (Lipson et al., 2000, p. 227). Differences in teacher beliefs adds to Fitzgerald's (1993) argument that the impact of the teacher and her or his approach to how knowledge is gained creates different student experiences based on the beliefs of their teacher.

Theories Guiding Study Framework

Two theories will be combined for the framework guiding the current study. The first theory is social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). Sociocognitive theory addresses behavioral, personal, and environmental elements that both affect and are affected by one another, accounting for experience and self-efficacy. The second theory, complexity theory (Davis & Sumara, 2006), demonstrates how bounded systems, or systems nested within other systems, can seem at odds with one another. Using the dual lens of social cognitive theory with complexity theory provides a way of understanding the complexity of teacher beliefs (McQuitty, 2012).

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory has a primary focus on self-efficacy, including teacher efficacy. Educational researchers have argued that teacher efficacy influences teacher choices and decisions around instructional design and classroom learning activities (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Indeed, Bandura (1997) explained, "efficacy beliefs determine the choices people make at important decisional points" (p. 151), which teachers draw upon during curriculum creation and classroom implementation. Efficacy applies to English Language Arts teachers when they are designing and implementing writing instruction for their students.

Further, Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory contains a foundation of agentic perspective using triadic reciprocal determinism (Pajares, 2002). Triadic reciprocal determinism is also referred to as triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1997) as well as

triadic codetermination process of causation (Bandura, 2018). For the sake of consistency in the current study, the concept will be referred to as triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 1997).

Triadic reciprocal causation (TRC; Bandura, 2000) is the belief that each person both affects and is affected by three things: (a) personal or internal influences, which include a person's sense of agency and self-efficacy; (b) behavioral influences, including a person's innovation and their chosen response to their environment; and (c) environmental influences, which entail all external factors affecting the individual (Figure 1).

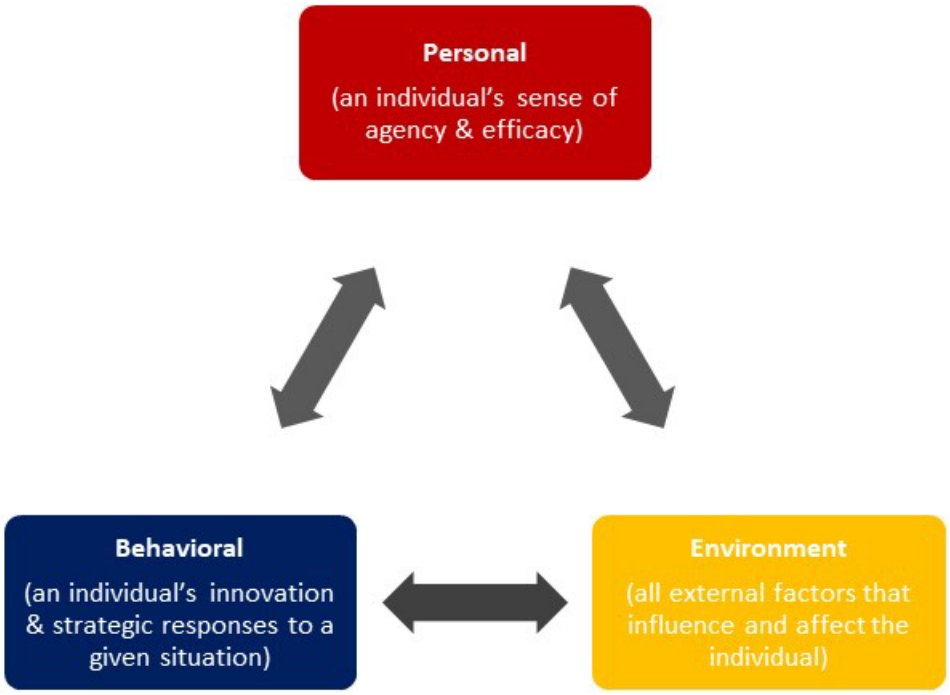


Figure 1. Bandura's (1997) triadic reciprocal causation.

Individuals, whether students or teachers, learn from what they work with and think upon internally, the behaviors they exhibit, and the environment in which they are working. According to Bandura (1997) a study that focuses solely on an individual's

cognitive processes is not able to explain all of the factors involved with learning. For example, a cognitivist perspective does not account for the environmental influences such as learning through observation, modeling, and social interactions. With students learning how to craft an essay, for example, students would affect and by affected by these three environmental influences. Specifically, the teacher models how to cite a source within the paper and then has students practice with their writing. When students have composed the first draft of their essay, they observe how the teacher would go about editing and giving feedback. Then students practice the skill by trading essays with a peer to edit and give feedback. These social cognitive elements accounts for the environmental influences inherent in the classroom environment.

Goddard, Goddard, Kim, and Miller (2015) argued that a social cognitive perspective was integral for studying teachers because it allowed for examinations of environmental influences, including the "enactive experiences" (p. 502) of teachers that can strengthen teacher's self-efficacy. Enactive experiences are the lived experiences that contribute to the individual or collective mastery.

Writing Through the Triadic Reciprocal Causation Lens

The writing process, like teaching, can be viewed through a social cognitive lens, lending itself to the idea of triadic reciprocal causation (Bandura, 2018). The feelings, thought processes, and social interactions of an individual all interconnect through individual and task environment (Perin, 2013).

The writing process and the teaching of writing are by their very nature social

actions as well as personal ones. Writing is “an attempt to create meaning, and in doing so, it reflects—is itself shaped by—literate, social, and cultural practices that existed long before the writer” (Flower, 1994, p. 9). Additionally, writing is a personal action used to understand, communicate, or express oneself.

Efficacy is a primary feature of the personal factor in Bandura’s (1997) TRC lens. Few studies exist that examine teacher efficacy toward writing instruction. One such study, conducted by Hodges et al. (2019) focused on preservice English Language Arts teachers preparing to teach middle grade students. Participants were asked to complete surveys related to their teacher efficacy for writing instruction as well as their self-efficacy for writing. Results indicated that although preservice teachers found value in the subject of writing, they had low teacher efficacy within a large number of writing instruction components. Behavioral factors, like a given response to a situation, affect and are affected by both personal and environmental factors in the TRC lens. Personal factors, such as efficacy, affect and are affected by environmental factors, like the task of writing.

The writing task environment involves both physical and social environments. The physical environment of a writing task includes such features as a classroom, the use of computer, or a graphic organizer. Further, the social environment can refer to either collaborative individuals or the writer’s audience (Perin, 2013). Perin posits that “[p]eer collaboration and audience awareness contribute in important ways” (p. 49) to a student’s writing. The need for a social environment in which to learn and practice writing is emphasized by researchers. Smith argued that “[p]eople don’t learn to write just by

writing; rather, they learn to write by talking throughout the process of writing so that their thinking about what they write is constantly critiqued and reinforced as it develops" (as cited in Smagorinsky, 2009, p. 160).

Complexity Theory

Complexity theory (Davis & Sumara, 2006) provides "a useful framework for theorizing and analyzing the overlapping, interacting influences impacting teachers' pedagogies" (McQuitty, 2012, p. 360). The second theoretical lens allows for the examination of the nestedness and interaction of systems that influence teachers based on perceptions, beliefs, and experiences (Davis & Sumara, 2006).

The world of education is in itself a complex system with various factors nested within or bounded to other systems (Davis & Sumara, 2006). Complexity theory allows the researcher to theorize and analyze influences that interact and overlap one another in their pedagogical impact of teachers (McQuitty, 2012). Fives and Buehl (2012) also identified with the complexity of teacher beliefs with teaching practices. They explained:

> A common refrain throughout the literature is the complexity of teacher beliefs. This complexity is evident in the host of belief topics that have served as inspiration for empirical study, as well as studies of the relations of beliefs to practice and belief change, (pp. 486-487)

To illustrate, in a case study by Bryan (2003), it was found that the participant classroom teacher held different nested beliefs regarding teaching, science content knowledge, and students. Certain belief categories, like content knowledge and students as learners, were dualistic, meaning they appeared to be opposing ideas. Other belief categories, Bryan found, held nested beliefs within other beliefs, such as beliefs regarding

science instruction within larger beliefs about teaching in general. Due to the dualistic and nested nature of teaching, Bryan claimed that congruency between espoused and enacted beliefs may or may not be evident. From the example, the necessity of examining teacher beliefs from within a framework including complexity theory will be useful. Through combining complexity theory with social cognitive theory, the understanding of different bounded systems and nestedness becomes more clear (Figure 2).

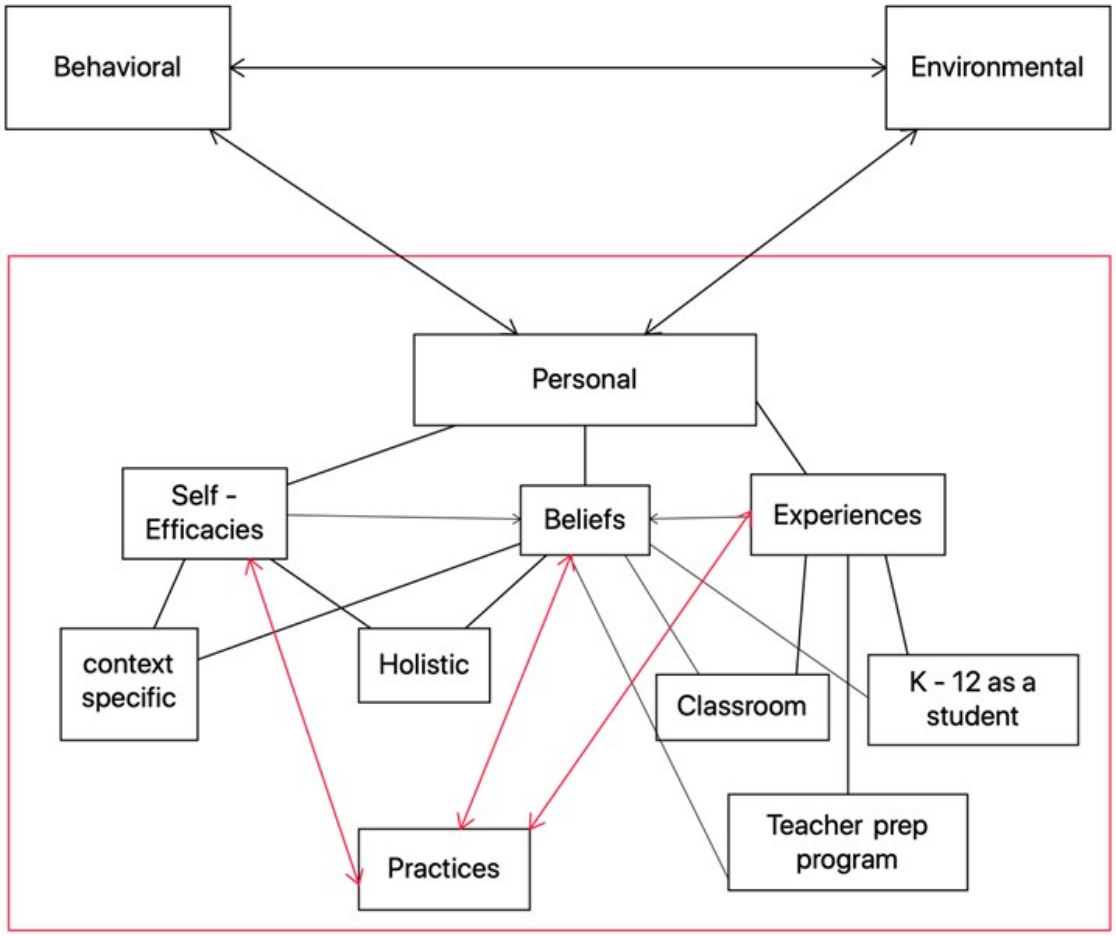


Figure 2. Social cognition and complexity theory of bounded systems.

Figure 2 is a visual representation of Bandura's (1997) TRC combined with complexity theory. The personal, behavioral, and environmental factors of the TRC

connect with bi-directional arrows to show that each factor both affects and is affected by one another. The red box encasing the personal factors shows the nested and bound systems being studied that are found within the personal factor of Bandura's TRC. Additional systems are outside the scope of the current study.

The first factor in the red box is self-efficacy, with dualistic nests (Bryan, 2003, Davis & Sumara, 2006) of holistic and content specific beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2012) of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The second factor is teacher beliefs, labeled here as beliefs, which are fed by experiences (Bandura, 2000) and self-efficacy (Curtis, 2017). The third factor is experiences, which have been shown to affect belief systems (Bandura, 2000; Bandura, 2006; Buehl & Fives, 2009). These factors act as co-existing, bounded belief systems within the personal factor of Bandura's (1997) TRC lens.

Writing Instruction

Through an examination of the literature on writing instruction approaches, three themes were prominent. First, the process writing approach and its use and emphasis within the classroom have been investigated in several studies. The second prominent theme was the effect of an emphasis on grammatical correctness on what teachers perceive as 'good writing'. Finally, a third theme was research-based practices by prominent researchers that affects classroom practice. The following sections provide more detail on each of the three predominant themes of writing instruction research.

Process writing approach. Writing researchers argue that the approaches to teaching writing must work in tandem with the nature of or the process of writing itself in order to be successful (Calkins, 1978; Emig, 1971; Graves, 1979; Kinloch & Ozier,

2011). These approaches to writing instruction are built upon Rohman's (1957) stages/process writing model. Rohman's (1957) stages model, describes three stages of writing: (1) pre-writing, in which students brainstorm ideas and concepts of the topic they will write about, (2) writing, where students construct a formal written text based on their pre-writing stage brainstorming, and (3) post-writing, in which students examine their own writing or that of a peer in order to edit and provide feedback for improvement. These stages, or writing processes, are arguably more important than the final product itself because of the learning that takes place during the activity (Calkins, 1978; Kinloch & Ozier, 2011).

By separating the writing stage from the editing and revision stage (Emig, 1971; Graves, 1979), students can focus on correctness after the ideas have been expressed, freeing up the working memory for the executive function (Kellogg, 2004) of identifying grammatical correctness (Daiute, 1981) to begin. Researchers may rebrand them with the addition of stages, like the Writer's Workshop (Strout, 1970) or Process Writing (Seow, 2002), but the idea of writing stages remains a "best practice" in classrooms, showing modest gains for both the general population as well as at-risk and struggling writers (Graham & Sandmel, 2011).

Rohman's (1957) stages model was the foundation for the process model, which has become the dominant focus of writing research since the late 1970s with the "writing process movement" (Ede, 2004). Although the focus may shift, the base of new or encouraged ideas in research, such as modeling (DuCharme, Earl, & Poplin, 1989; Gallagher, 2014) or reading as writers (Auten, 1983; Doubet & Southall, 2018;

Gallagher, 2014; Langer & Applebee, 1986), still returns to Rohman's (1957) research on the stages model with a prewriting, writing, and post-writing or revision stage (Gallagher, 2014; What Works Clearinghouse, 2016).

The NCES recommends (What Works Clearinghouse, 2016) including the explicit teaching of writing strategies using model-practice-reflect (Gallagher, 2014). The model-practice-reflect strategy, the latest evolution of Rohman's (1957) stages model, is also referred to as the gradual release model (Fisher & Frey, 2003). The NCES, in recommending the explicit teaching of writing strategies, emphasizes the integration of teaching reading and writing together (Auten, 1983; Doubet & Southall, 2018; Gallagher, 2014; Langer & Applebee, 1986). The NCES also encourages the use of assessment to inform instruction (Andrade, Buff, Terry, Erano, & Paolino, 2009; Berger, Rugen, & Woodfin, 2014; Brimi, 2012; Nadelson et al., 2016) basing instruction or reteaching on student need.

Grammatical correctness as a sign of good writing. The building block theory of writing development (Lynch & Evans, 1963) focuses on sentence sense and making sentence components clear and simple for readers. In reference to the building block theory, McCabe (1971) argued that if a teacher grading a paper noticed sentence fragments or run-on sentences, the evidence of these errors would cue the teacher to believe the student lacked "sentence sense" (p. 509). The syntactical deficiency would signal the teacher of the need to return to basic instruction on syntactical structures, regardless of the writing content. The same would follow for the five-paragraph essay structure and proper paragraph development.

The syntactical focus of writing composition continues to permeate English Language Arts instruction and explains the strong association between grammar and writing (Hillocks, 2013). The focus on syntax also explains why current textbooks devote more pages to grammar and writing mechanics than to writing and rhetoric (Hillocks, 2013).

Elementary and secondary grade teachers studied by Hillocks (2013) reported preparing extensively for writing instruction, though only multi-paragraph writing was mentioned, even at the elementary level, with no other genres stated. Additionally, Hillocks found that even if teachers did not claim to focus on teaching grammar, it was a focus when grading students' writing assignments. The finding indicates that even when teachers are not focusing on grammar, the perception of good writing still remains sentence sense (McCabe, 1971) and the building block theory of writing development (Lynch & Evans, 1963). From Hillocks' illustrative study, it can be argued that teachers' espoused beliefs do not always align with their classroom practices, especially in writing instruction.

Research-based writing instruction in secondary grades. The main research focus of secondary grade writing instruction is of specific interventions indicating statistically significant results. Writing instruction studies indicate that explicit and systematic instruction of writing strategies, summarization strategies, collaborative writing and specific product goals are all effective in the classroom (Graham & Perin, 2007). In addition to explicit writing strategies and specific goals, evidence-based practices also include process-focused peer collaboration, self-regulated strategies

development (SRSD) instruction, motivation, creativity/imagery, the building of vocabulary skills, and feedback (both adult and peer) as highly effective evidence-based writing practice interventions (Graham, Harris, & Chambers, 2017).

Recent focus on improving writing has taken many approaches that examine not only methods, but format and timing. For example, researchers have utilized specific intervention programs to improve writing, such as implementing blended learning to teach writing (Camahalan & Ruley, 2014) or created a senior year rhetoric and writing course to ensure students are college-ready (Moss & Bordelon, 2007). Other researchers have focused on examining specific writing process components; for example, the linguistic effect of writing prompts (Crossley, Varner, & McNamara, 2013), using strategic revision instruction (Dinkins, 2014) or expository text writing instruction in social studies (Taylor, 1985). Researchers have also examined the value of feedback within the writing process (Patthey-Chavez et al., 2004).

The vastness of the research-based practices identified within the extant literature suggest that focusing on a writing component can improve that specific component within student writing. The major factor is what is being taught versus omitted (Eisner, 2002), and what efficacies teacher feel they have (Bandura, 2018) that affect what is taught.

Summary

The review of the literature covers self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and addresses the significant impact teacher efficacy has on the classroom and student achievement

(Arik, 2018; Hattie, 2009). Following the discussion of teacher self-efficacy, the review of extant literature moves into the field of teacher beliefs. Teacher epistemic beliefs are reviewed as not only knowledge and the nature of knowing (Hofer, 2002), but also how teachers use their knowledge and nature of knowing to define each teaching task (Esterly, 2003). Although teacher beliefs are epistemic in nature, the majority of research available focused on espoused and enacted beliefs.

A review of the studies exemplifying the field of espoused and enacted teacher beliefs showed the literature gap in the area of secondary writing instruction because the majority of studies examined were in the field of mathematics or science. An examination of foundational learning beliefs that inform teacher beliefs reviewed the four prominent theories in U.S. education: behaviorism (Skinner, 1948), cognitivism (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968) and developmental cognitivism (Piaget, 1984), socio-culturalism (Vygotsky, 1978), and social cognitivism (Bandura, 1986). A review of instructional approaches followed, showing the discord present among various studies.

The two theories guiding the framework of the current study were examined. Social cognition's theory of triadic reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1997) and bounded and nested systems within complexity theory (Davis & Sumara, 2006) both explain phenomena within the field of education and provide a lens through which to understand the collective case studies being presented. Finally, extant literature focuses of writing instruction were discussed thematically through writing process, grammar, and research-based practices. None of the focuses within writing instruction use or focus on teacher beliefs, once again indicating a gap in the literature.

Research Questions

The purpose of the current study is to better understand the perceived and enacted beliefs of high school English Language Arts teachers, how they inform writing instruction practices, and how these perceptions and beliefs associate with various teacher efficacies of writing instruction at the high school level. The following questions guided the current study.

1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching?
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?
3. How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the current study is to explore the espoused and enacted beliefs of experienced high school English Language Arts teachers of varying backgrounds and the various self-efficacy associated with these beliefs within the realm of writing instruction. Furthermore, this study explored how beliefs, both espoused and enacted, affect classroom writing instruction. The research questions guiding the study were as follows.

1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching writing?
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?
3. How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?

The chapter begins with an explanation of the study design and proposed procedures, followed by a description of the measures. Next, a section explaining participant selection and background will be provided. I then give a detailed overview of data collection and proposed qualitative analyses approaches. Trustworthiness will be the final section provided before a summary of the chapter.

Positionality of the Researcher

For the current study, I took on the role of observer. Potential Hawthorne effect (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007) issues were likely minimized because I conducted the research at a high school in which participating teachers and their students know me and are comfortable with me being in their classrooms. To illustrate, during one observation,

when a student questioned my presence, another student jumped in with “Hi Schoepf!” and with that my presence became minimal. This was common in each classroom as at least one student knew me already and waived my presence away with other students following suit. Additionally, the teacher participants each have longstanding careers. I believed that these highly experienced English Language Arts teachers were less likely to change classroom instructional behaviors to try to accommodate what they perceive me to be looking for than a less experienced teacher might be inclined to do.

Researcher effect must be recognized because the participants are familiar with me based on our working together at the selected high school. Complexity theory addresses the issue of researcher effect. Davis and Sumara (2006) explained, “the researcher is always already entangled in the phenomenon researched” (p. 15). They argued that the reciprocal systems researchers are a part of are “shaped by and contribut[e] to the shapes of the phenomena in ways and to extents that they simply cannot know” (p. 15). In order to counter or reduce researcher effect for the study, I was a silent observer within the English Language Arts classrooms studied. I listened openly and objectively to each teachers’ responses during interviews, and focused on most accurately representing each teacher.

Finally, researcher bias must be addressed. I acknowledge my teaching perspective and also recognize from an interpretivist standpoint that there is no one correct answer of how best to teach. I recorded participants’ answers precisely as they were stated or written. I used a qualitative data analysis software program to help with primary coding as a way of mitigating researcher bias. I do recognize, however, that it is

possible for some of my background experiences as an English Language Arts teacher to influence my interpretation of the data.

Study Design

The current study used a collective case study design (Stake, 1995), analyzing each case study by itself as well as a cross-case analysis among participants. A case study is an in-depth examination of a time-bound activity, event, or process that can involve one or more people, yielding detailed and various information over a period of time (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The use of a collective case study involves multiple case studies which can be evaluated and analyzed alongside one another (Stake, 1995) The collective case study design was chosen for the study because "[e]ach case study is instrumental to learning…but there will be important coordination between the individual studies" (Stake, 1995, p. 4).

Utilizing a case study approach allowed for the examination of "a real-life, contemporary context or setting" (Creswell, 2013, p. 97) where information could be explored and understood within the context from which it came. Participants, or individual cases, were selected with purposeful sampling to provide a heterogenous grouping from within a larger pool. Purposeful sampling allows the researcher to select heterogenous cases that are representative of the population (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) as I progress through my study (Table 2).

Table 2

Study Timeline

Events	Timeline
Participant invitation	Week 1
Informed consent Teacher questionnaire Kermit and the keyboard analysis	Week 1
Individual interview (semistructure) Transcript member-checking	Weeks 2-3
Classroom observation #1, #2, #3 Field notes member-checking	Weeks 3-5
Coding of data	Weeks 6-8
Inter-rater reliability check	Weeks 9-10
Analysis of data	Weeks 11-15
Reporting of findings, interpretation	Weeks 16-25

Participants

The teachers who were invited to participate in the current study were longstanding career teachers who came from varying backgrounds and regions within the U.S. Teaching experience ranged from 12 to 36 years, with 4 to 21 years at the school site. Each teacher had a variety of enacted experiences that provided unique perspectives to examine (Table 3). No two teachers held parallel experiences or teaching styles and their variety provided greater insight into teacher beliefs and how varied and yet similar teachers within the same English department can be. These participants made a heterogenous grouping for analysis because of their unique backgrounds and experiences, though each had chosen to teach at the same secondary school for their career. A more detailed description of each participant is included in the final reporting of the study.

Inclusion criteria for the participants included teachers having a minimum of 4 years of teaching experience at the secondary school site selected. With teacher evolution

Table 3

Case Study Demographic Experiences

Participant	Years taught	Years at school	Grades taught	Other subjects
Annie	17	6	6-12	Creative Writing, Reading
Crystal	36	20	K-12	Mathematics, Reading
Jo March	12	4	9-12	AP Lit/Lang, History, Reading, Special Education
Mary Shelley	12	12	9-12	AP Lit/Lang, History
Zelda Fitz	21	21	9-12	AP Lit/Lang, Journalism

of beliefs occurring within the first few years of teaching (Fives & Buehl, 2012), the prerequisite of 4 years teaching experience in English Language Arts increased the likelihood that these participants were firm in the teacher beliefs they hold. In addition, participants must have had the appropriate degrees and certifications to be considered "highly qualified" by the state of Utah to teach secondary level English Language Arts.

Two teachers within the department were removed from consideration to participate in the study. One teacher asked to not participate because the idea of being in the study caused her anxiety. Another teacher was eliminated without being asked to participate due to her double knee surgery that was scheduled during the middle of the study and took her out of the classroom for twelve weeks. Three teachers did not meet the inclusion criteria and were not invited to participate in the study. Five teachers met inclusion criteria and agreed to participate with an attrition rate of 0.

Study Site

The secondary school site was selected based upon the variety of educational

background and experience of the teachers in the English Language Arts department, as well as the willingness of the department and school administration to participate in the study. The principal at the selected secondary school provided a written letter of consent for his teachers to participate in the proposed study (see Appendix D).

At the time of the study, this suburban high school had a 20% rate of students receiving free or reduced lunch and offered classes to approximately 2,300 students with a wide range of socioeconomic status. The school was held in good regard by the community with over 500 students gaining special permits to attend the school outside of their assigned school zone.

Testing was important to administration, but with above state-average testing scores each year, teachers were trusted to prepare students for end-of-year state testing through their department meetings rather than administrative oversite. Departments were given time almost weekly throughout the school year to meet and collaborate, though uniformity was not required. Teachers of the same course were encouraged to collaborate and share formative or summative assessments, though any data collected through shared assessments stayed within the department for discussion and collaboration purposes.

Teachers were given significant autonomy in their classrooms, though the district provided them with a list of approved books and a curriculum map based on state standards to follow to ensure that students were learning the same state standards at roughly the same time. The curriculum maps were constructed with students in mind, rather than with an attitude of forcing teaching alignment and uniformity across classrooms. The district-held belief behind the curriculum maps was that if students

transferred classes or schools within-district that they would be able to continue the skills they were learning with their prior classes into their new classes. The standards and general overarching themes were provided through the curriculum maps, though the day-to-day lessons and other activities that led students to their unit goals were left up to each teacher's discretion.

The trust and autonomy of teachers to use their agency to teach the way they believed best for their students in meeting the state standards influenced the selection of the school site. While the school and district provided parameters for curriculum and learning outcomes, teachers were trusted to meet the expectations of the school and district in the way they believed best. This allowed for a study of espoused and enacted beliefs to thrive within the educational environment. The trust in teachers as professionals as well as the relative uniformity in student population across all five classrooms examined allowed for a rich study of teacher beliefs and enacted practices.

Instruments

The Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), consists of 12 open-ended questions related to espoused teacher beliefs. Sample items include: Question 4: What knowledge is necessary for effective teaching? Please be specific. Question 5: Describe your philosophy of teaching.

Kermit and the Keyboard (Driscoll, 2005) is a short text passage that aligned with the items on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008). Kermit and the Keyboard included an open-ended item, "Read the following story entitled "Kermit

and the Keyboard." After reading the story "Kermit and the Keyboard," analyze the teaching and learning elements you identified while reading. Then break down those components and what they mean in terms of teaching and learning." The purpose of the instrument is to provide participant information related to analyzing a classroom situation and its alignment with the participant's espoused teaching beliefs.

An open-ended semistructued interview protocol, found in Appendix C, consisted of ten items intended to gain insights of individual participants' teacher efficacy across writing instruction components. Sample items included: What is most important to teach when it comes to writing an essay and why? When it comes to teaching writing, what do you feel you do really well and why?

Procedures

An overview of the study procedures is outlined in Table 4, including the phases of the study, procedures occurring during each phase, and the products of these procdures.

Phase one of the study was purposeful sampling that was conducted during the case selection process. In phase two, data was collected in four parts. Part one (teacher questionnaire) and part two (Kermit and the Keyboard analysis) occurred simultaneously with part three (individual interview) and part four (classroom observations) following within 14 days of the teacher questionnaire and Kermit and the Keyboard analysis. Phase three of my study consisted of data analysis, including within-case as well as cross-case

Table 4

Procedure Overview

Phase	Procedure	Product
Case selection	• Purposeful sampling	• Participants (n = 5)
Data collection	• Teacher Belief Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) • Kermit and the Keyboard analysis (Driscoll, 2005) • Interviews with transcription • Classroom observation with field notes	• Individual and cross-case survey results (n = 5) • Individual and cross-case analysis (n = 5) • Text data for individual and cross-case analysis (n = 5) • Text data for individual and cross-case analysis (n = 5)
Data analysis	• Content analysis • Coding analysis • Thematic analysis	• Codes and themes • Code-based Categories • Thematic Categories
Interpretation	• Individual and cross-case interpretation and explanation of results	• Theme development to answer research questions, discussion, implications, and future research

in the collective case study. Phase four study was the interpretation of the data analysis in order to answer the research questions, discussion, implications, and future research.

Data Collection

Permission to conduct the current study was received from Utah State University IRB as well as through the local school district IRB. The high school principal at the site location granted permission for the study (see Appendix D).

After participants were selected, I sent each an invitation through email to take part in the study (see Appendix A). When a teacher agreed to participate in the study, I scheduled dates for the individual interviews and classroom observations (see Table 3 for study timeline). At that same time, I provided each teacher with the link to the Qualtrics

online survey to complete demographics questions, the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), and Kermit at the Keyboard story analysis (Driscoll, 2005). The surveys were completed by participants independently and at a time convenient to them within 14 days of agreeing to participate in the study.

Online Survey

Data collection began with having participants access the Qualtrics online survey for the study. The first document that appeared in the study survey is the Informed Consent Form (Appendix B). Each teacher had to check the box that indicated they agreed to participate in the study. They were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and should they decide not to agree to participate in the study, they would be immediately closed out of the Qualtrics survey.

Individuals all marked the box indicating they agreed to participate in the study and proceeded to complete the first survey, involving demographics questions, the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008; see publisher for questionnaire), followed by reading the "Kermit and the Keyboard" text (Driscoll, 2005; see publisher for story). After reading the story, participants were asked to answer an open-ended question, in a brief written reflection, related to the Kermit text. The demographics questions were:

1. Please give yourself a pseudonym that will be used throughout the study to keep you anonymous.
2. How many years have you been teaching? Please list in whole years, including the current year.
3. How many years have you been at your current school? Please list in whole years, including the current year.

4. What grades have you taught in your career?
5. What subjects have you taught, if anything, besides English Language Arts?
6. Why did you become a teacher?
7. Why did you select your current school for your career?

Individual Interviews

Each participant was asked to complete a semistructured individual interview (Appendix C). The purpose of the interviews was to provide an opportunity for each teacher to dig deeper into her teacher beliefs and espoused practices based on her responses to Teacher Beliefs questionnaire items (Fives & Buehl, 2008). Interview questions flowed and changed depending upon participant answers. Each interview lasted approximately 20 to 45 minutes and was audio-recorded. These interviews were scheduled at a time convenient for each participant and took place within their classroom.

Classroom Observations

I conducted three classroom observations for each participant. Each classroom observation took approximately 90 minutes. Participants were asked to select a day that their lesson would be primarily focused on writing instruction. By allowing the participants to select their observation days, each participant could decide which lessons would provide the most accurate representation of her teaching of writing instruction.

My observation notes focused on detailing the writing instruction activities, noting teacher-student interactions and teacher responses to student speech and behaviors. I made note of the classroom environment, including arrangement of desks and artifacts on classroom walls. No student names were recorded in my field notes. I

used generic descriptions in place of actual student names so I was able to track all student-teacher interactions, as well as multiple interactions the teacher had with a specific student. After each classroom observation was completed, I reviewed my field notes and to add my reflections and insights to them for future analysis information.

Data Analysis

The collection of rich data (Agar, 1994) in this study was analyzed after each case study had all four components of data collected. Data from all four components were coded using a priori terms from extant literature as well as through emergent coding (Saldaña, 2016) in order to analyze and interpret both latent and manifest meanings (Berg, 2001) as indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Coding Type for Analyses

Research question	Instrument	Coding type	Analysis source(s)
1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching?	• Teacher belief survey • Text analysis • Interview • Classroom observation	A priori coding Emergent coding	• Fives & Buehl (2008, 2012) • Buehl & Fives (2009) • Saldaña (2016) • Berg (2001)
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?	• Teacher belief survey • Text analysis • Interview • Classroom observation	A priori coding Emergent coding	• Fives & Buehl (2008, 2012) • Buehl & Fives (2009) • Saldaña (2016) • Berg, (2001)
3. How do teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?	• Teacher belief survey • Text analysis • Interview • Classroom observation	A priori coding Emergent coding	• Fives & Buehl (2008, 2012) • Buehl & Fives (2009) • Saldaña (2016) • Berg, (2001)

Throughout the data analysis process, the following a priori terms and associated codes were used based on extant literature. Level One a priori codes were generated from the three belief functions identified by Fives and Buehl (2008) based on administration of the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire. I used these same categories as Level One a priori codes (Table 6; Saldaña, 2016) throughout the study. These functions served as a guide for each participant response to be coded as one of these three functions.

Table 6

A Priori Codes: Level 1

Code category	A priori terminology
Belief functions	Filters for interpretation Frames for defining problems Guides or standards for action

Level Two a priori codes (Saldaña, 2016) were generated from the teacher belief categories (Fives & Buehl, 2008) and the sources of teaching knowledge (Buehl & Fives, 2009) identified from their administration of the Teacher Beliefs questionnaire (Table 7). These categories and knowledge sources, in conjunction with the identification of the belief function, allow for a better understanding of the teacher beliefs based upon a priori coding.

I used emergent coding after the initial use of the a priori codes in order to examine the data with a finer grained analysis. Only one emergent code, motivation, was discovered within the questionnaire, story analysis, and interview. This emergent code, while not a major belief for any case study, was found in all case studies and across all instruments. In examining the observations, emergent coding became central to

Table 7

A Priori Codes: Level 2

Code category	A priori terminology
Belief topics	Self Context or environment Content or knowledge Specific teaching practices Teaching approach Students
Knowledge sources	Formal education Formalized bodies of knowledge Observational learning Collaboration with others Enactive experiences Self-reflection

examining concrete facts from my field notes. Examples of emergent codes discovered from the observations included: (a) technology use, (b) lesson scaffolding evidence, (c) manipulatives use, (d) teacher instruction, and (e) independent work time, and (f) technology use. Emergent coding in observation field notes focused on the "what" being observed without assumptions of "why." The belief was that I could associate the practices and the what from the observations with the beliefs espoused to more clearly identify the enacted practices without worry of researcher bias.

Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire

The Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) allowed for teachers to contemplate and reflect on their espoused practices from a holistic perspective. The teacher responses, in turn, provided a foundational set of data related to teacher's beliefs that were used in comparison with individual teacher interviews.

I manually coded the data gathered from the questionnaire responses using a priori codes and then analyzed the data (Saldaña, 2016) using MAXQDA software. I first analyzed the questionnaire data, coding for belief sources (Fives & Buehl, 2012), belief functions (Buehl & Fives, 2009), and belief categories (Fives & Buehl, 2008). All questionnaires were uploaded and manually coded using a priori codes to identify patterns and frequency with which both latent and manifest meanings are referenced by the participant.

Figure 3 provides an example of the coding done for the questionnaire. For example Question 3.3 asks "Is teaching a talent people are born with? Please explain." This question was coded as addressing Research Question One because of the focus on teaching in general. Additionally, the response was coded as a filter for interpretation through which she sees the world of teaching based on personal opinions. Filters for interpretation do not focus on a guide for action or a frame for how a teacher would define a problem.

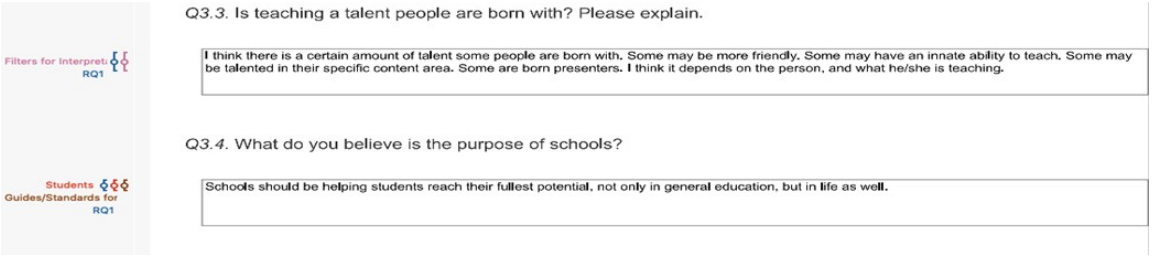


Figure 3. Questionnaire coding sample.

The participants' response to question 3.4 on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire, "What do you believe is the purpose of schools?" was coded as addressing Research Question One, as well as coded as acting as a guide or standard for action and as a belief

regarding students. I coded the response as addressing "Research Question One" because of the generality of teacher belief identified in the phrase, "I think there is a certain amount of talent some people are born with." I coded the response as "a guide or standard for action" because of the action words "should be" and "helping." Finally, I also included the code "students" because the response focused on students and what should be done to help them. The use of keywords or overarching ideas guided the coding process, and was used for a priori codes throughout the questionnaire, story analysis, and interview for all cases.

After the responses were manually coded for both latent and manifest meanings, the responses were reviewed within- and across-questionnaire responses to identify patterns in order to categorize common themes and be comparatively examined across the data from the other components (Table 8).

Table 8

Data Analysis: Component One

Description	Analysis
• Code all questionnaire responses using a priori categories and emergent codes	• Frequency counts for all codes within- and cross-case
• Review codes	• Identify patterns
• Identify common themes based on patterns	• Comparison of commonalities cross-case

Story Analysis

Analysis of participants responses to Driscoll's (2005) story of "Kermit and the Keyboard" were coded based on a priori codes (Tables 6 and 7), and emergent codes. I

used MAXQDA software to thematically code and analyze the participant responses as described above with the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire data. These codes were reviewed within and across participant responses in order to identify patterns. These patterns were used to classify common themes and were examined comparatively with the other study components (Table 9).

Table 9

Data Analysis: Component Two

Description	Analysis
• Code responses using a priori and emergent codes • Review codes and frequency counts • Identify common themes based on patterns	• Frequency counts for all codes within- and cross-case • Identify patterns • Compare themes cross-case

Figure 4 provides a snippet from a Kermit and the Keyboard story analysis response shows the same use of a priori coding as seen in the questionnaire. Examples of coding include the formal education code chosen for the phrase “Kermit had formal music training.” A priori coding was used exclusively across each of case study for this instrument as well as the questionnaire and interview. A new code, motivation, was made visible when I reviewed the data. Motivation was noted across the case studies in their survey responses and in their classroom observations in addition to the story analysis.

I then included motivation as a code within MAXQDA to assist with the analysis. Motivation was coded in pink with pink brackets. For instance, the example snippet shows motivation coded in the last three lines, as identified by the pink bracket, with reference to “he has made his own goal and figured out how he wants to get there” and with “I would suggest he keep trying different music or groups so he doesn’t get

bored…" Motivation was also identified with response phrase "keep him interested." The overarching theme of this section of the response is not only how Kermit motivated himself, but in how the participant suggested how Kermit could maintain motivation. Keywords indicating this idea are "goal" as well as "trying different" and "so he doesn't get bored."

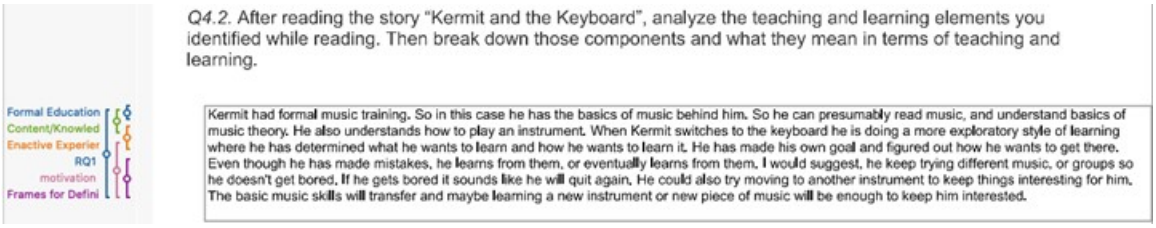


Figure 4. Kermit and the Keyboard coding sample.

Personal Interview

Semistructured individual participant interviews (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) were audio-recorded and transcribed using SONIX.IX software. Next, I coded the transcribed interviews using the a priori codes (Tables 6 and 7) as well as the emergent codes in order to identify latent and manifest meanings. Key terms from these coded interview transcripts were used comparatively within- and cross-case as well as across components (Table 10).

Table 10

Data Analysis: Component Three

Description	Result
• Transcription of each interview verbatim • Coding of transcript • Identification of key words/terminologies • Key terms compared to questionnaire responses	• Single-spaced pages of interview notes • Identification of codes and themes • Key terms compared within- and cross-case • Connection of words/terms to associated questionnaire content and patterns

Figure 5 shows the same coding procedures used with the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire and the story analysis were used for coding of the personal interviews. Keywords and overarching ideas were used to determine coding using a priori codes and emergent codes in the same manner as the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire and the story analysis for all cases. The brackets indicate where in the response the code is used. The colors of the brackets are matched to the colors of the a priori and emergent codes listed. For example the top of the sample shows the respondent discussing her mentor teacher and her learning from her student teaching. This section is coded as observational learning, as indicated by the green bracket.

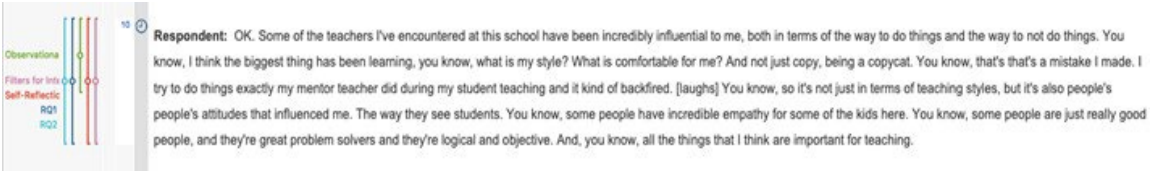


Figure 5. Interview coding sample.

Classroom Observations

Classroom observation field notes were taken using concrete language (Spradley, 1980). Field notes granted insight into enacted teacher beliefs through observed classroom behaviors and practices to provide comparative data both within-case as well as cross-case for the current collective case study. Field notes focused on teacher instruction, student action/behavior, and teacher response.

Field notes were coded and analyzed with emergent codes from both manifest and latent meanings to provide context within the analysis of each classroom observation using MAXQDA software. These coded observation field notes were compared to the analysis of components one through three within- and cross-case (Table 11).

Table 11

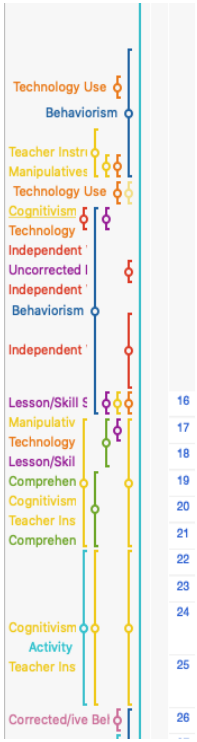
Data Analysis: Component Four

Description	Result
• Field notes coded by action • Field notes coded using theoretical approach • Reviewing of all coding	• Contextualization for coding • Frequency counts for within- and cross-case analysis • Identification of patterns and themes

The field notes that were coded for observations of all case studies were done using emergent codes, as seen in Figure 6. A priori codes were not used for the coding of enacted practices. The top code listed in Figure 6 is the term technology use, coded based upon the reference to student computer use. Technology use is identified four lines later in this data set this time from the teacher projecting content onto the whiteboard.

Emergent codes were created based upon overarching ideas and were not specific to any one case study or observation. These emergent codes were used throughout all observations for all case studies. For example, handout and graphic organizer were both coded as manipulatives because they were something that the students could physically work with. I created emergent codes based upon keywords and overarching ideas within the fieldnotes. For instance, any time the term “teacher tells” was used, the code “teacher instruction” was used. Student behavior was either coded as corrected/corrective or uncorrective with the intention that the behavior was neither positive or negative, simply whether or not the teacher chose to address it.

As a visual learner, I needed to be able to “see” where my codes were and how emphasized they were based on frequency. To find patterns and themes, I exported a



Observation #1 – JM – 11/18/19

Bell rings to end lunch.
Teacher opens the door for students to start coming in and then goes to get Chromebooks from the teacher partner she shares with nearby.
Teacher brings the cart in and students immediately start getting their computers before returning to their seats.
The students are loud and talkative as they get their computers and get to their seats.
Bell rings and teacher immediately greets class in a loud voice to quiet class and get them directed toward Membean.
Teacher tells them that when they finish their Membean minutes that they'll put their Chromebooks away and get out their Thoreau sources.
The agenda, learning objectives, and homework are projected onto the front board, and have been since students started walking in.
There are still some whispered conversations and students are mostly on task.
Teacher moves to the back of the room to give instructions to her TAs for a project she wants them to complete with four colored stacks of paper.
Most of the students are now focused on Membean, though some minor chatter persists.
Teacher finishes showing TAs how to do the paper project, tells them she needs 80 of them, and moves back to the front while quieting the students who are still talking.
The room is now quiet and students seem to be on task.
Teacher walks around the room checking on kids and their computer screens. This continues for several minutes.
Teacher checks watch and continues to walk the room for another few minutes.
16 Teacher tells students to remember to return computer to cart when they've finished their minutes and get out their Thoreau documents.
17 While students are finishing this task, teacher begins reviewing the agenda with the learning targets. Asks students about the broad ideas addressed in the writings.
18 Teacher takes student responses and adds to them to ensure that students are hearing the correct answers and understanding why.
19 Teacher relates content to historical content and ask students to connect writing to context.
20 Teacher continues to ask questions to prompt students after each question to try to get them to go deeper in their analysis.
21 Teacher continues to call on students and respond to their comments that answer the essential question she originally started with.
22 Teacher tells students that there are posters hanging in the hallway from previous classes. Teacher explains the topics of the four posters.
23 Teacher takes the smaller two tables and divides students to the other tables so that there are four tables filled with students.
24 Teacher tells students to go through the texts and find all the evidence that applies to the big idea assigned to their table. Tells students how to add information and source content to the poster. Teacher tells students that they're not working as groups, but that they are all adding to the poster at the same time.
25 Teacher tells students that they have 3 minutes before the posters move tables to fill in as many ideas as they can. Teacher starts walking around reiterating the same instructions to the students as needed to clarify confusion as students begin working.
26 Teacher has to tell two boys that writing in yellow highlighter or white/yellow crayon is rude and that they need to be more considerate.

Figure 6. Observation coding sample.

frequency count of my coding to Excel and used conditional formatting to visualize where codes were used and with what frequency in order to assess and analyze who did what (Figure 7).

Code	Survey- Crystal	Kermit- Crystal	Interview - Crystal	Observation 1 - C	Observation 2 - C	Observation 3 - C	Total
Lesson/Skill Scaffolding Evidence	0	0	0	3	5	2	10
Discussion	0	0	0	1	2	0	3
Independent Support	0	0	0	0	0	10	10
Manipulatives Use	0	0	0	0	5	0	5
Graphic Organizer	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Technology Use	0	0	0	1	2	5	8
Independent Work Time	0	0	0	0	0	8	8
Questioning	0	0	0	4	3	7	14
Rapport/Banter	0	0	0	4	5	5	14
Uncorrected Behavior	0	0	0	4	1	9	14
Corrected/ive Behavior	0	0	0	10	11	5	26
Activity	0	0	0	4	5	0	9
Comprehension Check	0	0	0	8	14	1	23
Teacher Instruction	0	0	0	9	1	4	14
Modeling	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
Gradual Release of Responsibility	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
RQ1	11	1	15	0	1	1	28
RQ2	0	0	14	1	1	1	17
RQ3	8	0	12	0	1	1	22
Self-Reflection	1	0	5	0	0	0	6
Enactive Experiences	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Collaboration with Others	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Observational Learning	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Formalized Bodies of Knowledge	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Formal Education	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Context/Environment	2	0	7	0	0	0	9
Content/Knowledge	5	0	4	0	0	0	9
Specific Teaching Practices	4	0	11	0	0	0	15
Teaching Approach	6	0	9	0	0	0	15
Students	2	0	3	0	0	0	5
Filters for Interpretation	17	0	9	0	0	0	26
Frames for Defining Problems	1	1	6	0	0	0	8
Guides/Standards for Action	4	0	10	0	0	0	14
Self	3	0	1	0	0	0	4
motivation	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
Behaviorism	0	0	0	25	14	12	51
Cognitivism	2	0	0	20	10	10	42
Social	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Social cognitivism	0	0	0	1	0	3	4
Socio-cultural	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure 7. Raw data examination example.

Figure 7 provides an example for one case study with all instruments coded. Grey indicates no code used during that instrument. The darker the color, the higher the frequency of the code in that instrument. For example, three quarters of the way down the three functions of teacher beliefs are listed: (a) filter for interpretation, (b) frame for defining problems, and (c) guides/standards for action. Notice that filters and guides have significantly higher frequency of use compared to frames for defining problems. This was a common finding across case studies.

Below the belief functions, four teaching approaches are listed: (a) behaviorism, (b) cognitivism, (c) social-cognitivism, and (d) socio-culturalism. The frequency counts for behaviorism and cognitivism had significantly higher rates of coding during observations compared to the others. This was common for both teachers that were longstanding, compared to the mid-career teachers in their thirties who used a more eclectic approach of all four. These frequency counts do not tell the whole story. I found that the items with the highest counts were not necessarily the items that teachers put greatest emphasis on. For example, during an observation I would code every reference in my field notes each time the teacher referenced the activity or the slide on a PowerPoint changed. This coding resulted in accuracy based on the notes, but an activity might have been coded seven or eight times when the class only used one activity during the lesson. The frequency counts created artificial inflation. I recognized the inaccuracy when examining the frequency counts without context.

Therefore, after collecting the data, I selected the questions from the questionnaire and interview that most solidly identified teacher beliefs and practices. I created summary charts of the responses to those questions for each participant, examining what codes were used in those questions as weighing more heavily in my analysis, rather than relying on frequency. I avoided including frequency counts in my analysis because I noticed that high frequency counts did not necessarily associate with ideas participants established as important or more important than others. Instead, I used my spreadsheet as a quick reference guide to where codes were used and whether they were prevalent or mentioned in passing, but not to determine which codes/beliefs were more highly valued. I then

returned to the data to see what was said and what codes were used on questions that focused most significantly on answering my research questions. I used this focus for my analysis.

Cross-Case Analysis

To examine the data cross-case, I returned to my spreadsheet with conditional formatting. I sought to identify patterns first by examining the instrument for each participant side-by-side, as shown in the example in Figure 8. While the frequency table was helpful to see where codes were used, I felt a deeper focus was needed on content to determine commonalities. I avoided using my frequency table as the sole focus for my cross-case analysis due to the same concern of artificial inflation from my within-case analysis.

Instead, I used the frequency table to identify where codes were used and where they were absent. From there I re-examined the main ideas I summarized in my case studies and compared those side-by-side (Figure 9). I handwrote out the codes I had indicated in MAXQDA with color coding based on a priori code categories. Blue indicated belief function (Fives & Buehl, 2012). Red was used to code belief categories (Fives & Buehl, 2008). Orange was used to identify belief sources (Buehl & Fives, 2009). From this color-coded side-by-side comparison, I was able to identify what key term codes were used and compare across case studies.

Trustworthiness

To ensure trustworthiness of data and internal validity, I allowed for member

CODE	Survey- Annie	Survey- Crystal	Survey- Jo March	Survey- Mary	Survey- Zelda Fitz	S TOTALS	K-A	K-C	K-JM	K-M	K-ZF	K TOTALS	Total
Self-Reflection	1	1	1	4	2	9						0	9
Enactive Experiences	1	1	3	1	4	10	1			1		2	12
Collaboration with Others	2	0	0	2	3	7			1	1		2	9
Observational Learning	1	0	0	0	1	2						0	2
Formalized Bodies of Knowledge	0	0	0	1	5	6						0	6
Formal Education	3	2	6	2	2	15	1			1		2	17
Context/Environment	2	2	1	2	2	9			1	2		3	12
Content/Knowledge	6	5	4	6	5	26	1		1	1		3	29
Specific Teaching Practices	3	4	3	4	6	20				1		1	21
Teaching Approach	3	6	7	11	7	34						0	34
Students	4	2	2	4	2	14						0	14
Filters for Interpretation	16	17	10	16	12	71						0	71
Frames for Defining Problems	0	1	1	4	0	6	1	1	1	2	1	6	12
Guides/Standards for Action	4	4	5	5	4	22			1			1	23
Self	4	3	3	12	8	30						0	30
motivation	2	0	1	0	0	3	1	1	1	3		6	9
Behaviorism	0	0	0	1	0	1			1			1	2
Cognitivism	0	2	3	1	0	6			1		1	2	8
Social	0	0	1	3	0	4						0	4
Social cognitivism	0	0	0	5	2	7			3	2		5	12
Socio-cultural	0	0	1	3	1	5						0	5

Figure 8. Cross-case analysis frequency table example.

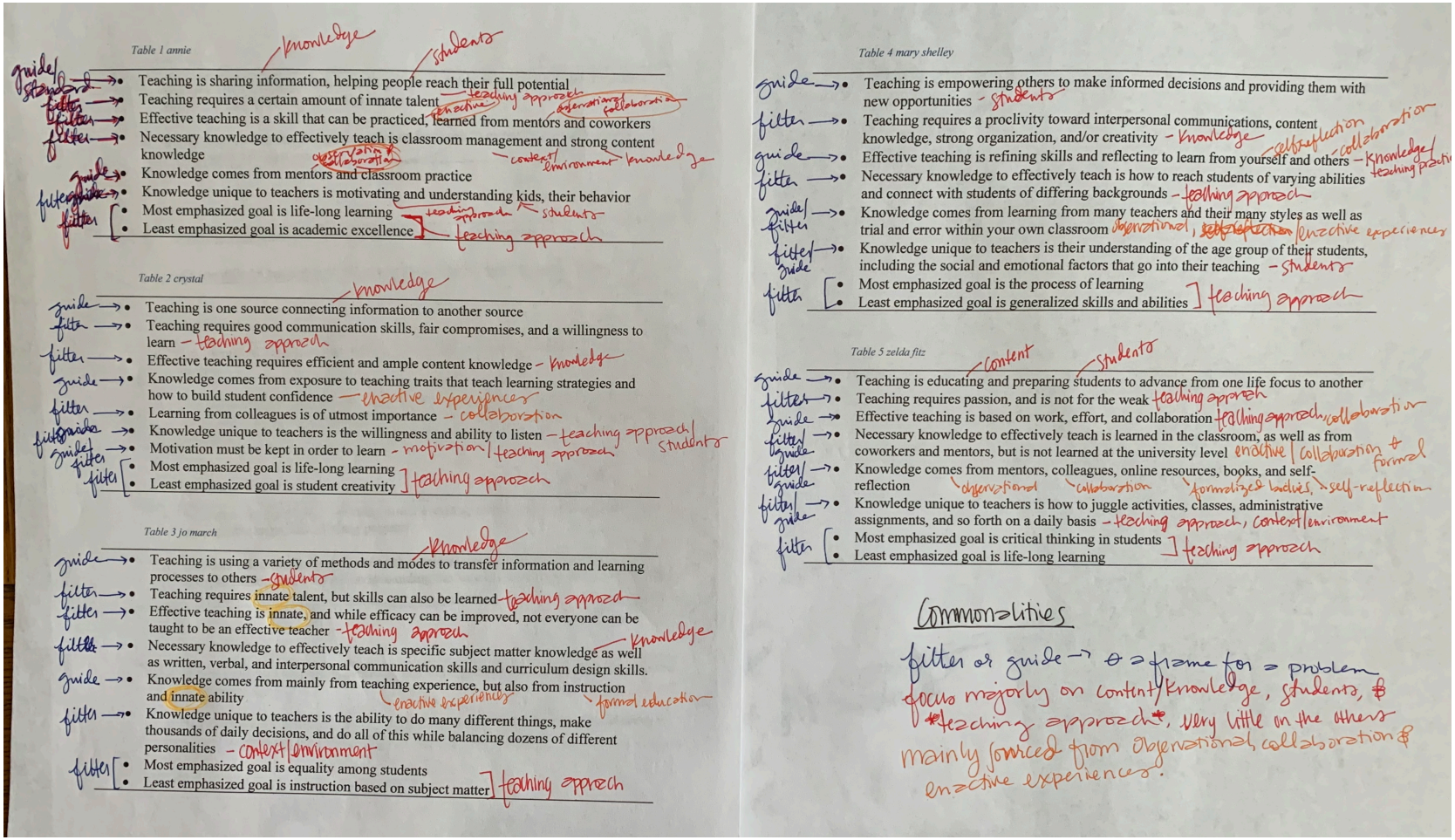


Figure 9. Comparative examination of teacher beliefs.

checking by giving all participants the opportunity to review and correct any items they wished with their questionnaire responses, their Kermit and the Keyboard analysis, and the transcribed interview notes. Additionally, interrater reliability was ensured through the use of an third-party qualitative researcher with no direct stake in the results. The third party qualified qualitative researcher is a former classroom teacher who has left the classroom and is no longer directly involved in secondary education. The third-party code-checked all four components of the data to ensure that coding was done accurately and that no codes were omitted or incorrectly identified. I discussed any questions regarding my coding with the third-party researcher until we were satisfied that the coding was accurate.

Summary

The current collective case study worked to triangulate data across all four data collection components to ensure that interpretation of analysis was done based on the most complete data available. All four data components were analyzed for each case study to create a holistic representation of the specific case as well as cross-case to comparatively analyze case studies collectively based on identified patterns or contrasting cases. The data was gathered and analyzed in order to answer the study's research questions regarding what are teachers' espoused and enacted beliefs and further how they associate with teaching self-efficacy within the field of writing instruction.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of the study are reported in this chapter, beginning with a review of the study design, followed by individual case study results. Each case study, after describing the participant's background for context, will be broken down into sections on espoused beliefs, enacted beliefs, and self-efficacies. A within-case analysis will then be provided for each case. The chapter ends with a cross-case analysis that identifies the major themes of the five case studies being studied collectively.

The research questions for this study were as follows.

1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching?
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?
3. How does teacher self-efficacy toward writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?

Collective Case Study Design Review

The collective case study design (Stake, 1995) was selected with the use of purposefully chosen case studies. In examining a collective case study design, not only can someone learn from an individual with rich experiences to share in a case study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), but also that individual's experiences and beliefs can be compared with a heterogenous group of individuals. Subsequently, it is possible to better understand how espoused and enacted beliefs may inform writing instructional practices among teachers who come from diverse backgrounds and learning experiences. In seeing

how these teachers differ and are similar to one another, a greater understanding of common themes can emerge, which could add to the literature and benefit educational research and practice in writing instruction.

Case Study Results

The participants selected for this collective case study were chosen based on the unique characteristics of each individual that rendered their case different from their coworkers within a single English Language Arts department. Seven individuals met the inclusion criteria, though one person was removed from consideration due to her similarities to another member, her frequent comments regarding burnout and retirement, as well as her upcoming surgery that would remove her from the classroom for twelve weeks. A second individual who met all inclusion criteria was removed from consideration because she felt that being studied would cause her too much anxiety. Three additional members of the department did not meet all inclusion criteria and were not invited to participate in the study. The five remaining members of the selected English Language Arts department all agreed to participate with an attrition rate of zero. To ensure anonymity, each participant was asked to select a pseudonym that would be used throughout data collection and reporting of results. Demographics and pseudonyms are provided in Table 12. These pseudonyms are used without abbreviation during the reporting of my analysis so as to remain consistent and faithful to the pseudonyms each participant assigned themselves.

Table 12

Participant Demographic Data

Participant	Student load	Average class size	Observed class size	Years taught	Years at school	Grades taught	Other subjects
Annie	234	33	34	17	6	6-12	Creative writing, reading
Crystal	224	32	35	36	20	K-12	Mathematics, reading
Jo March	236	29.5	28	12	4	9-12	AP lit/lang, history, reading, special education
Mary Shelley	210	30	27	12	12	9-12	AP lit/lang, history
Zelda Fitz	231	33	33	21	21	9-12	AP lit/lang, journalism

The participants selected had a range of professional experiences across different content areas such as mathematics, history, journalism, and Advanced Placement (AP) Literacy/Language Arts throughout their careers. The purposeful selection of cases ensured heterogenous case studies that, when examined collectively, provided a more holistic understanding of espoused and enacted teacher beliefs within writing instruction. The participants' year of teaching experience at the selected school site ranged from four to twenty-one years, and the overall years of teaching experience ranged from twelve to thirty-six years. The longstanding careers of the five participants likely ensured that the evolution of teacher beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2012) had already occurred and that the espoused and enacted beliefs examined in this study were firm, established beliefs.

The collective case study (Stake, 1995) applied a framework that combined Bandura's (1998) social cognitive theory of Triadic Reciprocal Causation with complexity theory (Davis & Sumara, 2006) to explore the espoused and enacted beliefs

of English Language Arts teachers within the field of writing instruction through survey, story analysis, interview, and observations. Each case study was examined by itself as well as cross-case in order to identify themes and patterns that emerged.

Recall that a priori coding was conducted with level one coding as belief topics (Fives & Buehl, 2008): (a) self, (b) context or environment, (c) content or knowledge, (d) specific teaching practices, (e) teaching approach, and (f) students. Level two a priori coding contained belief functions (Fives & Buehl, 2012): (a) filters for interpretation, (b) frames for defining problems, and (c) guides or standards for action. Additionally, level two a priori coding identified knowledge sources (Buehl & Fives, 2009): (a) formal education, (b) formalized bodies of knowledge, (c) observational learning, (d) collaboration with others, (e) enactive experiences, and (f) self-reflection. The use and frequency of the a priori codes in conjunction with emergent codes resulted in the findings presented in this chapter.

Case Studies

Case Study #1 – Annie

Annie, born and raised in Maryland, moved to Utah when she got married. She and her husband had one 12-year-old son. A teacher of seventeen years at the time of the study, Annie had spent the last six years at her current school. Annie said that she chose to become an English teacher because she "was good at it, and it was fun."

Certified for secondary level education with a reading endorsement, Annie had taught English Language Arts, creative writing, and reading across grades six through

nine. Additionally, Annie earned her master's degree in Instructional Design the previous spring. At the time of the study, Annie taught ninth grade English Language Arts as well as ninth grade co-taught English Language Arts. Co-taught courses were used in order to accommodate large numbers of special education students in a regular classroom setting with the additional support of a special education teacher in the room. I conducted my three teaching observations of Annie in one of her two co-taught English Language Arts classes. The selected co-taught ninth grade class was referred to by Annie as an accurate representation of her students this year, neither being her best nor her worst behaved class.

Annie loved teaching the co-taught English Language Arts classes. Growing up with a learning disability herself, and with her son having Oppositional Defiance Disorder, she felt that she was equipped with the patience and compassion to help all students succeed in her class. As a child, Annie was diagnosed with Dyscalculia. Dyscalculia is when an individual suffers from severe and persistent difficulty with mathematics (Haberstroh & Schulte-Körne, 2019). Throughout her life, Annie had to find ways to work around her Dyscalculia, which she felt had deeply influenced her teaching. She explained that when students come to her with excuses and a defeatist mentality, she told them, "Your disability does not define why you are [struggling]. You have to figure out what tools you need to overcome it." She further explained to me, "It's not so much me teaching them Language Arts now as it is the tools to overcome their disability and work with society to be productive." She requested to co-teach students with the special education teacher because she said she knew what these kids face each day.

Research question one: What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching? To answer Research Question One, Annie completed the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Kermit and the Keyboard story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and a personal interview. The following section outlines key ideas regarding her beliefs toward teaching that were identified from these three data sources.

Table 13

Summary of Annie's Beliefs Toward Teaching

- Teaching is sharing information, helping people reach their full potential
- Teaching requires a certain amount of innate talent
- Effective teaching is a skill that can be practiced, learned from mentors and coworkers
- Necessary knowledge to effectively teach is classroom management and strong content knowledge
- Knowledge comes from mentors and classroom practice
- Knowledge unique to teachers is motivating and understanding kids, their behavior
- Most emphasized goal is life-long learning
- Least emphasized goal is academic excellence

Annie believed that "teaching is sharing information," and "helping people reach their full potential." She explained her beliefs stating, "The purpose of schools should be teachers helping students reach their fullest potential, not only in general education, but in life as well." An item on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) asked teachers to use one word to complete the sentence "Teaching is…." Word options for teachers to select from included: art, science, persuasion, transmission,

transformation, modeling, scaffolding, or "add your own." Annie was unable to choose just one word to describe her beliefs about teaching. Instead, she stated that teaching is an art, transmission, transformation, modeling, scaffolding, but above all, "[t]eaching is loving kids. Teaching is not giving up."

Annie held the espoused belief that teaching required a certain amount of innate talent. She believed that elements exist within teachers' innate abilities that help them to be effective with their students. She believed that these elements could come in the form of teaching talent that some people are born with, whether it be that they are "more friendly," have "an innate ability to teach," or "are born presenters."

Additionally, Annie expressed the belief that effective teaching is a skill that can be practiced and is originally learned from mentors and coworkers. Annie further explained that, "In order to be an effective teacher, one must have good classroom management and a strong content area knowledge base, but beyond that, everything else can be learned." In learning to be an effective teacher, Annie believed that the source of teaching knowledge came from "mentors and classroom practice" rather than teaching preparation programs.

Annie's teaching philosophy spoke to the ability of teachers to know how to reach their students because she believed that she chose to be a teacher, whereas students do not choose to be students. As such, she chose to make Language Arts "interesting and entertaining" while "still helping students master the content to the very best of their ability." Annie explained that she started with the learning standards and developed lesson plans based on students' needs that she identified while grading their papers. She

was reminded of her writing teacher when helping students fix their writing. Her writing teacher taught her that people "don't write for perfection," rather they "write to make it better because they're never going to hit perfection. Even Stephen King, awesome writer, does not hit perfection." Annie explained that she emphasized this same view with her students—to not aim for perfection, but for mastery.

This belief of writing as a process in which one seeks for improvement aligns with Annie's placement of life-long learning as a top priority for students. She prioritized student learning of the writing process over the products of writing. Further, Annie's beliefs about teaching her students to aim for proficiency of writing processes, rather than perfection, aligned with her beliefs about student motivation.

Annie's analysis of the story "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005) connects with her espoused beliefs on student motivation. In her response after reading Kermit's story, Annie was asked to analyze and evaluate the teaching and learning elements she identified in the story. She focused on analyzing what Kermit learned and how he could continue to motivate himself to keep himself interested and avoid quitting. She responded,

> He has made his own goal and figured out how he wants to get there. Even though he has made mistakes, he learns from them, or eventually learns from them. I would suggest he keep trying different music or groups so he doesn't get bored. If he gets bored it sounds like he'll quit again…maybe a new instrument or piece of music will be enough to keep him interested.

Similarly, one of Annie's responses on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) was that the teaching profession holds unique knowledge in "knowing how to motivate students." She believed that teaching knowledge is more specialized in what

teachers know about students, students' behavior and trends, and not just content knowledge.

As part of the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) Annie was asked to rank 13 items from highest to lowest on what teachers should emphasize for with their students. Table 14 shows Annie's rankings, with life-long learning as highest priority and academic excellence as lowest priority. She believed that critical thinking and student creativity were higher priorities than the products of learning or instruction based on subject matter. Also, Annie ranked the process of learning and student independence above learning standards or content-specific knowledge.

Table 14

Rankings of Teacher Goals Based on Teacher Beliefs: Annie

Rank	Teachers should emphasize …
1.	Life-long learning
2.	Critical thinking in students
3.	Student creativity
4.	The process of learning
5.	Student independence
6.	Generalized skills and abilities
7.	Equality among students
8.	Instruction based on student interests
9.	Learning standards
10.	Content specific knowledge
11.	Instruction based on subject matter
12.	The products of learning
13.	Academic excellence

In evaluating the teacher goals based on teacher beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Annie demonstrated a focus on students and teaching them processes of learning and self-

expression that they can draw upon both now and in the future. She ranked the process of learning far higher than the product of learning, indicating that she cares more about the learning process than the end product, also indicated by her ranking academic excellence last. This suggests that she cares more about student learning than grades, prioritizing student-based goals higher than nonstudent-focused goals.

Research question two: How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practices? Annie's espoused and enacted beliefs about teaching writing, as well as elements that interact with or influence beliefs about teaching are examined in this section. Annie's beliefs and practices were coded and separated into the following themes (see Table 15) based on the overarching themes identified from emergent coding: writing, teacher behavior, technology, class time use, instructional scaffolding, learning activities, and student comprehension.

Writing. Annie's espoused beliefs about writing instruction were made visible through her responses on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) and in her personal interview. Her beliefs included the view that children should learn to write by doing. For example, she stated that her pre-service program taught her to use the 6+1 Writing Traits (Houghton Mifflin Harcourt, 2012) and that "writing is a process that students must frequently practice." Further, Annie explained that when students write every day, "they tend to both read and write better." According to Annie, this practice improves further through the use of teacher feedback. Peer feedback, she said, "tends to be the blind leading the blind."

Annie's enacted practices for teaching writing included using a graphic organizer,

Table 15

Summary of Annie's Belief Alignment with Writing Practices

Category	Espoused belief	Enacted practices	Interpretation
Writing	Children should write by doing, not lecture; effective feedback comes from the teacher, not peers	Modeling, guided writing practice	Alignment based on modeling and guided practice
Teacher behavior	Classroom management is important; teachers know how to motivate kids and understand their behavior and trends	Use of SOAR cards to motivate correct behavior; rate of corrective behavior/extrinsic motivation was double that of uncorrected behavior	Alignment based on motivation and student behavior
Technology use	Uses a digital platform to provide student resources	Used daily to teach and engage students; student Chromebook use	Alignment in use to provide student resources
Class time use	Structured around student needs, works backward from standards to determine lessons	Instruction tended to be at or above 50% of class time, with work time built-in	Alignment with student needs from built-in work time
Instructional scaffolding	Built-in scaffolding from lesson planning, goal-based backwards design from core standard	Apparent within and between observations	Alignment based on references to prior content
Learning activities	Use of graphic organizers; planned based on student needs	Utilized modeling, one out of seat activity; mostly in-seat work	Alignment based on modeling for student needs
Lesson comprehension	Evaluated based on work; subsequent lessons to accommodate	Questions asked directly to teacher were just as common as class-wide comprehension checks by the teacher	Alignment based on checks and lesson adjustments based on questions

projected onto a whiteboard, while she was co-constructing a paragraph with her students. Annie asked students for input on completing the different sections of the graphic organizer while they were completing their own copies of the graphic organizer at their desks. The learning objective for this instructional activity was for students to practice the process of writing paragraphs independent of the teacher. Annie told the

students she wanted to make sure they all knew how to fill out the graphic organizer before they had to do so independently.

Annie wrote in complete sentences while filling in the graphic organizer, using a think-aloud for different sentences as she went. One of the girls in the front row asked her why she was writing down all the answers, asking "Aren't you worried we're just going to copy what you write instead of coming up with our own sentences?" Annie, without missing a beat, replied,

> Some of you are ready to come up with your own sentences, and some of you aren't. And if you aren't, let me show you what I wrote so that you can start to come up with sentences of your own.

She continued writing, with every student focused on completing the graphic organizer practice activity. After each box of the organizer, Annie called for volunteers to share answers for what they wrote, indicating that while some students used her example on the board, others were ready to create their own sentences.

These examples suggest that Annie's espoused beliefs and enacted practices align with each other. Annie's belief in teaching students the process of writing was supported through the use of modeling how to write a paragraph by using a graphic organizer. Further, Annie demonstrated her belief in teaching writing as a process by providing students with effective feedback on their writing as she gave students feedback during the co-construction of the paragraph.

Teacher behavior. Annie's espoused beliefs about teaching writing instruction included the view that good classroom management is vital to being an effective teacher. She explained, "We know what kids do when their parents aren't looking." She expounded on this idea further

by saying that effective teaching is not about being specialized in a subject area but in what teachers understand about their behavior and trends. During her interview, her eyes lit up as she talked about getting the craziest responses.

> They are so weird and a lot of the time they're really afraid to express that weirdness because they're afraid like teachers or parents, adults in general are going to go, that's wrong. That's weird. You can't do that. And I'm like that is hilarious.

This connected to her belief that teaching is loving students and never giving up on them, even when it feels like "teaching is bashing your head against a wall." She said that student imagination is one of the reasons she loves teaching ninth graders. She believed that her allowance for students to be themselves creates a willingness to try, allowing her to do more with her students in the classroom, having created a safe learning environment.

Annie's enacted practices of teacher behavior included the use of extrinsic motivators for classroom management. For example, during the observations she used SOAR cards, a school-wide positive behavior initiative aimed at getting students to aim for high achievement by using a flight-based verb centered on their bird mascot for their name. These SOAR cards were used as motivation for students who showed correct behavior. Examples of rewarded behavior involved working on the assignment given, volunteering an answer, or being on task during work time. The rate of corrective behavior through the use of extrinsic motivation was double that of uncorrected behavior. However, Annie showed leniency toward her ninth-grade students as they learned to meet her expectations. During observations, Annie was seen correcting behavior and then rewarding them with a SOAR card when they got on task, even if it took multiple

promptings.

The extrinsic motivation of SOAR cards given frequently to students demonstrated the desired results through the act of reward-appropriate behaviors during work time or correct answers during teacher instruction time. This was consistent across the three classroom observations. Annie's students responded by participating in each activity throughout the class in hopes of earning another SOAR card. Annie's students responded enthusiastically to the reward throughout each observation.

Additionally, Annie used motivational strategies in her classroom through positive language when interacting with students. Specifically, positive praise was given for correct answers or for taking a risk on sharing an idea even if it was not fully correct. Positive praise seemed to encourage larger numbers of students to participate during instruction. For example, during Daily Oral Language, students raised hands frequently, suggesting a sense of safety in sharing their answer, even if their answer was not fully correct. Additionally, students who did not have their hand raised appeared to be actively engaged in the activity because they were watching Annie, following along with her instruction, and writing in their notebooks. Recall that Annie holds the belief that classroom management is key to effective teaching. The demonstration of student behavior and engagement suggests that Annie maintained a classroom that engaged learners and rewarded positive behaviors.

Technology use. Annie's espoused beliefs about technology were shared during her interview. Annie shared the belief that technology is important to have students learn the processes of writing.

Annie's enacted practices regarding technology included a projector and whiteboard, student Chromebooks, PowerPoints, and Canvas to facilitate student learning. She used technology throughout the class period each day in order to assist her teaching and engage her students. For example, during the first observation, Annie projected two Daily Oral Language sentences onto the whiteboard. Students were given a few minutes to complete the corrections. Then Annie called upon students to provide answers while she made the corrections on the whiteboard for all students to see. Next, Annie used the projector to display the agenda, learning objectives, and homework due for the students. Later in the class period she used her projector to display a blank graphic organizer intended to help students construct a paragraph on the whiteboard.

Annie varied her lesson technology based on both the lesson and students' needs. For example, during one classroom observation she provided students time to review vocabulary on a vocabulary website before completing a test on the website. This website personalized student learning and assessments by providing each student with vocabulary words specific to his or her learning level. The requirement of time spent on this website each week was listed in the homework section of the projected display with agenda and learning targets.

During the introduction of a new concept, Annie utilized a PowerPoint for instruction. She had students take notes on the content in the PowerPoint. She used the highlight option in PowerPoint to indicate the most important content of the slide. Annie guided students through the key elements of each slide, elaborating as she went, to ensure that students identified the key elements. During instruction she told her students, "Don't

write everything word for word. Write down the key ideas that I'm highlighting for you." She also expounded on the key ideas of the lesson content and asked comprehension questions to ensure students understood these ideas as she lectured.

Annie asked her students to use Canvas outside of class time to access needed materials, though she did not use Canvas during the observed periods. Annie referenced Canvas as a resource for students to use outside of class time. For example, during instruction with a PowerPoint, Annie told the students that the PowerPoint slides would be available on Canvas if they needed them. Additionally, Annie asked students to submit work on Canvas. Through the use of multiple technologies to facilitate student learning, the alignment between Annie's espoused belief and enacted practices was made visible.

Class time use. Annie's espoused beliefs regarding class time involved the structuring of her lessons around student needs. She identified during her interview that she uses class time to chunk larger concepts or project into smaller skills, walking students through the learning process as they go. She said that with ninth graders, "if I send them home and say, 'read this,' they'll go 'nope, not read it' and come back, and then we've wasted time." Based on past teaching experiences, Annie intentionally plans to read the text with her students in class and discuss their thinking so no class time is spent redoing what she asked them to complete at home.

Annie's enacted practices included teacher-led writing instruction for the majority of class time, with frequent comprehension checks and interactive instruction based on student responses. The lessons Annie taught during the three classroom observations also included student work time within the structure of the lesson.

Annie strived to promote a positive classroom environment as part of her classroom management practices. The classroom environment, while never specifically discussed in her survey or interview, appeared to comfortable for students. For example, during each of the three observations it was noted that students would leave their desks to throw their trash away as needed or take the hall pass without interrupting the flow of class. It was often the case that Annie would engage students in learning activities while standing next to a white board at the front of the classroom. Students' freely shared their ideas and answers to Annie's questions during these sessions of whole class instruction.

The openness of student interactions with Annie during learning activities suggests a positive relationship between the students and their teacher. Further, the positive classroom environment was evidenced as students demonstrated their respect for her by not talking over her or interrupting her as she taught.

Annie incorporated student independence and student motivation into her learning activities. For example, at the onset of each class Annie projected the day's learning objectives and agenda on the whiteboard for students to see. Students asked questions regarding content for the agenda, got out materials listed on the agenda, and sat in their desks watching their teacher, indicating this beginning-of-class procedure was routine. Next, Annie began her instruction with an element of the editing step of the writing process, grammar. She used Daily Oral Language in order to teach students correct punctuation, spelling, verb tense, and other grammatical elements of writing. Students were expected to take out their notebooks and write the sentences in correct grammatical style. After a few minutes of work time, Annie called for corrections and ensured that a

SOAR card was given to each student who shared a correct answer during the Daily Oral Language instruction. Annie used SOAR cards as an extrinsic motivational tool for students during learning activities. This example makes visible the ways in which Annie artfully integrated student motivation and independence during instruction.

During independent student work time Annie and/or her co-teacher walked around the room to provide one-on-one support to students as needed. The amount of student independent work time varied with each class based on the lesson. For example, in the first observation Annie used a gradual release of responsibility during the graphic organizer activity by first modeling how to construct a paragraph, sentence-by-sentence. After Annie modeled how to construct the first sentence of the paragraph, she encouraged students to share their ideas for constructing additional sentences. Finally, students were assigned to use a new graphic organizer and individually construct a new paragraph. This practice of interactive instruction followed by work time aligned with Annie's beliefs regarding the structuring of class time.

Instructional scaffolding. Annie's espoused beliefs regarding scaffolding focused on curriculum planning and student needs as determined by feedback. She began lesson planning for a unit by evaluating a learning standard then determined the goals necessary to meet that standard. She explained,

> I start with a very basic Common Core standard.… They all need to do that. None of them can do that. And if they can do it, they can't do it right. So, I start with that and I kind of branch from there.

While she planned her lessons based on the standard-based goals she created, she also built scaffolding into her lessons based on submitted assignments. She explained,

"While I'm grading their papers I can identify [for] that particular student, what are they missing." Annie determined the type and amount of instructional scaffolding needed when she used prewriting assessment activities with her students. These prewriting assessment activities typically included teacher-student completion of a graphic organizer or a brainstorming activity.

Annie believed the ability of students to improve their writing post-feedback to be incredibly important. From this feedback she believed students could become better writers. Annie explained,

> If they see a paper with red on it, then they get a little panicked and they're going to make changes. A lot of kids then went and made revisions or came and talked to me about what they did wrong. And then they turned it back in and then I either corrected it again or I gave them a different score.

Hence, one of Annie's espoused beliefs about writing instruction is that feedback needs to come from the teacher rather than peers. She shared that it is more effective for learning when the feedback comes from her, rather than other students, so students can see the correct way to improve their writing. She also believes that helping students to see where they are having difficulties with their writing can help inform her instruction, scaffolding her lessons based on the needs of the students in the classroom.

Annie's enacted practice of using instructional scaffolding was demonstrated both within and between observations. Scaffolding use was demonstrated during observation one when Annie asked recall questions from content in a prior class, like what an acronym stood for when writing. Additional scaffolding was demonstrated when Annie asked questions about prior steps taught earlier in the lesson that students would need to add to the current step. For example, during the second observation Annie introduced

new content with a PowerPoint. She scaffolded this new content by having students connect their prior knowledge with the new content through questioning. Annie provided learning support by making specific connections regarding content from the previous class and how it related to the new concept of a memoir. This practice of connecting content and lessons aligned with Annie's beliefs about the importance of embedding scaffolded instruction across each lesson plan.

Learning activities. Annie's espoused beliefs regarding educational activities involved the use of graphic organizers that were created based on student needs. During her interview, Annie discussed the prewriting step and adjusting graphic organizers.

> I show the kids how they--how I would do it. And if it doesn't work for them, I'm like, OK, now we can tweak it. I have like three or four books full of graphic organizers, and if, for example, the race chart doesn't work for one kid and they're like, I just totally don't get it, I can pull out a persuasion map and be like, does this make sense?

Annie believed that it is important to adjust individual learning activities based on student needs. She shared that she utilizes different learning activities with the goal of creating as many writing opportunities as possible throughout the year for her students.

Annie's enacted practices related to learning activities included a variety of in-seat activities. During one observation, Annie modeled writing paragraphs by using graphic organizers for two different lessons. Students were seated at their desks during the instruction. Each student was given a blank copy of the graphic organizer being modeled and expected to complete it by first writing sentence frames and then writing complete sentences. At the beginning of the lesson on my third observation, Annie said to me that this class was behind some of her other classes. She said the students needed

to review some content and that she would adjust the next few lessons by cutting out scenes from a film they planned to watch in order to get the class caught up. Through the use of classroom learning activities and the structuring of class based on students' needs, Annie demonstrated alignment between her espoused and enacted beliefs.

Lesson comprehension. Annie shared her espoused beliefs about lesson comprehension of instruction. She emphasized the importance of evaluating student work. She explained, "I provide subsequent lessons to accommodate student needs based on evidence of learning gaps or when students had yet to demonstrate mastery on a concept." She further explained that when a student turns in a piece of writing she gives them time to improve and resubmit, multiple times if needed, in order to learn from their writing errors.

Annie's enacted practices of student comprehension of instruction during class time included her answering questions asked directly to her by the students. She also frequently used comprehension checks throughout a lesson. I noted multiple instances during each classroom observation where students would approach Annie for help before class or during work time. At times, five or six students would be in line to seek help from Annie on their assignment. She answered each question with a patient tone and then moved to help the next student. When instructing the class, she would pose a question, then allow three or more students to provide answers before moving on to the next portion of the lesson. This focus on ensuring students' understanding lesson content demonstrates an alignment in Annie's espoused beliefs and teaching practices regarding comprehension.

Theoretical framework for teaching. From the questionnaire, story analysis, and personal interview, Annie espoused elements of social cognitivism, though her theoretical teaching framework was not clearly identified. During observations, Annie demonstrated elements of behaviorism, coginitivism, social cognitivism, and socio-culturalism (Driscoll, 2005) to varying extents, identifying her theoretical teaching framework. A significant focus was indicated in using: (a) behaviorism through the use of positive reinforcement, and (b) cognitivism through the use of teacher instruction, graphic organizers, and emphasizing practice. Elements of social cognitivism were identified through motivation and encouraging personal agency. Socio-cultural elements were indentified during observations by Annie's use of guiding more than instructing and her use of scaffolding for critical thinking skills and lessons.

Research question three: How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices? The following section examines Annie's espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices and how they associate with teacher efficacy. In order to get teachers to express themselves honestly and to not create terminology confusion, the Bandura's (1997) terms for efficacy were not used. Rather than refer to high self-efficacy, the term 'strength' was used, and 'challenge' replaced the term low self-efficacy. Table 16 provides a brief summary of the overall findings of Annie's espoused and enacted practices in relationship to her teacher self-efficacy, as identified in her personal interview and the three classroom observations. A discussion of Annie's self-identified strengths and challenges with teaching English Language Arts is then presented.

Table 16

Annie's Teacher Self-Efficacy

• Self-identified strengths: loves reading the weird things freshmen come up with, enjoys teaching a variety of writing styles
• Self-identified challenges: getting quality feedback to every student in a timely fashion with 210 students

Strengths. Annie shared that her favorite part of teaching writing is "reading the crazy ideas that her students come up with." She stated that "telling her students 'they can't be wrong unless they can't prove it' results in getting some of the weirdest things… and it just makes my day." Annie beliefs that her appreciation for students' weirdness makes her perfect for teaching ninth-grade students and that working with this age group, understanding them, is her strength.

Challenges. Annie did not specifically address what she thought to be an area of low self-efficacy with her teaching. However, she expressed that one difficulty with teaching writing instruction was finding time to grade and give valuable feedback that would be sufficient to help her students increase their writing skills. She explained, "The most challenging part is reading it all for my 210 students across six class periods." Despite the issue of grading and providing timely feedback, she stated that she still tries to find time to teach argumentative, informative, and narrative writing each quarter, even if it is something small like a six-word memoir.

Case Study #2 – Crystal

Crystal grew up in Iowa, eventually making Utah her home. She and her husband adopted two daughters, who are now grown and have young children of their own. A

career teacher, Crystal had been in the classroom for 36 years, 20 of which she had spent at her current school. Throughout her career, she had taught every grade from kindergarteners to seniors in high school. In addition to English Language Arts, she has also taught reading and mathematics.

Crystal did not originally intend to become a teacher. She originally wanted to be a nurse, but she said that her science grades were not good enough. Crystal decided to become a teacher during her sophomore year of college at Southern Minnesota University. Crystal's love of non-fantasy literature, writing, and syntax were major influences in her decision to teach English Language Arts.

Research question one: What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching? To answer Research Question One, Crystal completed the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and a personal interview. The following section outlines key ideas regarding her beliefs toward teaching that were identified from these three data sources.

Table 17

Summary of Crystal's Beliefs Toward Teaching

- Teaching is one source connecting information to another source
- Teaching requires good communication skills, fair compromises, and a willingness to learn
- Effective teaching requires efficient and ample content knowledge
- Knowledge comes from exposure to teaching traits that teach learning strategies and how to build student confidence
- Learning from colleagues is of utmost importance
- Knowledge unique to teachers is the willingness and ability to listen
- Motivation must be kept in order to learn
- Most emphasized goal is life-long learning
- Least emphasized goal is student creativity

During the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Crystal was asked to finish the sentence, "Teaching is " with one of seven ideas and an eighth option to choose your own idea. Crystal selected all of the seven listed options, stating that they were all correct, but were not all apparent all the time. She wrote, "teaching is a connection of information from one source to another." Beginning her interview, Crystal gestured behind her seat at her teacher's desk to a bulletin board next to the whiteboard that was covered in the graduation announcements of former students. She referred to the board as a representation of her 35 years of teaching.

> Each one of these pictures has a huge history, not only as a graduate, but as a part of how they played in my life, even if they were pain in the ass. They're pieces of me up there. Even if I never see them again, they are pieces. I have learned so much from those that I have been honored to impart information.

Crystal's belief that teaching connects from one source to another was not a one-way connection, but rather a belief that both the teacher and the student learn from one another during their time in her classroom, leaving a lasting impression.

Teaching, she believed, requires individuals to have good communication skills, to be capable of fair compromises, and to have a willingness to continue learning throughout their career. Crystal also stated within her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) that to be an effective teacher one must possess efficient and ample content knowledge. This knowledge, she stated, comes from exposure to enactive experiences that provide teachers the opportunity and knowledge to watch and evaluate students, "looking for [character] traits in teaching that build student confidence and provide learning strategies." This ability, according to Crystal, is paramount for teachers.

Colleagues play a significant role in teacher development as well. Crystal has

taught at multiple levels and at multiple schools, and she argued in her interview for the importance learning from colleagues. She stated,

> You know, I've been in a lot of schools. I've been in probably five and I've been in different departments and colleagues have played an influential role. And as I've become what I think is a better teacher, I've learned the good, the bad, and the ugly from my colleagues. I've learned what I don't want to be. I've learned what looks horrible. I've learned what doesn't work. But I've also gained an insurmountable amount of information, an insurmountable amount of how to grow empathy. It's my colleagues.

Identifying the importance of colleagues, Crystal talked about learning from them as both examples and nonexamples. Both of which, Crystal noted, helped her to become a better teacher.

Crystal's philosophy of teaching is "a willingness to engage kids in topics that are applicable and worthwhile," relating back to her belief in teaching being a connection from one source to another. Because her belief that teaching is a connection, she posited that teachers hold the unique knowledge of willingness and ability to listen to students, allowing teachers to be more effective in the classroom.

In Crystal's analysis of "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005), Crystal was asked to evaluate and analyze elements of teaching and learning found within the story. She focused entirely on motivation, stating that, "Kermit gave up too quickly. When he became bored, he quit, moved on." Crystal believed that motivation is key to perseverance. She also stated that "Kermit wasn't a people person and never learned to play well with others" identifying that issue in why his efforts to play in a group did not motivate him. I found her limited focus on motivation throughout the analysis was interesting to note because she only referred to motivation once more, and that was

during her personal interview. She referred to motivation during her interview in reference to the posted graduation announcements from former students. The limited references to motivation used by Crystal may be due to the surveys and personal interviews not specifically addressing motivation. On the other hand, Crystal's limited references to motivation may be because she views motivation as an individual characteristic.

Crystal was asked to rate thirteen teacher goals based on teacher beliefs in order of importance (Table 18). She identified life-long learning and the process of learning as most important, and identified learning standards and student creativity as least important. She rated student interest-based instruction above instruction based upon subject matter, and prioritized student equality and critical thinking skills over the products of learning and content-specific knowledge.

Table 18

Rankings of Teacher Goals based on Teacher Beliefs: Crystal

Rank	Teachers should emphasize …
1.	Life-long learning
2.	The process of learning
3.	Equality among students
4.	Critical thinking in students
5.	Instruction based on student interests
6.	Student independence
7.	The products of learning
8.	Content specific knowledge
9.	Academic excellence
10.	Generalized skills and abilities
11.	Instruction based on subject matter
12.	Learning standards
13.	Student creativity

In evaluating Crystal's espoused beliefs about teaching goals, it would appear that she believed in the process and the love of learning over learning outcomes thereby demonstrating an interest in the practice of writing skills. She also ranked student equality and critical thinking quite highly, indicating that she believed in all students having the opportunity to learn processes and skills of writing. Interestingly, student creativity is placed at the bottom of the list, which aligned with her preference for an emphasis on critical thinking and content specific knowledge. processes.

Research question two: How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practices? Crystal's espoused and enacted beliefs about teaching writing, as well as elements that interacted with or influence beliefs about teaching, are examined in this section. Her beliefs from the Teacher Belief Questionnaire and interview, and her practices based on classroom observations, were coded using content analysis. The following common themes emerged (Table 19): writing, teacher behavior, technology, class time use, instructional scaffolding, learning activities, and student comprehension.

***Writing*.** Crystal's espoused beliefs regarding writing place a value upon multiple writing drafts and the use of teacher feedback to effectively improve student writing. During her interview, she discussed the value of writing drafts with teacher feedback. She explained,

> I highly believe in teacher comment, even if it means splitting the grade up to another quarter or maybe dumping some other writing piece. If a kid writes and you don't comment, you might as well forget it.

Crystal said that with that belief in mind, she would look at a writing unit, decide what

Table 19

Summary of Crystal's Belief Alignment with Writing Practices

Category	Espoused belief	Enacted belief	Interpretation
Writing	Value of writing drafts & teacher feedback	Teacher feedback during writing drafts, explicit requirements of writing structure without dictating content	Alignment based on writing drafts and feedback
Teacher behavior	Unspecified	Corrected/corrective behavior twice as frequent as uncorrected behavior; comments demonstrating rapport as frequent as uncorrected behavior	Unable to determine or negate alignment
Technology use	Uses Canvas to help explain assignments, collaborating with colleagues using Dropbox/google docs	Audiobook via boombox, then online audiobook when the boombox broke; students on Chromebooks	Alignment in the use of technology as a tool
Class time use	"Show-go" teaches students how, then has them do it	Instruction tended to be most of the period, with work time built into certain, less-frequent lessons	Alignment based on instruction followed by work time
Instructional scaffolding	Self-prescribed weakness, does teaching then practice without gradual release; believes strongly in scaffolded lessons built based on curriculum maps	Demonstrated through the reiteration of skills from prior classes	Alignment in that lessons referenced and built on one another
Learning activities	Willing to try new activities, but refuses to do activities like journal writing where she feels it is not useful	Infrequent; most of class was instruction, though a sticky note activity engaged at least 75% of the class	Alignment in use, trying new activity (sticky notes)
Lesson comprehension	Starts with expressing a goal so they know what the target is; can tell by a graphic organizer who needs help	Questions directly to the teacher were recorded half as frequently as the teacher's use of comprehension checks to the class during instruction	Alignment in expressing goal and checking on understanding during lessons

she wanted them to walk away with, asking "What do I want to feel good about what they have done?" and proceeded from there "in order to prepare them for something bigger."

These beliefs were what drive her focus and influenced how she broke down a writing unit into skills.

One of the clearest demonstrations of writing practices I witnessed during Crystal's observations occurred during the final observation when Crystal gave the students half the period to work on their paragraphs. Starting down the first row, she sat in her chair and wheeled herself down the aisle, stopping at each desk to talk to the student. She read their paragraph on their Chromebook and then provided specific feedback, and the majority of the students, save for the sleeping student, were all on task. After she answered any questions the students had in response to her feedback, she pushed her chair backward and rolled further down the aisle to the next student. The three boys that often tried to find reasons to be off task were not only actively working but were asking for help with specific issues. She was able to meet with an aisle and a half of students during the independent work time, and she provided students with instruction to examine specific peer model paragraphs while they waited their turn to meet with her.

Teacher behavior. A careful coding and analyses across each of the data sources (i.e., Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire [Fives & Buehl, 2008], "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis [Driscoll, 2005], and personal interview) did not reveal insights about Crystal's beliefs about teacher behavior. I have personally culled each data source related to Crystal's espoused beliefs and was unable to determine personal beliefs based on the information provided. In the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire, "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis, and interview, she did not address beliefs regarding teaching behaviors. However, the classroom observations provided insight into her enacted practices.

Crystal's enacted practices, based on the observation of her teaching behaviors, indicated that she had good rapport with her students. This was demonstrated through the jovial manner with which students interacted with her throughout the class. The class selected for observation was one identified by Crystal as somewhat typical. The class was the first period of the day. It was typical to see one or two young men falling asleep during class despite Crystal's repeated requests for them to wake up and sit up. Similarly, it was as common to see Crystal use her good rapport with the students, in the form of banter, to get students on task as it was to see corrective responses to student behavior. For example, the students laughed and corrected their behavior when she said in a dry tone, "You know, I think I'm just going to quit and go work at Arctic Circle." The students' responses and laughter to Crystal's remark indicated that this statement was a running joke with the class. Once the students were focused back on Crystal, she was able to continue with her instruction.

It is important to note that, according to the students and Crystal, the young man who slept through class every day did so during multiple classes each day, making it more common to see him asleep than awake. Beyond this outlier, the rest of the class sat respectfully during each lesson. Although students mostly sat listening, a small handful interacted with the teacher, asking or answering questions and furthering the discussion on Julius Caesar, the play they were in the middle of reading and writing about.

Although Crystal did not explicitly state her beliefs about teacher behavior during English Language Arts instruction, her enacted practices suggest that she values having a positive rapport and relationship with her students. Additionally, Crystal's enacted

practices indicate that she views the teacher as the authority in the classroom, both in content knowledge and in managing student behavior.

Technology use. Crystal's espoused beliefs about using technology for English Language Arts instruction includes the use of Canvas. Canvas is an online platform provided by the school district to help teachers explain assignments for students and for students to submit work. Crystal explained, "Sometimes I use Canvas as a platform to help explain what I want… a lot of my lesson planning is just my own little kind of shorthand." She believes in utilizing technology as a way to reach students beyond the borders of the classroom.

During her interview, Crystal discussed her belief in collaborating with colleagues using online services such as Dropbox and Google Docs to share ideas and files. She explained,

> I'd like to think that when I'm embarking on a new idea in writing that I do some homework on it. Most of the time it involves going back to my Dropbox. It goes back to Google Docs or I have some kind of shared thing with my colleagues.

When Crystal decided to research a new idea, she sought knowledge or tools from her colleagues, rather than other forms of outside resources. She expressed a belief in the value of collaborating with colleagues by turning to them for help utilizing technology.

Crystal's enacted practices around technology use include a variety of tools. One tool is audiobooks played on a boombox or classroom computer. During the second classroom observation, Crystal had the students listen to an audiobook, which at one point in the lesson started skipping and would not play further. To maintain control during the situation, Crystal started bopping her head to the beat as she walked over to try

and fix the machine. Kids moved their heads or upper bodies to the beat of the skipping word with her, cheering her dancing on. During the third classroom observation, Crystal switched from the boombox to her computer for playing the audiobook.

Another example of Crystal using technology for teaching writing are Chromebooks. During the third classroom observation, Crystal and her students were working on a writing assignment. After modeling how to construct a paragraph, she had students use Chromebooks to work individually on their paragraph revisions. Crystal moved among the students as they worked in order to provide feedback and answer their questions. She reminded students verbally, and pointed to the written note on the board, that the paragraphs were to be resubmitted through Canvas. Although Crystal did not express all of the ways in which she believed technology should be used in the classroom, her espoused belief of using Canvas as a resource for students was also demonstrated as an enacted belief, providing alignment of her belief.

Class time use. Crystal's espoused beliefs regarding class time use included what she referred to during her interview as the "show-go" method. She explained her "show-go" method was her use of teacher instruction followed immediately by independent student work time.

> I tend to be a Show-Go type of teacher. I want to show you how to do this. I want you to do it. Okay, now that's probably not very popular. You know, it's the I do, you do, we do, I do, y'all do, whatever. But it works for me.

Crystal acknowledged that newer, more popular methods of instruction exist, such as a gradual release of responsibility method with "I do, we do, you do" (Fisher & Frey, 2003), but she had chosen to continue teaching with her "show-go" method because it

had always worked for her. She differentiated between the two instructional formats by indicating that the gradual release of responsibility through modeling ("we do"), and group practice sometimes termed "y'all do" steps were not something she typically used in the classroom.

For Crystal's enacted practices, the classroom observations showed that teacher-led instruction tended to involve the majority of class time spent on independent student work. However, during one classroom observation, the lesson involved only teacher direct instruction. Crystal's teacher-led instruction involved frequently asking students questions about their understanding of the writing process. She followed up on the student's response by elaborating on their ideas before continuing with the lesson. Crystal's recognition of her teaching approach and the consistent appearance of that approach in the classroom demonstrated alignment between espoused beliefs and enacted practices.

Instructional scaffolding. Crystal's espoused beliefs about instructional scaffolding, based on her interview, suggest that she placed a high value on backward design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) for lessons based on the school district curriculum maps based on state standards. She stated, "My lesson planner is my bible," as her hands sat atop her planner during the interview. When referencing the district-created curriculum maps she exclaimed, "Oh, the maps! We thought it was gold and it really was." The curriculum maps guided her lesson planning as she worked backward, planning student learning goals first.

Crystal was flexible with the type of instructional content used as she engaged in

backward mapping. She shared, “This year I am also trying something new with their sources.” She decided to help students develop their knowledge about writing by finding sources first before beginning the writing process. She explained how she incorporated backward planning within writing instruction stating, “I like to do it in reverse and see if that helps build their knowledge to proceed in the writing assignment as laid out.”

Crystal’s espoused beliefs about scaffolding writing instruction included providing students opportunities to write a draft and receive teacher feedback on that draft before submitting their final essay. She explained, “If a kid writes and you don’t comment, you might as well forget it.” Crystal said that in this way she scaffolded writing skills. She explained that she did not subscribe to the “I do, we do, you do” gradual release of responsibility (Fisher & Frey, 2003) that is widely used in classrooms as she only uses the “I do” and “you do” steps of the sequence and thus uses the term “show-go.”

One example of Crystal’s enacted scaffolding practices was present during classroom observation three. While the students read scenes during class from Julius Caesar, Crystal frequently mentioned a prior lesson regarding Portia’s speech. The explicit interconnectedness between the current and prior lessons allowed Crystal to help clarify key ideas for an upcoming assignment. During classroom observation three, students spent the majority of class time working on these paragraphs. Class time also included students reading peer paragraphs for modeling or feedback, while the teacher worked with students one-on-one making her way through approximately one-fourth of the students.

Crystal continued to scaffold instruction by displaying a model of the introduction to the paragraph on the side whiteboard. The model introduction contained blanks filled in by Crystal during a previous class period. She drew everyone's attention to the whiteboard and reviewed the introduction model with them. After she provided explicit instruction of the elements of the introduction, students asked questions about the length of the remaining parts of the paragraph. Crystal answered the student questions then transitioned the students into individual work time by sending one row of students at a time to retrieve a Chromebook and return to their desk. The classroom observations suggest that Crystal's beliefs about backward mapping curriculum and scaffolded instruction aligned with her enacted practices.

***Learning activities*.** Based on her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) and personal interview, Crystal's learning activity espoused beliefs were identified. She stated that she was willing to try new activities if they have academic value.

> As far as free write, I'm not a big fan because unless it's monitored, I'm not a big fan. I don't do any journal writing. I know it's very popular, but I don't feel, I don't know, I guess I'm just not comfortable with it. I'm not sure how it's useful for me. It might be very useful for kids just to be able to pick up a black and white notebook and free write for fifteen minutes on any topic they so desire. I'm not saying I don't buy that. Just not sure how to implement it constructively.

She believed that academic essays are important and said she implemented mnemonic devices to help students with their writing structure. Additionally, she utilized graphic organizers to help students construct their writing, "If one doesn't work, then I give them a different one. If I have one, I have fifty." She believed that she could provide a graphic organizer to help students, even if the planned organizer did not work for a particular student. During her interview, Crystal identified poetry and free response questions on

Canvas as other writing activities that she used each school year.

Crystal's enacted learning activities typically involved teacher-led instruction. During the reading of Julius Caesar, she stopped frequently, sometimes moving line-by-line, to discuss what was happening in the play. She explained an idea and then asked a comprehension question to try to connect it with other content. Crystal had an interesting approach for trying to engage her students when they sat quietly after she asked a question. Instead of repeating the question posed, she became louder and more animated, which the students seem to enjoy and respond to positively, not necessarily in terms of gaining participation or responses, but with evidence of her having a positive rapport with the students.

One student, who seemed to speak too loudly when asking questions or giving responses, tended to dominate Crystal's attention, despite her best efforts to spread her attention equally among the students. During each classroom observation, this student tried to answer every question and often had a question of his own to ask. Crystal often used "cold-calling" (Lemov, 2010) in which students were called on to answer without volunteering or given the option of opting out. Crystal relied on this questioning style only when she became frustrated by the lack of student participation during instruction and discussions.

An additional enacted teaching practice was the use of sticky notes. During observation two, Crystal gave sticky notes to each student and asked them to write comments that fit within the three boxes of a graphic organizer displayed on the side whiteboard. The students participated by placing their sticky note comment in the

appropriate box and then returned to their seats. Next, Crystal read aloud the student comments in a given category and responded, providing specific, and largely positive, feedback that elaborated on each comment. Crystal's espoused beliefs in using activities only when she sees academic value in the activity was aligned with her enacted practices.

Lesson comprehension. During her interview, Crystal expressed her espoused beliefs regarding lesson comprehension. She believes that student comprehension starts with stating a goal so they know what the target is. She stated, "the kids will do a better job at all the preliminaries if they know what the goal is." Crystal also held the espoused belief that she could identify students' needs by reviewing their work. She explained,

> By re-reading it, I can tell if a student has absolutely no clue what to do. Probably in the first paragraph, often times I can tell by their syntax, their word choice. And sometimes I can tell if I use a graphic organizer. I can tell by that. If they're not using a graphic organizer and I do get inferior writing, I pull an organizer to help refocus them.

Crystal believed in her abilities as a longstanding classroom teacher to have the needed skills to assess levels of lesson comprehension. After she assessed the work of students who were struggling with a skill or element of the writing process, Crystal believed she can steer them to the right path through graphic organizers or other instructional guidance.

Crystal's most frequently used practice to assess student comprehension was the use of questions posed to the class. During each of the observed class periods, Crystal began class by leading the class in reading the day's scene(s) from Julius Caesar. She sometimes assigned parts or asked for volunteers, always keeping a role to read herself and quick to help a student when they stumbled over a word or phrase. Pausing after most

lines, she posed a comprehension question to the class and waited for a response. After a student, often the same student, provided a response, she would either agree and elaborate or indicate that it was not quite the right answer and seek another response. Students sat quietly during the reading of the scene, with one or two kids occasionally calling out questions.

During the third observation, Crystal went to great lengths to provide verbal feedback to as many students as she could within the time she provided. She sat next to the student, read their paragraph, and explained with specificity what they needed to improve. The student who often asked for a great amount of Crystal's attention was given the task of reviewing peer paragraphs and allowing others to read his paragraph to help him stay occupied while she assisted others. His comments to her at the start of the work time indicated that he had sought previous assistance from Crystal and that he had already applied her feedback. After a read-through of their writing she immediately provided solutions for improvement and ensured that they understood why they were making changes before she moved on to another student. Based on the beliefs stated within the interview as well as the observed practices, Crystal's espoused beliefs and enacted practices regarding student comprehension align.

Theoretical framework in teaching. In examining the questionnaire, story analysis, and personal interview, Crystal's theoretical teaching framework was undetermined, with only minor references during her questionnaire to cognitivism. Her theoretical teaching framework became clear through observations. Her teaching was indicative of her focus on behaviorism and cognitivism (Driscoll, 2005). She utilized

behaviorism through her classroom management style and the elements of learned helplessness from stimulus and response that was seen in students sitting silently when asked a question.

Crystal's self-termed "show-go" teaching practice suggested she draws somewhat from a cognitivist framework. She gave the students information and then asked them to demonstrate understanding based on what she told them. This idea originates from the cognitive perspective that teachers deposit information so that students can withdraw and use that information as needed (Driscoll, 2005). Crystal's willingness to try new activities was seen with her sticky note activity that she revised during her instruction of the activity. This activity acted as a class graphic organizer that asked students to retrieve prior content, also indicating a focus in cognitivism. While lesson scaffolding was identified, it was done to chunk content rather than push students to reach their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Research question three: How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices? To answer research question three, I examined the relationship between Crystal's espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices with her teacher self-efficacy. The information provided within this section draws from the personal interview and the three classroom observations. Bandura's (1997) terms for efficacy were not used during this assessment to avoid terminology confusion. The term "high self-efficacy" was replaced with "strength" and the term low self-efficacy was replaced with "challenge." Table 20 provides a brief summary of the overall findings of Crystal's espoused and

enacted practices relationship to her teacher self-efficacy. The results of Crystal's self-identified strengths and challenges with teaching English Language Arts, as identified through the personal interview and the three classroom observations, are then presented.

Table 20

Crystal's Self-Efficacy

- Self-identified strengths: creating time in class for drafts with feedback
- Self-identified challenges: scaffolding, planning the right amount of time

Strengths. Crystal identified a teaching strength for her was having students write drafts and receive feedback before submitting their final essays. She believds drafts with teacher feedback to be paramount, "even if it means splitting the grade up to another quarter or maybe dumping some other writing piece." She explained that because she "truly believe[d] in that writing piece" because it helped her students improve their writing and it was worth the time spent on teaching it to her students.

Crystal found great reward in reading student writing. She stated, "I'm amazed at what I learn about a kid or the kid's views on certain things that I never would have known had I not read it." She believed that getting to know more about her students was the most rewarding part of being a teacher.

Challenges. Crystal identified two challenges in her teaching. Scaffolding was a self-identified weakness for Crystal. She stated, "Well, I would have to say that my scaffolding skills are not the best." During her interview she explained that this area is a weakness for her because she does not practice scaffolding using gradual release of responsibility. She elaborated,

> I scaffold skills, yes. But I'm not a whole bunch on continuing that scaffolding. I like to think and believe that when kids come to that part in what I'm doing with them for a writing assignment that I've already got those skills established.

Crystal felt that although she uses scaffolded instruction to help students develop their writing skills, she does not extend it to the gradual release of responsibility (Fisher & Frey, 2003). She said that she was working on incorporating gradual release of responsibility into her writing instruction because she acknowledged it to be an area of weakness.

An additional self-identified challenge in teaching English Language Arts that Crystal expressed during her interview was the ability to plan the right amount of class time students will need for a lesson or a skill. In reference to this weakness she said, "I haven't quite mastered that yet." She felt she often did not plan for enough time, resulting in a product that feels "pushed" due to her expecting students to quickly complete an assignment. Crystal believed that she is improving on this challenge by eliminating other writing pieces or adjusting a lesson in order to give students the time they need to complete their work.

Case Study #3 – Jo March

Jo March moved around a bit as a child. She spent her elementary years in New Hampshire, her middle and high school years in Michigan, and then went to college in Pennsylvania. She worked as a political analyst in Washington, D.C., before she decided her calling was in education and returned to school to get certified in Special Education. She moved to Utah for what she described as "the incredible opportunities for outdoor adventures" and spent every available weekend outside where the mountains were

calling. No longer in Special Education, Jo March taught Advanced Placement (AP) Literature, AP Language, and English 12. At the time of this study, Jo March had been a classroom teacher for 12 years.

Research question one: What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching? Jo March completed the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and a personal interview to answer Research Question One. The following section outlines key ideas regarding her beliefs toward teaching as identified from these three data sources, coded using a priori codes as part of a content analysis.

Table 21

Summary of Jo March's Beliefs Toward Teaching

- Teaching is using a variety of methods and modes to transfer information and learning processes to others
- Teaching requires innate talent, but skills can also be learned
- Effective teaching is innate, and while efficacy can be improved, not everyone can be taught to be an effective teacher
- Necessary knowledge to effectively teach is specific subject matter knowledge as well as written, verbal, and interpersonal communication skills and curriculum design skills.
- Knowledge comes from mainly from teaching experience, but also from instruction and innate ability
- Knowledge unique to teachers is the ability to do many different things, make thousands of daily decisions, and do all of this while balancing dozens of different personalities
- Most emphasized goal is equality among students
- Least emphasized goal is instruction based on subject matter

Jo March expressed the belief that using what she refers to as "multiple modalities" each period would engage students and support learning. These modalities referred to learning modalities, such as visual, audible, tactile, and kinesthetic learning.

She believed each lesson needed a mix of these modalities within each day's structure. In the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), she stated the belief that "Teaching is transferring information and learning processes to others through a variety of modes and methods." She believed that by providing a variety of modes and methods she could reach the greatest number of students in the classroom, helping them to learn and develop their reading and writing skills.

Although Jo March believed that teaching is a talent "some people are born with," she also believed that skills can be learned if individuals possess some innate ability. Thus, although teacher efficacy can be improved, not everyone can be taught to be an effective teacher if they do not already possess some innate abilities that lend themselves to teaching.

As part of her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Jo March identified what she believed to be necessary teaching knowledge.

> The knowledge necessary is subject matter specific as well as the knowledge on how to transfer that subject matter knowledge. This includes both verbal and written communication skills, instructional design skills, skills in differentiation, and interpersonal skills.

The teaching knowledge Jo March believed to be necessary contained the elements she believed created an effective teacher. The source of this essential teaching knowledge arose from multiple places: (a) innate ability, (b) teacher preparation instruction, and (c) enactive experiences as a teacher. Jo March believed that the final source, teaching experience, is where the majority of teacher knowledge is generated.

Jo March believed that knowledge unique to teachers is the ability to multitask and make thousands of daily decisions, all while balancing the personalities of the

classroom. This unique knowledge belief was demonstrated through her analysis of the story "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005). She was asked to analyze and evaluate the story based on elements of teaching and learning, and she took a unique response in her analysis approach. Rather than identifying events from the story and breaking each down, Jo March stated takeaways from the story with a follow-up phrase to explain the stated term. For example, excerpts of her analysis included, "trial and error - both teaching and learning through a testing and evaluation process." She stated the idea of "learning through intuition - connected to prior knowledge but working with skills that are innate to you." Another identified concept was "group learning - working together to learn a new skill or build on prior knowledge." What these snippets of her analysis suggest is an analytical mind that looks beyond the actions to the underlying causes and issues behind them, providing insight into how she thinks and approaches teaching based on her beliefs.

As part of the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Jo March was asked to rank 13 teacher goals based on teacher beliefs. She was the only participant who selected equality among students as the number one priority that teachers should emphasize in their classrooms. Equality among students, her highest ranked teacher goal, was followed by student critical thinking and student creativity. She ranked instruction based on subject matter as her lowest priority of the 13 goals listed on the survey. Table 22 shows the complete rankings of Jo March's teacher goals based on her espoused beliefs about teaching English Language Arts.

Table 22

Rankings of Teacher Goals based on Teacher Beliefs: Jo March

Rank	Teachers should emphasize …
1.	Equality among students
2.	Critical thinking in students
3.	Student creativity
4.	Student independence
5.	Generalized skills and abilities
6.	Life-long learning
7.	The process of learning
8.	The products of learning
9.	Instruction based on student interests
10.	Content specific knowledge
11.	Academic excellence
12.	Learning standards
13.	Instruction based on subject matter

Jo March's responses suggest that she placed primary emphasis on students over that of curriculum-driven instruction and learning standards. This was demonstrated by her high ranking of equality among students, helping students develop critical thinking skills, fostering student creativity, and nurturing student independence in her classes. Jo March's espoused beliefs about teaching English Language Arts also encompassed teaching students generalized skills and abilities, helping them to become life-long learners, and focusing on both the processes and products of learning. Moreover, her espoused beliefs showed a preference for developing instruction based on student interest over that of learning standards and instruction based on subject manner.

Research question two: How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practices? Jo March's espoused and enacted beliefs about teaching writing, as well as elements that interact with or influence her espoused beliefs about

teaching, are examined in this section. Content analysis was used to analyze Jo March's responses on the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), personal interview, and classroom observations. The following themes about her espoused beliefs and enacted practices were made visible through the analysis: Writing, Teacher Behavior, Technology, Class Time Use, Instructional Scaffolding, Learning Activities, and Student Comprehension. Table 23 provides an overview of each category and its associated espoused and enacted beliefs.

Writing. Jo March's espoused beliefs about writing focus on having students produce writing quality rather than quantity. In her interview, Jo March described how she liked to obtain a baseline of each student's writing ability "just to see where I can build from there." She expressed her belief in helping students develop writing skills because she believed in approaching writing instruction through "a more holistic approach." For example, she saw "the idea of writing as a process where you need to brainstorm, and you need to outline, and you need to rough draft your work." This approach to writing instruction, she believed, is important for students to recognize as a process, "especially for students that are going to see education past high school" because writing development and writing strength increase through the writing process.

However, Jo March believed that not all critical thinking in writing must come from highly academic writing structures. She believed great value could be found from providing creative writing activities. For example, while the class was reading *The Scarlet Letter* (Hawthorne, 1850), Jo March posed writing questions to the students such as, "Where would Hester go on a road trip and why?" and "Which children's book would

Table 23

Summary of Jo March's Belief Alignment with Writing Practices

Category	Espoused belief	Enacted belief	Interpretation
Writing	Quality is better than quantity, and not all critical thinking in writing needs to come from highly academic writing structures	Extensive practice, scaffolding with activities for essay content building	Alignment based on practice to improve quality
Teacher behavior	Encourage learning created by developing teacher-student relationships; create safe classroom environments for students to ask questions and explore	Interactions with students kept rapport to a minimum, and corrected/corrective behavior was coded as frequently as uncorrected behavior	Alignment based on observations indicating students felt safe to ask questions and be themselves
Technology use	Use of slides for educational targets & agenda	Frequent; students on Chromebooks often, and teacher used her computer and projector for multiple components of each lesson	Alignment based on use as a tool
Class time use	Use of multiple modalities each class: introductory activity, reading or writing based task, discussion or artistic activity, wrap up activity	Instruction tended to take up less than a fifth of the class period, with the majority of time being used for activities or work time, monitored by the teacher	Alignment based on each class having multiple components
Instructional scaffolding	Planning by term; use of homogenous and heterogenous groups to support learning	Teacher referenced content from prior classes and had students use work previously completed for new activities	Alignment based on referencing previous content, grouping for activities
Learning activities	Multiple types of activities per day, based on lesson needs	Highly academic in nature; allowed for student creativity by utilizing large sheets of butcher paper/posters for sharing main ideas	Alignment based on multiple activities building on one another
Lesson comprehension	Homogenous and heterogenous groupings to support and reteach as needed	Individuals asking questions was recorded with the same frequency as the teacher conducting comprehension checks	Alignment based on comprehension checks and reteaching of a skill

the kids like or would one of the characters like and why?" She believed that this lighthearted, "academic-ish" writing provided value and helped strengthen critical thinking and creativity in her students.

The observations of Jo March's classroom provided insight into her enacted writing practices. During observation one, she instructed students to find quotes from eight previously annotated texts to write on large sheets of butcher paper that were each labeled with an important theme. Each sheet of butcher paper was passed from table to table for each student group to add to the quotes from the previous tables. After each student group received an opportunity to add new information to the poster-sized sheets, the papers were hung in the hallways. Next, Jo March had students fold a sheet of paper based on her instructions to create their own multi-square graphic organizer. Students then used their self-created organizer to write down select content from the posters to use as quotes in their upcoming essay.

The second classroom observation involved independent student writing time with Jo March walking around the room, answering questions and checking progress. She provided guided instruction beforehand to help students develop their writing skills based upon student needs, as identified by Jo March from their last writing assignment. For example, she asked students, "Who needs a refresher lesson on the steps of setting up an essay using MLA formatting?" This resulted in multiple students raising their hands indicating they needed the refresher lesson. She used her projector and computer to display a blank document from which she created an example of MLA formatting. In addition, Jo March demonstrated the use of a reading or writing activity as part of her

daily lesson modalities structure during all three observations.

The data suggest an alignment between Jo March's espoused beliefs and enacted practices in relation to writing instruction. She provided students opportunities to develop quality in their writing, as well as critical thinking skills, through daily independent work time. Additionally, Jo March provided scaffolded instruction to help students improve their knowledge of how to write quality essays.

Teacher behavior. Jo March's espoused beliefs regarding teacher behavior were identified through the personal interview. Her beliefs included encouraging learning through student empowerment. She explained that student empowerment is created by "developing connections and creating safe classroom environments to question and explore." These connections develop through teachers understanding their students and possess an ability to reach them based upon this understanding. Jo March believed student empowerment allowed for student writing growth. She further explained that working with students and building their confidence as they see development in their writing is "always the most enjoyable part" of teaching.

Jo March's enacted practices were made visible during the three classroom observations. Across each observation it was noted that Jo's teacher-student interactions were most frequently at a professional level, with rare banter or rapport-building off-topic comments. The students demonstrated an ease in interacting with Jo March by frequently raising their hands and asking questions during individual work time. Jo March walked about the room, observing and providing feedback, throughout class work time. Students were accustomed to this, as none made an effort to get up to ask her a question at her

desk. Students raised their hands and waited for her to come to them. The willingness with which students approached each writing activity demonstrated that she had created a comfortable environment for students to learn.

Jo March's espoused and enacted teacher practices of teacher behavior appear to align. Jo March developed teacher-student relationships through professional discourse and giving students one-on-one instruction during independent work time. Further, Jo March's espoused belief of creating safe classroom environments for students to ask questions and explore was demonstrated through students frequently raising their hands to seek Jo March's help with their work.

Technology use. Jo March's espoused beliefs about technology use for English Language Arts instruction were shared during her personal interview. Her beliefs suggest that technology is not a focus when she created her learning-style structured modality-based learning activities each day. She believed that students need to both see and hear the instruction, as well as see and hear the lesson objectives. To that end, Jo March used a projected slide to display the information while she read it aloud. She did not identify additional beliefs about technology use for writing instruction.

Jo March's enacted practices with technology use were frequent and varied. In addition to displaying the agenda via projector, students often used Chromebooks for their writing assignments. For example, during observation one, Jo March had students use Chromebooks to work on vocabulary using Membean.com. This website is used by the entire English Language Arts department to provide personalized vocabulary instruction for students.

During the second observation, Jo March had students use Chromebooks in conjunction with the educational website albert.io for a starter activity. Students read and were given comprehension questions to answer for this starter activity. Next, Jo March projected PowerPoint to provide writing instructions and essay focus expectations. The Chromebooks were again used by students as each worked on creating a rough draft of his or her essay. As part of the lesson wrap-up activity, Jo March focused students on the discussion questions displayed on the board and addressed the question that students most frequently answered incorrectly.

Jo March used an additional technology tool, a movie projected onto the whiteboard. The movie was shown after writing instruction during classroom observation three. Students watched the movie because it related to the learning objectives for the day.

It is interesting to note that when asked about technology use during the interview, Jo March did not specifically identify the types of technology she uses with her writing instruction. She mentioned that she relies on technology to display the class agenda and learning targets. However, the observation data showed that Jo March commonly uses technology as instructional tools, including projecting PowerPoint slides with content during instruction, having students use Chromebooks for writing tasks and other English Language Arts assignments, and showing movies to help expand ideas and information within lessons.

It is possible that Jo March simply did not think of these various technologies when asked about her espoused beliefs of technology use. That is not to say that her

espoused beliefs and enacted practices do not align. Rather, it is possible that Jo March's espoused beliefs were not made fully visible during the interview.

Class time use. Jo March's espoused beliefs related to class time use focused on learning modalities (i.e. visual, verbal, tactile, and kinesthetic). During her interview she explained that class should "always begin with an introductory activity, either vocabulary or a tie-in to the overarching objective," then shift to a "more reading- or writing-based activity." In order to reach the greatest number of students, she believed it important to incorporate multiple modalities, such as a discussion or artistic element, in conjunction to reading or writing activities. She held the belief that each class should "always conclude with a wrap-up activity or debrief." She believed that by utilizing various modes of instruction and interaction during class time, that more students will better understand the skill they are practicing than would otherwise occur.

Jo March's enacted practices of class time use were identified through the three classroom observations. Across each of the observations, class time was used primarily for learning activities and student independent work than for teacher-led instruction. For example, once students entered the room and took their seats, they completed a starter activity that was different than the previous observed day's starter. This independent work typically occurred without prompting from Jo March.

After the starter activity was completed, students engaged in a reading and writing activity during observation one, a writing-based activity during observation two, and a reading activity during observation three. Jo March would often have students engage in a secondary activity, such as putting together a flipbook, during or shortly after the

reading or writing activity. Class concluded each day with Jo March asking students for questions about their assignments as well as asking questions of students to assess their understanding of the lessons. Jo March followed-up these question-and-answer sessions with reminding students of their homework assignments and previewing what students would be learning the next time they had class.

Based on the data, Jo March's espoused beliefs and enacted practices demonstrate alignment. Jo March reported a belief in utilizing multiple activities throughout a class period that engaged the students in different ways in order to reach different learners. This belief was apparent during classroom observations. Her first observation scaffolded learning from previous periods and had students manipulating prior content in order to graphically organize content by themes. She had students engaging with Chromebooks each day. She had students working in groups and individually using large sheets of butcher paper during observation one. During observation three she had students cutting and stapling their own flip book together to create a manipulative that they would use during future classes. She found ways to make components visual, audible, and tactile in various ways during each class.

***Instructional scaffolding*.** Jo March's espoused beliefs regarding instructional scaffolding were gathered through the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) and personal interview. She described how she scaffolds instruction when she plans for an upcoming term by using a calendar. She explained, "I map out on paper in the beginning of each quarter and then I adjust it as needed. But it's nothing formal." She then provides a copy of her planning calendar to her seniors to ensure they are aware of

the assignment due dates. Jo March believes that students need to see the target in order to hit the goal she sets for them.

An additional espoused belief held by Jo March in relation to instructional scaffolding is in the power of students learning from their peers. Subsequently, she intentionally utilizes homogenous student groupings for instruction differentiation and heterogenous groupings for peer-guided small group activities.

Jo March also used different approaches to writing instruction for her Advanced Placement (AP) students than with her General Education English 12 students. She explained that she uses baseline assignments to assess writing skills. For her AP classes, these baseline assignments "provide very little instruction in order to see how her [AP] students perform." In contrast, Jo March explained that with her General Education English 12 students "more structuring and scaffolding is required because the variety of skill levels and concept gaps is far larger" than in her AP classes. After gathering a baseline of student writing abilities within each class, she said she uses the information to form homogenous or heterogenous groupings as needed to best serve the needs of the students for each activity.

Jo March's enacted practices of instructional scaffolding were apparent through her references to prior class content. For example, during the first observation Jo March had students pull out eight previously annotated texts. Students then used these texts to find quotes for the posters they completed as tables. The table seats indicated purposeful assignment because students walked in with friends and then separated into seats at different tables. At the start of the poster activity, Jo March assigned some students at one

table to move to different tables for the activity. Students used the posters to complete student-created graphic organizers that Jo March had them work on during writing time in the second observation. Class activities were scaffolded so that one fed into the next, and class periods connected to the next class period. During observation three, Jo March had students cut and staple teacher-created flipbooks for a series of future related texts they would be reading, demonstrating that lesson scaffolding within her next unit would be used.

Based on the purposeful grouping of students and scaffolding of classes using these groupings with lessons that were interconnected, Jo March's espoused and enacted instructional scaffolding beliefs appear to align. Jo March provided instructions for students to start a task that often referred to previous activities. Before students worked on their current essay, Jo March asked students to pay attention to common mistakes from their previous writing task. Her lessons walked students through the different steps she wanted them to undergo prior to writing, such as evidence collection using annotated texts and content organization through the butcher paper activity and graphic organizer creation. Jo March expressed a belief in the need to scaffold skills for her students, creating a calendar to organize her scaffolding, and her practice indicated a reflection of her belief.

***Learning activities*.** Jo March's espoused beliefs regarding learning activities, as identified from her interview, coincided specifically with her espoused beliefs about class time use. She believed in the necessity of utilizing multiple types of activities each day, based on the needs of the lesson and overarching objective for the day, in order to engage

learners. She explained,

> I look at a lot of my [college] classes that I took that weren't necessarily education classes and how they were taught, and the things that we learned, and how we learned them. I try to incorporate that kind of cross-curricular approach.

Jo March believed that using a cross-curricular approach, pulling content and lesson ideas from noneducation courses that she took in college, benefited both her and her students. She believed that drawing from her experiences in her undergraduate classes that were not education major courses benefits her English Language Arts students and enhanced the writing lessons she created.

Jo March's enacted practices of learning activities were varied and frequent. An example of Jo's teaching practices occurred during Observation One. The starter activity was an online reading comprehension activity designed to help prepare her AP students for questions they would encounter on the AP exam. Once students had finished the starter activity, Jo had students retrieve eight academic, thematically related articles they had previously read and annotated during prior class periods. With these eight annotated sources, students were asked to add pertinent quotes regarding a specific topic onto a large sheet of butcher paper that would pass from table to table at regular intervals. Each sheet had a different theme written in the center to designate what quotes students needed to find for that specific sheet. Students were instructed to read what was written before adding their information to the paper to avoid duplicates. Once students at every table had contributed information to each poster, Jo March had student assistants tape the posters in the hallway. The hallway was lined with posters generated by these students as well as students in her other AP Language class.

Jo March continued with instruction by having each student fold an 11”x14” sheet of paper to create four columns and four rows that would be used as a graphic organizer chart. Next, she asked students write specific categories for each column and row. Once students had created their graphic organizer, she invited them into the hallway to review the information written on the posters. The goal for this activity was for students to find the necessary information on the posters needed to complete the graphic organizer chart. When the students came back into the classroom, Jo March concluded the class period with a discussion on the most frequently missed question from the starter activity and how to correct the issue, bringing the entire lesson full circle.

Interpreting the data of Jo March’s espoused beliefs, identified through her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) and personal interview, with her enacted beliefs, collected via classroom observations, the data indicates alignment. Jo March expressed the belief of necessity in utilizing different learning modalities during each class period in order to engage learners and achieve higher rates of comprehension. Her practices in the classroom utilized various visual aids (i.e., PowerPoint for essay writing improvement), audible instructions or activities (i.e., listening to an audiobook section), and tactile activities (i.e., the poster activity or flipbook creation). Her use of various activities through each period indicated an alignment between her espoused belief of integrating multiple modalities for learning with her intentional connection of classroom practices.

Lesson comprehension. Jo March’s espoused beliefs of lesson comprehension were identified from her interview responses. She believed in the use of intentionally

grouped homogenous or heterogenous student groups to support student learning and provide opportunities for teacher-based reteaching when necessary. She believed in using homogenous groupings when she needs to reteach a concept to a group of students but believed activities should utilize heterogenous groupings, especially when working on essay revisions. She stated, “I like peer editing because I think that sometimes they’re a lot more receptive of each other’s criticism and critique than they are teachers. So, I try to do that mix where I’ll put a stronger writer with a weaker writer.” She believed that students learning from their peers is helpful for both the stronger writer as well as the weaker writer, and that it helps students grow and develop as writers.

The enacted practices of student comprehension for Jo March were recorded during classroom observations. The frequency with which individuals asked questions to the teacher was as frequent as the comprehension checks the teacher did with the class. An example of Jo March’s student comprehension practices occurred during the second observation. Students were given a large amount of the period to construct their essay draft. During this time, Jo March walked around the room, checking on each student at each table before moving to the next table, answering questions as they arose. Once she made a complete pass through the room, she checked her computer and then slowly made a second pass around the room. Gathering student essays from the Turn In basket, she organized and stacked them before making another slow pass around the room. Before she stopped the writing activity, she had completed seven passes around the room, checking on each student or examining their essays to ensure progress was being made before checking on the next student.

While the espoused belief regarding heterogeneously grouped peer feedback was not seen within the enacted practices, the beliefs were not in contrast to the enacted practices, because student groupings were utilized for writing activities. Based on the stage of the writing observed, it is possible that Jo March's use of student groups for peer feedback would have been present with additional classroom observations. Reteaching of a skill was evident through observations, which Jo March espoused a belief in utilizing to ensure lesson comprehension.

Theoretical framework in teaching. Examining Jo March's responses on the questionnaire and story analysis indicated elements of behaviorism, cognitivism, social cognitivism, and socio-culturalism (Driscoll, 2005). Her personal interview did not provide clear insight into her theoretical teaching framework. During observations, Jo March's theoretical teaching framework was identified. Jo March's theoretical focus was on behaviorism in maintaining classroom management and cognitivism through graphic organizers, encoding and retrieval, and emphasizing practice. Jo March utilized elements of social cognitivism through her use of student agency with goal-directed behaviors. Additionally, Jo March used socio-cultural elements in her teaching through her use of critical thinking focused over specific skills, providing cognitive conflict, and scaffolding skills as well as lessons. Jo March worked to be more of a guide in student learning rather than an instructor.

Research question three: How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices? The following section examines Jo March's espoused beliefs and enacted

writing instruction practices and how they associate with teacher efficacy. Bandura's (1997) terms for efficacy, high efficacy and low efficacy, were revised to 'strengths' and 'challenges' respectively. Table 24 provides a brief summary of the overall findings of Jo March's espoused and enacted practices in relationship to her teacher self-efficacy. The data came from Jo March's personal interview and the three classroom observations.

Table 24

Jo March's Self-Efficacy

- Self-identified strengths: incorporating multiple modalities into each lesson to engage learners
- Self-identified challenges: getting students to demonstrate meaningful, original commentary in their writing and breaking kids of forcing essays into five paragraph structure

Strengths. Stated during her interview, Jo March believed that her teaching strength is in the incorporation of multiple modalities during lessons as an avenue for student engagement. The use of multiple activities with multiple modalities was observed across each of the classroom observations, and student behavior indicated that they thrived with this structure. For example, when students finished with a specific task and Jo March had yet to move to the next activity, the students grew restless. They started whispering to their friends or checking their phones, whereas they were usually actively engaged in the learning activity. The various activities occurring each observed class showed Jo March confident in front of her students, providing just enough instruction to get them started, and time conscious of activities.

Challenges. Jo March identified two major challenges with her writing instruction. She explained that her ability to have students to demonstrate meaningful,

original commentary, as well as breaking students of habitually writing in five paragraph structure, were her biggest challenges. As we talked during her interview, it appeared that Jo March recognized these challenges with teaching writing and that she was continually working to find ways to adjust her teaching to overcome them.

Case Study #4 – Mary Shelley

Mary Shelley was born and raised in Utah. She attended a local university to become a history teacher, wishing to follow in the footsteps of an influential high school teacher. However, when need demanded that she refocus her skill set, she became licensed in English Language Arts in order to retain a teaching position at her school and continue teaching by moving to a different department. At the time of this study, Mary Shelley had only ever taught at her current school, having taught there for 12 years. She had taught all four high school grades and both history as well as regular, honors, and AP level English classes.

Mary Shelley never felt like a strong writer because of her history teaching background. She recognized that writing can be intimidating, and she wished that her students recognized her empathy for them as they navigate the writing process. She got excited to teach students writing. She often had students work in small groups to collaboratively draft essays on large sheets of butcher paper. She was able to provide immediate feedback to the students during these types of learning activities.

Mary Shelley loved teaching poetry, persuasive letters, and other writing formats that teach kids creativity with their writing. At the time of the study, she taught ninth grade English Language Arts. Her first class period was selected for classroom

observations based on Mary Shelley's identification of that class being a 'typical class' in terms of teacher lessons and student behavior.

Research question one: What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching? Data from Mary Shelley's completed Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and personal interview were analyzed in answer to Research Question One. Content analysis using a priori codes identified themes of her espoused beliefs toward teaching English Language Arts. Table 25 summarizes Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs.

Table 25

Summary of Mary Shelley's Beliefs Toward Teaching

- Teaching is empowering others to make informed decisions and providing them with new opportunities
- Teaching requires a proclivity toward interpersonal communications, content knowledge, strong organization, and/or creativity
- Effective teaching is refining skills and reflecting to learn from yourself and others
- Necessary knowledge to effectively teach is how to reach students of varying abilities and connect with students of differing backgrounds
- Knowledge comes from learning from many teachers and their many styles as well as trial and error within your own classroom
- Knowledge unique to teachers is their understanding of the age group of their students, including the social and emotional factors that go into their teaching
- Most emphasized goal is the process of learning
- Least emphasized goal is generalized skills and abilities

As part of her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Mary Shelley shared her belief that "Teaching is empowering others with information and knowledge so that they can make informed choices and have opportunities beyond what

they originally were given." She believed that while "some days it seems schools are just for holding pens for children so they are not out causing chaos," that schools and teaching should "inspire children," and provide students with "teachers and mentors who can model for them how to be effective human beings." By teaching and being a mentor to students, she believed teachers could empower their students and provide them the knowledge they need for their future.

Mary Shelley also believed teaching to be an art. She stated that "the word art connotes something that has been created through thought, imagination, time, and emotion." She explained this belief further, stating, "Anything considered an art is admired by others and venerated for its contribution to others." Her belief in teaching being an art provides insight into her belief of her chosen profession's inherent value for its contribution to others.

In contrast, Mary Shelley did not believe teaching to be a talent people are born with. Rather, "there are aspects of teaching that some may have an inherent proclivity toward" she explained. She expounded on the important aspects of teaching, saying, "For example, some [people] are better at making interpersonal connections while others are brilliant at knowing their content area. Some are better at organization while others are highly creative." She believed that these aspects of teaching can be learned, but she believed that those with inherent ability would be more adept at learning them quickly. Mary Shelley affirmed her belief that teaching can be taught because it is possible for teachers to learn each of these skills.

Similarly, Mary Shelley believed that teachers can learn how to be an effective

teacher. She stated in her Teacher Belief Survey that learning to be effective comes from "refinement and reflection." She explained that refining one's skills and engaging in self-reflection allows for teachers to "be learners as well," and that "they have to be willing to engage in critical recognition of their own abilities." Based on her belief that teachers can be taught, she believed that teachers can also be learners in order to improve their teaching effectiveness.

Alongside these beliefs in abilities being teachable based on critical self-reflection is Mary Shelley's analysis of "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005). Mary Shelley's responses provided more analysis of the story than the other four study participants. Her analysis included: intrinsic motivation, social cognitive factors, the impact of context and environment, the use of enactive experiences, collaboration with others, and the formal education Kermit received at the beginning of the story. For example, snippets of her analysis include the importance of student choice: "Student choice is incredibly important with learning as it does contribute to the intrinsic motivation they need to become more life-long learners." Mary Shelley also addressed the process of learning when she wrote, "Learning is about applying the process of learning outside of a controlled environment into one where the variables change which is what Kermit did." What the overall analysis of this story demonstrates is Mary Shelley's ability to analyze with detail and depth, expounding on a significant number of various factors that influenced the story, rather than focusing on a single locus of the story.

When she first began teaching, Mary Shelley believed that content knowledge

was of utmost importance. Twelve years later, while she still recognized the importance of content knowledge, she said she understood there was something more important:

> I realize that my content is important, but more critical is the knowledge of how to reach students of varying levels and abilities. The knowledge of how to connect with students of backgrounds and cultures. The knowledge of how to balance the reality of teaching with the ideals of teaching.

She believed that children should be pushed to reach their highest potential. Knowing how to connect with all her students allowed her to better understand how to help them become successful learners.

An additional espoused belief expressed by Mary Shelley is that teaching knowledge comes from "interacting with many different teachers and many different styles." Indeed, she explained that undergoing trial and error in one's own classroom where a teacher can "constantly reflect and refine for themselves what is working and what does not" is highly valuable. Teaching knowledge can then be developed and learned over the course of teaching experiences and interactions with other teachers.

"What sets teachers apart," Mary Shelley explained, "is the unique knowledge that teachers possess regarding their understanding of the age group in their classroom." Understanding that "includes the social and emotional factors" that influence students and their learning. Mary Shelley believed that teachers are better able to reach their students and impact their learning by knowing and understanding "what they care about and what they do not."

Mary Shelley was asked to rank 13 teacher goals based on her teacher beliefs (Table 26). The analysis of Mary Shelley's ranked teacher goals aligns with the remainder of the data related to her espoused beliefs. She placed the process of learning

as most important, followed by student creativity and critical thinking skills. In contrast, products of learning, content specific knowledge, academic excellence, and instruction based on subject-matter were ranked as low priorities, with generalized skills and abilities listed as the lowest ranked teacher goal. These goal rankings suggest that while Mary Shelley is not focused on academic basics, she prioritized students understanding the processes of learning as well as creativity and developing critical thinking skills.

Table 26

Rankings of Teacher Goals based on Teacher Beliefs: Mary Shelley

Rank	Teachers should emphasize …
1.	The process of learning
2.	Student creativity
3.	Critical thinking in students
4.	Life-long learning
5.	Instruction based on student interests
6.	Equality among students
7.	Student independence
8.	Learning standards
9.	The products of learning
10.	Content specific knowledge
11.	Academic excellence
12.	Instruction based on subject matter
13.	Generalized skills and abilities

Research question two: How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practices? Mary Shelley's espoused and enacted beliefs about teaching writing, as well as elements that interact with or influence beliefs about teaching, are examined in this section. Mary Shelley's beliefs and practices were coded using content analysis and then separated into the following themes (Table 27) based on

Table 27

Summary of Mary Shelley's Belief Alignment with Writing Practices

Category	Espoused belief	Enacted belief	Interpretation
Writing	Pre-assess, then practice with structured paragraphs, build up skills from there; mini lessons for components rather than a whole writing lesson	Many writing components within a larger project that encompassed reading, writing, and speaking	Alignment based on each lesson containing one component
Teacher behavior	Teachers understand social and emotional factors affecting their students; should facilitate learning	Maintain classroom instruction while demonstrating rapport and a comfortable classroom	Alignment based on how teacher interacts with students and their needs
Technology use	Internet resources for writing instruction ideas	Frequent: student Chromebook use, teacher instructing using projector, PowerPoint, and YouTube video examples	Alignment in use as a resource
Class time use	Creates lessons as increments of a larger whole	Instruction and work time varied by class and lesson; teacher led instruction followed by independent student work with teacher guidance; small group work	Alignment based on lessons as increments of a larget project
Instructional scaffolding	Chunking content through steps to build up into a larger project or skill	Apparent through the references and comprehension checks based on previous lessons teacher utilized project steps to help students chunk the project into manageable steps	Alignment based on lessons scaffolding into a larger project
Learning activities	Uses to activate thinking using partners or groups; asks students to be creative	Frequent and involved all students participating either in groups or with partners on a daily basis	Alignment based on daily activities and uses partners/groups
Lesson comprehension	Corrects errors/issues one at a time instead of trying to overhaul entire writing pieces at once, knowing those small pieces build up	Clarification questions from individuals were infrequent, and comprehension checks by the teacher were three times as frequent, though students demonstrated ease in approaching the teacher	Alignment based on comprehension checks along the way, clarifying confusion during lessons based on questions

the patterns that were identified during open coding: Writing, Teacher Behavior, Technology, Class Time Use, Instructional Scaffolding, Learning Activities, and Student Comprehension.

Writing. Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs regarding writing were provided during her interview. She believed that "it is important to pre-assess a student's writing ability" at the start of the year. Further, she believed that students should "practice with structured paragraphs in order to build up their skills from there." She believed in teaching component-length lessons with time to practice rather than a class period-length writing lesson that covers more than one element. Mary Shelley believed the idea of component-focused instruction is important in building skills and that when too many concepts are introduced, comprehension gaps occur, requiring reteaching. She believed in the component-focused lessons to build to a greater finished project that encapsulates multiple skills and meets multiple state English Language Arts standards.

Mary Shelley's enacted beliefs of writing were identified through classroom observations. A number of writing components (e.g., inquiry questions, scripts, annotated bibliographies) were taught within the context of a larger project. The first term project encompassed reading, writing, and speaking and was observed within instructional activities regarding a student-created Public Service Announcement. During classroom observation two, Mary Shelley had every student in class participate by writing questions. They wrote varying levels of questions on sticky notes, then placed those notes in a designated section on the classroom whiteboard. This activity was followed by a class speaking and listening activity that built upon one another's questions.

The third classroom observation allowed insight into student independent writing time, with students at various points in their project and Mary Shelley assisting them as needed. Students were seen writing scripts on their Chromebooks or working on a step leading up to the writing portion, while the teacher walked the room as she worked individually with students who were behind the expected pace of the project.

Based upon the collected data from the students work, Mary Shelley designed her writing instruction to incorporate writing assignments into multiple components. More specifically, she taught lessons centered on elements required for a larger project, incorporating writing instruction in various ways along the way. These enacted practices of sectioning project skills into steps with provided work time align with her espoused beliefs that writing instruction should focus on teaching components followed by student practice.

Teacher behavior. Based on her interview and Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs regarding teacher behavior were identified. One espoused belief from the interview was that teachers must "understand the social and emotional factors" affecting their students and understand their age group, allowing them to teach more efficiently.

A second espoused belief held by Mary Shelley was that her job as a teacher was to facilitate the sharing of information rather than "act as a gatekeeper." She said,

> I am less of a "This is how it must be done," and more of a facilitator, mentor, guidance director, whatever adjective you would like to use. I like that better. I figured out long time ago that I hate standing up in front of kids and just lecturing. I like sharing information, but if there's information that they can get on their own, I think that's far more valuable.

In approaching teaching as a sharing of information, Mary Shelley believed that she helped students to become more autonomous as learners. She wanted students to believe that her classroom was a safe place to "take risks and try something new." In relation to this belief, she shared that she intentionally provides project opportunities that afford students some autonomy as they learn and explore.

Mary Shelley's enacted practices of teacher behavior were observed in her classroom. The students in the class were energetic and rambunctious, but they also demonstrated on-task behavior. For example, students kept their heads up and eyes facing the board or the teacher while interacting with the teacher during instruction. The students appeared to be comfortable in the classroom, as they would often laugh and joke with each other and Mary Shelley. During the first classroom observation while Mary Shelley was giving instruction to her students, a boy leaned back in his chair, fell backwards into the wall the chair was leaning against, and ended up on the floor laughing. The whole class stopped to look at what happened. Without missing a beat, after seeing that the boy was okay, Mary Shelley said, "You know, every time you guys do something dumb, I die a little inside." The students laughed and she took the opportunity to reign in the class and refocus the lesson through a reference to using pathos. She successfully transitioned her instruction back to the Public Service Announcement examples they were examining as a class.

Mary Shelley's enacted practices demonstrated alignment with her espoused belief about the teacher serving as a guide or facilitator of student learning. For example, after a brief set of instruction, students were given time to practice the newly taught

writing skills. Mary Shelley worked with students as she walked around the room, sat in open seats, or knelt down next to a student group table as she provided guidance on their writing skills. She sat at her desk just long enough to print new copies of work students were missing, then returned to working with students around the room.

The analysis of Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted practices regarding teacher behavior indicate they align with one another. She expressed her belief in her role as a guide or facilitator for student learning which she demonstrated as she walked about the room checking in with and giving guidance to each student. Further, her belief in creating a learning environment where students can learn to be autonomous was also borne out when she afforded students opportunities to independently practice the key concepts taught during instruction.

Technology use. The personal interview helped to make visible Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs regarding technology use. One of her espoused beliefs is that she valued using the internet to find resources for writing instruction ideas. She recalled how she began her career as a history teacher and, as such, she received "no formal background in how to teach people writing." Later, when her employer asked her to certify in English Language Arts in order to keep her as a teacher at the school, she said she was "put into the ELA world where I actually had to teach [writing] which was terrifying." To help herself in her new teaching assignment, she "started digging around on the Internet" to learn more about how others taught writing, what could work for her classroom, and how to better serve her students. She explained,

> What does it mean for that evidence? What does a good thesis look like? You know, how do I elaborate? And so that I've done these searches and it's taken me

> across college websites that I use like the OWL at Purdue, USC, Chapel Hill, N.C. There's a similar college writing resources there that I've used to basically teach myself. Okay. This is how you do it.

While Mary Shelley did not explicitly express her espoused beliefs in how she uses technology in her classroom, her personal use of technology and turning to the Internet to learn new material suggests a belief in using technology as a learning tool.

Classroom observations provided insight into Mary Shelley's enacted beliefs regarding technology use. Mary Shelley's classroom observations showed multiple types of and frequent use of technology for writing instruction. For example, students were asked to use Chromebooks to complete vocabulary learning on Membean at the start of each class, in addition to using Chromebooks for access to Google Docs, and intentional Internet use for research during student work time. Additional types of technology used for instruction included using a projector to display PowerPoints, sharing several YouTube video examples (Observation One), and a document camera for students to see what she was writing in real-time in order replicate her actions (Observation Three).

These data suggest that Mary Shelley values the use of technology as a classroom tool to facilitate learning. Her espoused beliefs and enacted practices cannot be identified for alignment because she did not identify specific beliefs regarding technology used for writing instruction. It could be that during the interview she simply did not think specifically about how she uses technology as an instructional tool. However, in the interview she shared her belief in using the Internet as a resource for her own learning and professional development. It is possible to tentatively suggest an alignment between Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and instructional practices based on her of technology

for professional development, along with her enacted practices of using technology for writing instruction.

Class time use. Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs regarding class time use were provided during her interview. She shared that creating lessons as increments of a larger whole, especially for project-based learning assignments, that are intended to encourage student autonomy, really "encapsulates her teaching style." She expressed her belief that students should feel comfortable taking risks in class, which requires them to have "student choice, which is so important to intrinsically motivating students." Mary Shelley believed that intrinsic motivation, created by student choice, is important to help students learn.

To provide student choice, she utilized project-based learning. In creating lessons for her students regarding these projects, she shared her belief in the value of chunking content into small steps that can build into a larger project or skill. She became excited when talking about the comprehensive projects she creates to get students engaged in not just writing, but technology, research, and content knowledge. She stated,

> We have a research-based project where we integrate the thematic concept of the unit as well as research elements into a final learning experience for the students that's not just creating an English paper and writing an essay. It uses technology, and it uses research skills. It's supposed to incorporate content knowledge. So, it's kind of a comprehensive project that I'm really excited about. It really makes the students not just connect to what's happening in the past, but it also asks them to connect to what's happening right now and it gives them more student choice with their learning. And it's not a perfect project in that there's no one perfect way to do it. So, a lot of times it asks for a lot of problem solving, patience. There are also those soft skills involved as well. It asks for time management, organization. So, I really like it. Cause it's, you know, it's like everything rolled into one, basically.

She believed this type of project encapsulates her teaching approach. Her overarching

goal is to help her ninth grade students “develop resilience” and use the classroom as “a safe place to practice without fear of failure.” She believed that “high schools can be very much a high stakes arena,” and when that high stakes feeling is in the classroom, Mary Shelley stated that the classroom cannot be a safe place to learn and grow from mistakes.

Mary Shelley’s enacted practices regarding class time use involved instruction and work time that varied by lesson. She used a significant amount of instruction, but she blended it well with student independent work time, creating a class that felt fast-paced. She did frequent comprehension checks and modeled how to create inquiry questions during one observation. She utilized activities and had students work with graphic organizers or manipulatives each day. Individual student support was provided by her as needed.

A rich point (Agar, 1994) that demonstrates Mary Shelley’s use of class time occurred during the second classroom observation. Students learned during a previous class what a Public Service Announcement was. During an unobserved class, students were taught what basic human rights were. To help students think of a research question regarding a basic human rights violation, Mary Shelley spent the entire period of the second observation showing what different levels of questions existed and had students practice creating their own inquiry questions of different levels. The inquiry question chart she provided to students appeared structurally very similar to a Bloom’s Taxonomy chart (Bloom, 1956). Her PowerPoint created visuals for her students as she explained what inquiry was, what it meant to wonder, and the different levels of questioning as shown in Bloom’s Taxonomy.

Mary Shelley had students read a short article and then asked them to discuss the article posing only questions and answering questions with questions. Afterwards, she handed out sticky notes to each table of students. Student groups were assigned to write three of each of the question types, Bloom's levels two through six, creating a total of fifteen questions based on the article they just finished reading. As the small groups collaborated on generating their questions, Mary Shelley walked around to each group to check on them before sitting and working with a small group of students. After working with this small group, she moved to another small group who needed assistance. Once finished, she had the students place the sticky notes containing their questions onto the whiteboard in the square correlating with the level of Bloom's Taxonomy the question represented.

After a quick debrief about the questions they wrote, she had the students each go up and select three sticky notes with questions from different categories that their table was not responsible for creating. Mary Shelley explained that students were to answer the question on the sticky note with another question. That question would spark another question, and another. She told the students everyone had to participate. One student tried to say that he did not have a question, but she did not let him opt out (Lemov, 2010) of participating.

Next, Mary Shelley had students volunteer to answer the question posed before it with a question of their own, creating a chain of questions answered with another question. The learning objective for this activity was to have students practice asking good questions. Once every student had participated twice, she concluded the lesson with

a recap of the inquiry process and how the process applied to the larger Public Service Announcement project.

The analyses of Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted practices of class time use indicates an alignment between beliefs and practices with respect to writing instruction that is centered on project-based lessons. Across each of the three classroom observations, she taught lessons that built upon one another in preparation for a project-based unit.

Instructional scaffolding. Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs about instructional scaffolding were made visible during her interview. She explained,

> Usually it starts with some sort of pre-writing activity. It's usually some sort of brainstorming or looking at an article or analyzing something. And then after their brainstorming, then it's taking that and putting that down into some sort of outline. And then after that, it's writing it. Sometimes depending on the classes, like my regular freshman classes, they need more scaffolding. So, like the first writing assignment we did together, we wrote the introduction all together. So, we wrote the hook and all that all together. Then I was looking at the last half, how they embedded evidence and whatnot, scaffolding as needed. And then they actually produced something. And then we're looking at, okay, what do we need to introduce to hopefully make it better?

Through instructional scaffolding and providing structure and support based on students' needs, Mary Shelley believed she could help students produce work they could learn from. She believed that by scaffolding these skills throughout the year, "hopefully those small things build up, and by the end of the year your writing should have all these pieces because we've gone over these pieces by piece through the year." She believed that her students could develop their writing by providing them with scaffolded component-based lessons.

Mary Shelley's enacted practices of instructional scaffolding were identified from

classroom observations. Her use of instructional scaffolding was demonstrated across all three observations. During observation one, Mary Shelley taught a lesson about what a Public Service Announcement was and the various ways they can be used. She scaffolded students' background knowledge of Aristotle's rhetorical appeals by having students recall the three appeals. This was immediately followed with her using the rhetorical appeals throughout the lesson and asking students to indicate which appeal had been used and how it was used.

Instructional scaffolding was used throughout the class during observation two. In this class period, students were learning how to create inquiry questions, and how those questions help to inform the design of a Public Service Announcement. Additional evidence of instructional scaffolding was found in observation three. For that lesson, Mary Shelley had an index card projected onto a screen at the front of the classroom. Students were each given an index card of their own. Mary Shelley identified each component of the Public Service Announcement while identifying due dates for each component of the project-based assignment. She scaffolded instruction for her students by explaining how each component of a lesson was used in the subsequent lesson component.

These data indicate that Mary Shelley' espoused beliefs and enacted practices align because she used instructional scaffolding of writing skills through the use of project-based lessons. One of Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs was that of using scaffolded instruction to help students learn the component skills and then integrate those skills into a larger, project-based assignment. Her enacted practices demonstrated the

same focus on skills being scaffolded in each lesson as well as providing help to individual students as they practiced using the information taught. Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted practices are aligned with respect to instructional scaffolding.

***Learning activities*.** Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs related to learning activities for English Language Arts instruction were identified from her interview responses. She believed in using learning activities to activate students' critical thinking with the use of partners or groups. She explained,

> More discussion on this, more activities where the kids have to talk to the whole class. Or to partners or what not, that's going to hopefully spur their thinking so that when they do sit down to write, they actually have something to say.

She believed that through partner or group activities, students of varying ability levels were better able to learn and develop ideas for writing. She had an average of 35 students in each of her classes, which resulted in a wide range of student abilities. She explained, "We've got kids at very different levels and some kids are more gifted when it comes to expressing themselves with writing." She believed students were better able to learn and develop as writers when they could work with and learn from their peers, than if they were learning solely from the teacher.

The enacted practices regarding learning activities of Mary Shelley were identified through classroom observations. Across the three observations, she used a variety of student groupings for learning activities including whole-class discussions, small groups, student pairs, and independent work time. For example, in observation one, Mary Shelley used whole-class instruction when she had students watch video examples

of Public Service Announcements. At the end of each video clip, students identified relevant elements within the video as they participated in whole-class discussions about those elements.

In my second classroom observation, Mary Shelley had students work in two types of peer groups, pairs and table groups, as they collaborated on writing inquiry questions, and as they responded to those questions with inquiry questions of their own. During the third classroom observation, students worked independently or with partners, based on the which step of the Public Service Announcement project they were completing.

Throughout each of the classroom observations, Mary Shelley was an integral support for student learning. For example, the inquiry question activity entailed having students work in small groups. All of the small groups had equal number of students except one group that ended up with fewer students than the rest of the groups. Subsequently, after checking in with each of the small groups, Mary Shelley spent the remaining time with the smallest student group in order to help them keep pace on their assignment with the other groups. At one point of the activity, she paused the student groups in order to provide more instruction. Afterwards, Mary Shelley walked around to each of the student groups to provide help and guidance as needed.

In sum, Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted practices related to learning activities show they are aligned. Her espoused belief of using a variety of structures (e.g., whole class, small groups, pairs, and independent work time) was visible across each learning activities observed by the researcher.

Lesson comprehension. Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs regarding student comprehension were provided during her interview. She believed in correcting errors and issues one at a time instead of trying to overhaul a completed writing assignment at once, trusting that her incremental feedback can help students improve their writing. She explained,

> I like the idea of mini lessons where you introduce a concept, maybe practice it with some exercises, and then the kids try to apply it in something they've already written or something that's coming, is what I like to do. You know, I don't like to say, OK, you need to do this and this and this and this and this. It's like with my freshmen, we were just talking about formal and informal and swapping out the pronouns in their writing. One small thing that can make a huge difference, you know, instead of going in and overhauling the whole thing.

Mary Shelley believed that through the building up of smaller elements of the writing process, students learn with fewer gaps and can more effectively develop their writing skills.

Writing skills, she believed, come from providing feedback with these individual concept lessons in order to correct issues before they become habit. She gave an example of having students craft a paragraph in groups on a sheet of butcher paper, which she really enjoyed because "you can go around and give them feedback right then and there about what it is they are not doing." She believed experiences and activities like these helped her identify where student comprehension needs attention, allowing her to provide instruction to correct mistakes as students learn.

Mary Shelley's enacted beliefs of lesson comprehension were demonstrated during observations. Clarification questions from individual students were infrequent. Comprehension checks by the teacher were three times as frequent as individual

questions, though students demonstrated ease in approaching the teacher during work time.

An illustrative example of Mary Shelley's assessing students' comprehension occurred during the third classroom observation. She walked around the room during work time to speak to each student individually about what was missing in their writing and what needed to be redone, taking an interest in each student's learning and individual needs. She talked with each student, providing answers and instructional support as needed. She occasionally went to her computer to print off a paper that she no longer had ready-made copies of to give to a student. She gave the handout to the student then moved to the next student to discuss their individual needs.

The data suggest that Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted practices related to student comprehension aligned. She believed in working with students when they have questions or were have struggles with the writing process. Interpreting further, this belief also aligns with her belief of placing student learning ahead of other potential teacher goals (see Table 26).

Theoretical framework in teaching. Mary Shelley's theoretical teaching framework was identified by her responses on the questionnaire, story analysis, and interview, but were identified during classroom observations. Mary Shelley used behaviorism, cognitivism, social cognitivism, and social culturalism (Driscoll, 2005) to vary degrees in her teaching. Her teaching indicated elements of behaviorism in her classroom management and the shaping she used. Cognitivism was observed through her use of attention to details for pattern recognition, graphic organizers, as well as encoding

and retrieval. Social cognitivism was shown in providing goal-directed behavior and personal agency. Socio-culturalism was indicated through the scaffolding of skills, acting as a guide more than an instructor, and pushing students toward cognitive conflict.

Research question three: How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices? The following section examines Mary Shelley's espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices and how they associate with teacher efficacy, as identified from her interview and the three classroom observations. A brief description of Mary Shelley's writing instruction practices are provided first to contextualize her self-identified strengths and challenges in order to examine Research Question Three. The results of Mary Shelley's self-identified strengths and challenges with teaching English Language Arts are then presented. Table 28 provides a brief summary of the overall findings of Mary Shelley's espoused and enacted practices relationship to her teacher self-efficacy.

Table 28

Mary Shelley's Self-Efficacies

- Self-identified strengths: breaking down a writing task or project to scaffold it into manageable steps, and creating projects.
- Self-identified challenges: ensuring that students of differing ability and comprehension levels are all understanding the lessons, especially with 35-40 students per class.

***Strengths*.** Mary Shelley explained that her strengths lie in her ability break down a project into manageable, scaffolded steps, to develop engaging, creative lessons that help students develop the needed skills to create multi-faceted projects. She also

indicated that one of her strengths as an English Language Arts teacher is that she is able to engage with and understand the age group of students she teaches. An additional strength Mary Shelley identified was her ability to parse large project-based assignments into scaffolded components. Each of these self-identified strengths were present across the three classroom observations.

Challenges. Mary Shelley's self-identified challenge as a teacher of the writing process was her concern of ensuring that students of all abilities and levels are understanding the lessons. She explained that this was especially challenging for her when her class sized averaged 35-40 students. Mary Shelley consistently tried to meet the needs of her individual students across each of the classroom observations. It was noted that she walked around to each table of students, talking to individual students about what they were missing and what they needed to catch up on. Also, she walked around the classroom, joining in to work with small groups who appeared to be struggling in order to help them with the assignment. In these ways, Mary Shelley was able to demonstrate her awareness of her self-identified challenge as a teacher and how she works to address that challenge.

Case Study #5 – Zelda Fitz

Zelda Fitz was born and raised in Utah. After starting to teach, she got married and paused her career in order to raise a family before returning to the field of teaching. At the time of this study, Zelda Fitz taught the AP Literature and Language courses as well as classes for yearbook and journalism. Being in charge of the yearbook, she could often be seen at different school events, camera in hand, ready to capture the school year

with a shudder and a flash. She had spent all 21 years of her teaching career within the same high school. She often said that if she still had small children at home, she could not take on nearly as much work as she does. Her husband, an attorney, enjoyed challenging her intellectually and they both enjoyed evenings where they could read literature textbooks and engage in academic discourse about their readings.

Research question one: What espoused and enacted beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching? Zelda Fitz completed the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and a personal interview. The following section outlines key ideas regarding her teaching beliefs identified from these data sources, which have been coded using a priori codes within a content analysis. Table 29 summarizes her espoused beliefs.

Table 29

Summary of Zelda Fitz's Beliefs Toward Teaching

- Teaching is educating and preparing students to advance from one life focus to another
- Teaching requires passion, and is not for the weak
- Effective teaching is based on work, effort, and collaboration
- Necessary knowledge to effectively teach is learned in the classroom, as well as from coworkers and mentors, but is not learned at the university level
- Knowledge comes from mentors, colleagues, online resources, books, and self-reflection
- Knowledge unique to teachers is how to juggle activities, classes, administrative assignments, and so forth on a daily basis
- Most emphasized goal is critical thinking in students
- Least emphasized goal is life-long learning

One of Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs, as she noted on the Teacher Beliefs

Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), was, “Teaching is educating and preparing students to advance from one area of life focus to another.” She believed that effective teaching “takes work, effort, [and] a cohort of fellow teachers” and that “collaboration and education can make someone the best teacher he/she can be.” If a teacher is willing to put in the time and effort, she believed they could become a good teacher.

Zelda Fitz believed teaching to be a highly creative and engaging endeavor. She responded that effective teaching requires a significant amount of work, a strong work ethic, passion, and intelligence. Zelda Fitz believed that although teaching is a talent people can be born with, it could also be learned and developed with practice. She elaborated on her belief of developing effective teaching skills over time, stating, “Teaching can begin as a tiny gift that is fostered by passion that grows day by day, month by month, and year by year.” She explained her views further, stating, “Teaching is not for the weak and feeble because it can be exhausting and grueling.” She believed that passion is what keeps teachers in the classroom.

Zelda’s espoused belief about teaching writing is that it takes “work, work, and more work” to do it well, especially if teachers are willing to put in the effort and collaborate with their coworkers. These ideas were explored in her analysis of the story “Kermit and the Keyboard” (Driscoll, 2005), where she was asked to analyze and evaluate for elements of teaching and learning. In her evaluation of the Kermit story, she provided a brief response that identified the cycle of learning through practice and failure, learning from mistakes, and trying once more. She recognized that through his perseverance through the cycle of learning a new skill that Kermit was able to improve

over time.

A close examination of Zelda Fitz's focus of her analysis of the Kermit story made visible her espoused belief of the importance of motivation and perseverance as elements of being a successful teacher. This belief is grounded by her time as a student in school. She went into teaching English Language Arts and Journalism because she felt that she excelled in those subjects as a student.

An additional espoused belief held by Zelda Fitz about teaching English Language Arts was that necessary teaching knowledge is "learned in the classroom and from coworkers and mentors, not from teacher [preparation] programs." She related her personal experiences as a novice teacher, saying that she was warmly embraced by the women of her school's English department. She explained, "They reached into their filing cabinets and gave her a copy of everything they had" to help her succeed as a teacher.

Further, Zelda Fitz shared that she believed the phrase "It takes a village to raise a child" is more accurately stated as "It takes a village of teachers to raise a teacher." Zelda Fitz believed that collaboration with teachers and learning from mentors are the sources from which learning to teach emerges, with teacher preparation programs being "nothing but a waste of time." She believed teachers learn from their experiences in the classroom.

An additional espoused belief of Zelda Fitz is that teachers have to be good at juggling: juggling activities, classes, and administrative activities, in order to be a good teacher. She responded in her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) that the skill of "juggling is what makes teaching both more active and more fun" than other professions. The challenges to teaching, Zelda Fitz believed, are what makes the job more

enjoyable and a more worthwhile endeavor.

Zelda Fitz ranked students' critical thinking and students' generalized skills and abilities at the top of the list of teacher goals based on teacher beliefs (Table 30). Student independence, the process of learning, and acquiring content specific knowledge were ranked as high priorities for teacher goals as well.

Table 30

Rankings of Teacher Goals based on Teacher Beliefs: Zelda Fitz

Rank	Teachers should emphasize …
1.	Critical thinking in students
2.	Generalized skills and abilities
3.	Student independence
4.	The process of learning
5.	Content specific knowledge
6.	Instruction based on subject matter
7.	Instruction based on student interests
8.	Equality among students
9.	Learning standards
10.	Academic excellence
11.	Student creativity
12.	The products of learning
13.	Life-long learning

Zelda Fitz's ranking data suggest that she valued thinking skills as the most important goal for English Language Arts teachers to emphasize. She ranked instruction based on subject matter and based on student interests in the middle range of teacher goals, suggesting that although instructional goals are important, helping students to develop critical thinking skills, general abilities, and independence were of higher priority to her as an English Language Arts teacher.

It is interesting to note that academic excellence and student creativity were ranked near the bottom of the list. This suggests that Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs give primary emphasis on students developing skills and not as much emphasis on student creativity within writing instruction. Additionally, her placement of helping students to become life-long learners at the bottom of the list may come from her belief that students must motivate themselves to learn, not their teachers.

Research question two: How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practices? Zelda Fitz's espoused and enacted beliefs about teaching writing, as well as elements that interact with or influence beliefs about teaching, are examined in this section. Zelda Fitz's beliefs and practices were coded and separated into the following themes (see Table 31): writing, teacher behavior, technology, class time use, instructional scaffolding, learning activities, and student comprehension. The beliefs are identified based upon the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), interview, and classroom observations.

***Writing*.** Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs regarding writing were identified during the interview. Students, Zelda Fitz believed, need "practice, practice, and more practice." She believed in approaching writing using the gradual release of responsibility approach (Fisher & Frey, 2003) and believed in the value of graphic organizers. She believed that "students are either plotters, those who plan out their writing beforehand, or plungers, those who dive right in to writing without planning." Moreover, she believed that by requiring students to complete graphic organizers before starting on their writing drafts "helps plungers become plotters." Zelda Fitz believed that students must practice writing

Table 31

Summary of Zelda Fitz's Belief Alignment with Writing Practices

Category	Espoused beliefs	Enacted beliefs	Interpretation
Writing	Students need practice, practice, and more practice	Frequent paragraphs and open-ended worksheet questions	Alignment based on frequent practice
Teacher behavior	Unspecified	Interactions with students were mostly banter, with few but equal times of corrective or uncorrected behavior	Unable to confirm or negate alignment
Technology use	Uses Google Docs and PowerPoints for student presentations	Played movie scenes and a PowerPoint	Alginment in use as a tool
Class time use	Varies class to keep interest and engagement	Instruction was always less than work time, with the majority of class time practicing a skill or working on an assignment given by the teacher	Aligned in variety of instruction
Instructional scaffolding	Starts with a graphic organizer or PowerPoint with examples, build from there based on the goal	Seen through repeated practice of various paragraph elements and feedback on the elements during class	Aligned in references to previous course content
Learning activities	Likes coming up with something quirky and try it out	Used with small groups near-daily	Alignedbased on activity she "thought up last night" and liked
Lesson comprehension	Uses daily goal to assess and then adjusts the lessons as needed for classes	Individual questions occurred with half the frequency of class-wide comprehension checks; referenced prior assignment and conducted re-teach	Aligned based on goal-focused activities and assessments, checked comprehension often

often in order to improve, saying "I try to do one a week, to be honest, like a paragraph." She explained further that "I try to do something every day, actually" but that she uses "small builds" in her assignments that equate to a complete writing piece each week.

Zelda Fitz's enacted practices on writing were demonstrated during classroom

observations. Her practices included the use of students being asked frequently to practice writing "perfect paragraphs" using a specific, academic structure. She also assigned open-ended worksheet questions to students to determine comprehension levels of their current class novel, *Lord of the Flies* (Golding, 1958).

An illustrative example of Zelda Fitz's teaching of writing comes from classroom observation one. She told her students that the annotations regarding the passage they written during the previous class needed to be redone. She handed out a new copy of the passage to each student and asked them to annotate it, providing instruction while demonstrating how to annotate. She asked the students to "have a conversation with the text" then read the first line. Pausing after reading the first line, she posed a feedback loop question, asking the students what kind of tree was referenced in the text. After a student, who answers frequently, answered her question, she continued with the next line of the text and asked a second feedback loop question. She finished reading the end of the paragraph and paused. Next, Zelda Fitz asked students to identify describing words for the passage's subject 'Sylvia' and main object 'the pine tree' before giving them time to annotate the paragraph they just finished reviewing as a class.

She continued this pattern with frequent pausing and feedback loops with various students who volunteered answers for each paragraph until she finished the text. In between paragraphs, while she provided time for students to annotate, Zelda Fitz gave each student a whiteboard, dry erase marker, and facial tissue to use as an eraser. When students finished annotating their final paragraph, Zelda Fitz instructed her students to write a sentence or two to summarize the passage. As students wrote, she walked up and

down each aisle to answer questions.

She called for students to display their whiteboards, then selected a boy who participates frequently to share his response, which he did. Criticizing his summary, she told him it was "the first-grade version" because it was the simplest version of the summary with "just facts and no interpretation." She then called on another student who read her summary aloud, demonstrating more detail. The teacher used this example to express the value of word choice.

Next, Zelda Fitz had students erase their summaries and create a T-chart on their whiteboards with "Sylvia" on one side and "tree" on the other, asking them to pull words from the text that described each. After she provided time to write, she had students call out answers from their T-charts to fill in the large T-chart she made on the classroom whiteboard. They discussed the juxtaposition of big and small with the student who had previously been criticized and continued to provide answers to each question Zelda Fitz posed.

The teacher then called for students to erase their T-charts and craft a thesis statement on their whiteboards. She provided sentence frames for students to complete. The student who was very active in class was called on once again to share his thesis statement, this time receiving specific praise for his thesis statement. She continued cold calling (Lemov, 2010) on two more students before having students turn in their materials and giving them time to check their phones before she handed out a worksheet and transitioned to the novel they were reading outside of class.

Zelda Fitz's use of examples and providing students time to practice writing skills

as they revised their essays aligns with Zelda Fitz's espoused belief that students must practice repeatedly until they have mastered a skill. These data suggest that her espoused beliefs and enacted practices are aligned, especially based on how her espoused beliefs are the foundation for her writing instruction practices.

Teacher behavior. The content analysis of the Zelda Fitz's Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and personal interview did not reveal specific insights about her espoused beliefs regarding teacher behavior. I carefully reviewed the data multiple times to determine if her responses contained latent data but was unable to identify personal teacher behavior beliefs. Although the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire, Kermit and the Keyboard analysis, and personal interview did not include expressed beliefs regarding teaching behaviors. However, the classroom observations provided data regarding her enacted practices.

Zelda Fitz's enacted practices for teacher behavior indicated that her interactions with students were mostly in the form of banter, with few times of corrective responses to behavior. The observations also showed that she would sometimes not address inappropriate student behavior. Across each of the three classroom observations, Zelda Fitz had very few instances of corrective responses to behavior or issues with uncorrected behavior. Students sat attentively throughout her class period, suggesting that Zelda Fitz had strong classroom management skills.

What was interesting during the observations in this classroom was how absolutely silent the students were throughout each class period. Indeed, it was rare to

hear a student whisper to another student. The majority of students sat silently at their desks, even when Zelda Fitz had students work on an assignment with a partner. This silent classroom was not the case during the lessons that she assigned students to work in small group activities. However, the majority of class time involved independent student work during which students were quietly completing their assignments at their desks. In addition, it was common for students to sit at their desks and wait silently until she started class.

The three observations of Zelda Fitz's writing lessons further revealed the classroom norm of learning as a silent endeavor. It was often a challenge for Zelda Fitz to get students to volunteer answers during whole class instruction. She would frequently call on those students who willingly raised their hand for every question because the other students would simply wait for her to call on someone else. It was not uncommon for Zelda Fitz to provide the answer to a question then pose another question at those times that students were unwilling to share their ideas and answers. Even if she attempted to banter with them, the students would often remain silent.

Technology use. Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs regarding technology use for writing instruction centered on having students use technology as a learning tool. She explained that she finds having her students use Chromebooks for various writing processes, including writing essays in Google Docs, is an effective use of technology. She said, "The Internet changed everything." Her espoused belief of using technology in the classroom is related to her belief in students learning to write through gradual release of responsibility.

Zelda Fitz expressed her belief in the need for students to use collaborative technology, including Google Docs, in order to collaborate on writing an essay as a group. Further, Zelda Fitz believed that technology helps students when working in group projects by giving everyone a task within the assignment. She shared that when she assigns a poster and a PowerPoint to a small group of students the technology helps to ensure that "everybody's busy." She believed that her practice of combining technology tools (i.e., Google Docs, PowerPoint) alongside the poster during a writing project was an effective way to engage students in learning because she "can't stand group work where two people do all the work and the other two just sit there." It was her belief that the use of two technology tools within an assignment assured that every student in the group had work to do and ways to contribute.

Zelda Fitz's enacted practices of technology use were obtained by three classroom observations. Technology was used in each observed class. For example, in observation one, the students watched scenes from the film *Lord of the Flies* after they read the specific chapters in the novel. Watching the video clips took place at the end of a class period. The scenes observed were specific to the content the students had finished reading and completing a comprehension worksheet on earlier that period. She introduced the film and implied that the film scenes were to help visualize the scenes for comprehension as well as act as a reward for their work in the novel thus far.

An additional use of use of technology happened during observation two when Zelda Fitz used a PowerPoint to display student thesis examples. The thesis examples were identified by name as she gave whole class instruction and feedback on the essays

students had recently submitted for grading. Next, Zelda Fitz explained to the students the strengths of the example essay and what improvements could be made in the sample essay.

The analysis of Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted practices regarding the use of technology for writing instruction revealed gaps between her beliefs and practices. Specifically, Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs about how she uses technology for writing instruction did not directly align with the observed enacted practices. It may be that the instructional activities viewed in the three classroom observations did not accommodate the use of Chromebooks and Google docs. It is possible that additional observations would show students using Chromebooks and Google docs. It is also possible that Zelda Fitz simply did not think to include her use of videos as a teaching tool when she shared her beliefs about technology use in writing instruction.

It is possible to suggest that Zelda Fitz holds the belief that technology in the English Language Arts classroom can contribute to student learning. This latent belief was made visible during each of the three classroom observations when Zelda Fitz used video clips for enhancing student understanding of a novel they had read together, and when she used PowerPoint slides to teach her students about elements of writing effective essays. Therefore, it is possible to suggest that Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and classroom practices are aligned with regards to the use of technology for writing instruction.

Class time use. Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs of class time use focused on her desire to keep her class interesting and varied. She summarized her beliefs regarding her

approach to class time during her interview. She stated,

> I like to vary what I do in every class period. And I don't want to bore, not that education is boring, but I want them to be engaged throughout the whole eighty-five minutes. So, I break it up into like three things and usually one is something visual, one is something hands on. Another one might be technology. So yeah, variety I think is essential, especially with the teenage brain.

Zelda Fitz's belief that teaching is fun because of the variety and level of activity is something she extended into her classroom for her students. She believed that students need variety and multiple learning activities during a class period in order to keep them engaged.

Zelda Fitz's class that I observed for this study was a twelfth-grade AP Literature class. The class was held during the first school period of the morning. Across the three observations, Zelda Fitz followed a teaching routine that first involved teacher-led instruction, followed by an activity that incorporated either individual, partner, or group work. The student work time was immediately followed by the teacher bringing the students back together to discuss answers and correct any incorrect responses. These tasks appeared customary for the students, as they seemed familiar and comfortable with the activities she assigned. Indeed, throughout the three classroom observations, the students never approached Zelda Fitz to ask for help with how to accomplish a task they had been given. In addition, each learning activity involved a manipulative of some sort, typically a worksheet or graphic organizer, but not always, as one activity included having students use small whiteboards.

Also, Zelda Fitz's enacted practices regarding class time use revealed that learning activities and student-pair work time occupied the majority of the class period,

with some time spent on teacher-led instruction. For example, during classroom observations one and three, the majority of class time was spent with students practicing a skill or working on an assignment. Zelda Fitz balanced teacher-instruction time with student-practice time by walking around the room and stopping to visit with each student about their work and provide one-on-on instruction to them.

The data regarding Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted practices in relation to class time use suggests that her beliefs and practices align. One of her espoused beliefs was that writing instruction should include multiple learning activities in a given class period. She also believed that writing instruction should have engage students with different types of learning tools such as technology programs, hands-on activities, and something "visual." Her enacted practices supported these beliefs because she would commonly segment each class period with teacher-led instruction, student work time, followed by review time. Additionally, she incorporated technology, graphic organizers, and activities to foster student engagement.

Instructional scaffolding. Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs related to instructional scaffolding involved intentional use of prewriting organizers and a backwards design for instructional planning that was based on an end goal. During her interview Zelda Fitz discussed her beliefs, stating that she starts each writing assignment with a graphic organizer or PowerPoint with examples. Then, she has students work their way up through the skills of a complex writing task after they have "plotted" to avoid students writing without structure. Plotting, she espoused, helps keep students from being "plungers" or those students who plunge into a paper without planning. Zelda Fitz said

that she creates each of her lessons by working backward from a learning goal and, based on that goal, she identifies needed skill scaffolding centered on students' needs She finds that a lot of her students struggle at the start of the school year "to introduce quotes without simply dropping them into essays as quote bombs."

Zelda Fitz explained that she "continually drills a skill until every student demonstrates proficiency." Moreover, she believed that repeated practice on a skill, like writing, is key. "I do a lot of practice, a lot of short little paragraphs" to help students develop writing skills. She believed in basing the repetition of students practicing writing skills on the goals she aims for students to achieve throughout the school year.

Zelda Fitz's enacted practices of instructional scaffolding were documented from classroom observations. Instructional scaffolding was observed through repeated student practice of various paragraph elements and her giving students feedback on students' level of understanding those elements during class. For example, in observation one, Zelda Fitz had her students re-annotate a text because she thought the skill had not been demonstrated with adequate proficiency the first time. After students annotated the text once more, she had students practice constructing thesis statements on their individual whiteboards as they practiced that skill in class.

During observation two, Zelda Fitz used thesis statement examples for students to learn from. These thesis statement examples were taken from essays the students had previously completed and submitted in preparation for the AP writing practice session they would be working on that day in class.

These findings suggest that Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted practices

about instructional scaffolding are aligned. She demonstrated her belief in "drill[ing] a skill" to work toward full class proficiency in her daily writing instruction activities. She also demonstrated an alignment between her espoused belief of the importance of providing instruction that helps students build their writing skills upon one another. She demonstrated putting her belief into classroom practice when she asked her students to return to a previous assignment in order to improve their abilities,

Learning activities. Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs of learning activities were identified during her personal interview. She said that she "like[s] coming up with something quirky and try[ing] it out" to see how it works with her students. During her interview she shared that she likes to try new things and that she is open to trying things that add variety to her class. She explained,

> I tried a group Socratic seminar once, and I didn't like it. I thought it was supposed to be the big thing. I love Think-pair-share, I love, I love smaller group groupings because I think a Socratic seminar lets people sit on their butts and not participate. So, I used to teach in a smaller room and it just was- with 40 kids in there, it is just crazy, so I just divided it into fours and put four groups of 10 kind of thing and I like that much better. So, it is a Socratic seminar kind of thing and it works okay. I've tried fishbowl too.

When it comes to lessons, Zelda Fitz felt that inserting variety into each lesson helps to keep the students engaged. She tried to break each class up into three parts that change based on student needs.

She also believed in using variety with her assignments to help engage students. Prior to the classroom observations, she said she assigned her classes group essays using homogenous grouping where every student was responsible for a paragraph and they had to work together to edit and revise. She felt very good about how the assignment went

and the challenge that making the essay a group assignment created.

Zelda Fitz's enacted practices regarding learning activities were identified during three classroom observations. The observations showed that she frequently integrated small group work for writing instruction. For example, during observation one she engaged students in a whole-class activity wherein each student worked on individual whiteboards. After that activity was completed, she assigned students to work with a partner on a comprehension worksheet. During the second observation Zelda Fitz utilized an individual activity with practicing timed writing for their AP exam.

During observation three, she divided the students into six groups and had them share their writing on an assignment they completed at home. Students took turns sharing with the group what they wrote. Next, Zelda Fitz changed the student groupings and had them once again share their completed writing assignments one at a time to their new group members.

The variety of student learning activities used during writing instruction suggests that Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted practices of learning activities are aligned. In giving students multiple learning activities, and opportunities to prepare for the AP exam, her enacted practices align with her belief in students needing "practice, practice, and more practice." From this interpretation, her espoused beliefs align in multiple aspects of her enacted practice.

Lesson comprehension. Data for Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs of lesson comprehension come from personal interview responses. She believed that if she used a daily goal to assess student learning, she could adjust the subsequent lessons as needed

for her students. She explained,

> After I read a batch of essays or whatever from everybody I know the three or four skills that we need to work on, and I- We just work on those, and at the end of the day, I know what they have to have.

She believed that by evaluating student work she could determine how to adjust her classes to meet students' needs, including opportunities to practice skills until they could all do the skill with proficiency.

The enacted practices regarding student comprehension of Zelda Fitz were gathered during classroom observations. During observation one, Zelda Fitz had students revise an assignment based on their low proficiency levels of the skills within the assignment. She provided instruction to the students and stopped frequently to guide student understanding by asking prompting questions. The purpose of her instruction was to ensure students were focused on the most important aspects of the writing skills being practiced. Next, Zelda Fitz had students practice crafting thesis statements and revising those thesis statements a few times in order to encourage more complex thinking and verbiage. During activities, Zelda Fitz was seen walking about the room, stopping to talk to different students and provide them with additional instruction as needed.

Zelda Fitz's focus on ensuring that students understood the skill before moving on to the next skill was demonstrated through her observations. This enacted practice aligns with her espoused belief that drilling a skill is an effective practice to help students show proficiency. Her belief in students practicing writing process skills repeatedly, and in giving feedback based on graded work, demonstrated the alignment between her espoused belief and enacted practice.

Theoretical framework in teaching. Zelda Fitz's personal theoretical framework was unclear in examining the data from the questionnaire, story analysis, and personal interview. Her theoretical teaching framework became visible in examining the data from classroom observations. Zelda Fitz used a blend of behaviorism and cognitivism (Driscoll, 2005) in her teaching approach. Behaviorism elements were observed in her classroom management as well as with her shaping and discriminative stimuli. Cognitivism was evident in the worksheets and repeated practice of skills. While she showed indications of social cognitivism in self-regulation and personal agency, the data for social cognitivism was minimal.

Research question three: How does teacher self-efficacy in writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices? The following section examines Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices and how they associate with teacher efficacy. We chose to revise Bandura's term of high self-efficacy to 'strength' and the term low self-efficacy to 'challenge'. The data in this section comes from the personal interview and the three classroom observations. Table 32 provides a brief summary of the overall findings of Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs and enacted practices relationship to her teacher self-efficacy. Zelda Fitz's self-identified strengths and challenges with teaching English Language Arts are then presented.

Strengths. Zelda Fitz's self-identified strengths as a teacher include her utilization of activities that engage independent, partner, and small group work. Additionally, she identified her ability to engage her students with a variety of different activities as a

Table 32

Zelda Fitz's Self-Efficacies

• Self-identified strengths: one-on-one and small group work, trying different activities, being creative.
• Self-identified challenges: getting everything done with so much to do and always having more to do; developing sophistication in student writers

strength. She believed that being creative was a strength that kept her job fun and interesting.

Challenges. Zelda Fitz's self-identified challenge as a Language Arts teacher was "getting everything done and having more to do." During the course of her interview, she shared that she still had seventy student essays to grade from her most recent writing assignment. She said that to get through it "I just create my little piles of ten and then it's not so bad." She explained that as she works through everything, she finds it challenging when students just are not as strong of writers as others. She stated, "I wish there was a magic wand and you could make kids sophisticated" with regards to their writing. She said the challenge in trying to get students to develop sophistication in their writing is that "it isn't one size fits all" so what works for one student does not work for others.

Cross-Case Analysis

Within this section, I examine the five cases as a collective case study (Stake, 1995) to enrich the understanding of espoused beliefs and enacted practices with regards to secondary English Language Arts teachers in writing instruction. The cross-case analysis of the collective case study focuses on each research question. Commonalities in espoused belief are presented first for research question one. Second, three themes

providing the most illustrative examples from research question two spanning all five cases are presented. These three themes are: (1) teacher behavior, (2) instructional scaffolding, and (3) lesson comprehension. Finally, an observation for research question three is discussed. For context, Zelda Fitz and Crystal were in their sixties, both discussed retirement within the next few years. Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley were all within 3 years of one another, in their 30s, with teaching experience of 17, 12, and 12 years respectively at the time of the study.

Research Question One

To identify espoused beliefs, I examined and coded the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), "Kermit and the Keyboard" story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and personal interview using a priori codes. Based on questions asked during the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire and interview, I was able to discern the key tenets that defined each teacher's espoused beliefs. In identifying these central ideas from the data, I compared and analyzed the ideas and their associated codes collectively to identify patterns. The patterns are categorized by belief functions (Fives & Buehl, 2012), belief topics (Fives & Buehl, 2008), and sources of teacher knowledge (Buehl & Fives, 2009).

While all three belief functions (filters for interpretation, frames for defining problems, and guides/standards for actions) were identified during the coding process, participants collectively only utilized the functions of filters for interpretation and guides or standards for actions when discussing their teaching beliefs. While they did use the belief function of creating a frame for defining a problem, it was never utilized in

defining what teaching is, what teaching requires, or where teaching knowledge comes from. Identifying teaching as a filter for interpretation or a guide/standard for action provides an understanding that the participants collectively do not approach teaching with an intent of defining problems. Rather, they focus on positive potential outcomes.

Fives and Buehl (2008) identified seven belief topics: (a) self, (b) context or environment, (c) content or knowledge, (d) specific teaching practices, (e) teaching approach, and (f) students. During at least one point of the data coding process, each belief topic was identified. In examining the key tenets of what teaching is, what teaching requires, and where teaching knowledge comes from, the belief topics centered around teaching approach with additional emphasis on content/knowledge and students. The findings of this collective focus on teaching approach, content/knowledge, and students indicate that these belief topics are more important to teachers and central to their beliefs than other belief topics.

Teachers focusing on students and their content/knowledge is unsurprising. These teachers care about their students and making sure that they have the knowledge they need in order to teach their students. As Zelda Fitz says, “Teaching requires passion.” The passion they have for their students and their job is what keeps them returning each school year. The focus on teaching approach provided insight into what these teachers valued and where they placed importance based on their beliefs. For example, as part of the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), the teachers were asked to rank 13 items in order of what they believe should be emphasized in the classroom. The ranking of these items provided an interesting contrast between the teachers (Table 33).

Table 33

Teaching Rankings Based on Teacher Beliefs

	Rankings				
Category	Annie	Crystal	Jo March	Mary Shelley	Zelda Fitz
Academic excellence	13	9	11	11	10
Content specific knowledge	10	8	10	10	5
Critical thinking in students	2	4	2	3	1
Equality among students	7	3	1	6	8
Generalized skills and abilities	6	10	5	13	2
Instruction based on student interests	8	5	9	5	7
Instruction based on subject matter	11	11	13	12	6
Learning standards	9	12	12	8	9
Life-long learning	1	1	6	4	13
The process of learning	4	2	7	1	4
The products of learning	12	7	8	9	12
Student creativity	3	13	3	2	11
Student independence	5	6	4	7	3

Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley, with 17, 12, and 12 years teaching respectively, all ranked student creativity in the top three during their ranking. In contrast, Crystal and Zelda Fitz, with 36 and 21 years teaching respectively, both ranked student creativity in their bottom three. The two older teachers also ranked content specific knowledge higher than the three younger teachers, though it was not a top priority for any of them. All five teachers indicated a priority for students to have/gain/use critical thinking skills, and all five prioritized the process of learning over the products of learning. The lower ranking of learning products was within two points of academic excellence, also ranked near or at the bottom by participants collectively. The range of results added to the understanding of what each participant focused on and what they

believed was less important, adding to a clearer understanding of English Language Arts teachers' espoused beliefs.

One emergent code, motivation, was added due to the references by participants to motivation that were not specific to self or students, rather, motivation involved both self and students in different parts of]the data. Zelda Fitz, for example, referenced motivation often during her interview and Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008) in discussing why she became a teacher. She used phrasing such as, "because I was good at it" and "I was successful" in describing her journey into teaching. These phrases indicate motivation through the finding of previous success that an individual believes will lead to additional future successes (Bandura, 1997). The idea of motivation, as a personal focus, was seen in her analysis of "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005) as she identified motivation as a tool for why he kept learning and trying new things to improve at playing the keyboard. In her observations, she used public recognition to motivate students through displaying student names next to example sentences during a PowerPoint.

As a second example, Annie identified motivation during her interview when talking about a teacher that praised her perseverance. In her Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), she stated that teachers hold the unique knowledge of understanding and knowing how to motivate her or his students. Analyzing "Kermit and the Keyboard" (Driscoll, 2005), Annie referenced various ideas for Kermit to stay motivated to learn. During observations, Annie and her co-teacher both utilized extrinsic motivation through passing out SOAR cards to encourage on-task behaviors. Elements of

motivation were recorded throughout all five participants and became important enough in cross-case prevalence to merit recognition. Motivation is a key component to learning (Bandura, 1997) and was central to the teacher's espoused beliefs based on the collected data.

In examining the sources of teaching knowledge, three sources were collectively identified as most important by participants. The first knowledge source that teachers focused on was observational learning through the guidance of a mentor teacher. The second source was collaboration with others, as teachers identified strongly with utilizing coworkers as a primary resource. The third and final source emphasized by participants was through enactive experiences. Teachers stated that learning through trial and error in one's own classroom was vastly important in learning how to teach and become an effective teacher. The collective response from teachers regarding knowledge sources focused heavily on learning from mentors, colleagues, and from one's own experiences in the classroom. References to formal education or formalized bodies of knowledge were few, with Zelda Fitz going so far as to say that teacher preparation programs were useless.

Research Question Two

To identify illustrative examples, I compiled data by category from research question two across all case studies for analysis and comparison. Next, I examined the espoused beliefs across all five cases, across each category, to identify patterns. I followed a similar cross-cases analysis to identify common themes within their enacted practices. The cross-case analysis revealed common patterns across the categories across

two or three of the participants.

I selected illustrative examples based upon similarities identified across all five cases. The categories with similarities across all five cases were teacher behavior, instructional scaffolding, and student comprehension. The analyses revealed two categories, instructional scaffolding and student comprehension, wherein similarities across the five participants were found for both espoused beliefs and enacted practices. In what follows, I present the data across the five cases for a specific category followed by a discussion of the cross-case analysis.

Collective espoused beliefs of teacher behavior. The first illustrative example selected indicates the similarities across all five cases with regards to espoused beliefs of teacher behavior. The beliefs and practices of each case are summarized in Table 34. Then, a cross-case analysis of the espoused beliefs of teacher behavior is provided.

The three younger teachers, Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley, share the espoused belief that teacher behavior stems from understanding students. Annie believes that teachers understand how to motivate students in addition to understanding student behavior and trends. Similarly, Jo March believes teachers understand their students, allowing them to develop connections with students. These connections build teacher-student relationships, allowing them to encourage student learning and provide safe classroom environments. Mary Shelley believes that teachers understand the social and emotional factors affecting students, allowing them to more effectively connect with and teach students. Although all three express the idea in a unique way, the belief that teacher

Table 34

Espoused Beliefs Cross-Case

Case study	Espoused beliefs	Enacted practices
Annie	Classroom management is important; teachers know how to motivate kids and understand their behavior and trends	Use of SOAR cards to motivate correct behavior; rate of corrective behavior/extrinsic motivation was double that of uncorrected behavior
Crystal	Unspecified	Corrected/corrective behavior twice as frequent as uncorrected behavior; comments demonstrating rapport as frequent as uncorrected behavior
Jo March	Encourage learning created by developing teacher-student relationships; create safe classroom environments for students to ask questions and explore	Interactions with students kept rapport to a minimum, and corrected/corrective behavior was coded as frequently as uncorrected behavior
Mary Shelley	Teachers understand social and emotional factors affecting their students; should facilitate learning	Maintain classroom instruction while demonstrating rapport and a comfortable classroom
Zelda Fitz	Unspecified	Interactions with students were mostly banter, with few but equal times of corrective or uncorrected behavior

behavior stems from their knowledge of how to reach and engage students remains constant.

Interestingly, both Crystal and Zelda Fitz, the two teachers who are in their sixties, provided no espoused beliefs regarding teacher behavior in their Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), “Kermit and the Keyboard” story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), or personal interview. This phenomenon may be explained through taking on the emic perspective (Creswell, 2013). It is possible that the teaching beliefs on this topic are deeply engrained from decades in the classroom, rendering Crystal and Zelda Fitz unable to specifically identify or verbalize their teacher behavior in order to

express their beliefs on the subject. In other words, their beliefs about teacher behavior may be so intertwined with their individual sense of identity that they are unable to separate teaching behaviors from their personal ways of being. This may be an area for future exploration with veteran teachers who have taught more than 20 years.

Collective espoused beliefs and enacted practices of instructional scaffolding. The second illustrative example examines the cross-case similarities of espoused beliefs and enacted practices of instructional scaffolding. The category of instructional scaffolding is a rich point (Agar, 1994) of data as it was a category that demonstrated within- and cross-case alignment of both espoused beliefs and enacted practices. Categorically, instructional scaffolding provided great insight into the similarities of teacher beliefs as well as alignment cross-case in classroom practice. A summary of the beliefs and practices of each case are provided in Table 35, followed by a discussion the results.

Examining the espoused beliefs and enacted practices of all five participants illustrated a unique alignment. All five case studies shared an espoused belief of planning based upon a goal and working backward based on that goal. Although their wording for describing their espoused belief differed, the focus on having a plan to scaffold instruction toward a learning goal remained consistent across the participants. Additionally, each participant demonstrated an alignment between their espoused belief and their use of instructional scaffolding as an enacted practice. Each of the participants made reference to previous lessons, demonstrating the scaffolding design in their lesson planning. While the appearance of implementation was unique to each classroom, the use

Table 35

Instructional Scaffolding Cross-Case

Case study	Espoused beliefs	Enacted practices
Annie	Built-in scaffolding from lesson planning, goal-based backwards design from core standard.	Apparent within and between observations.
Crystal	Self-prescribed weakness, does teaching then practice without gradual release; believes strongly in scaffolded lessons built based on curriculum maps.	Demonstrated through the reiteration of skills from prior classes.
Jo March	Planning by term; use of homogenous and heterogenous groups to support learning.	Teacher referenced content from prior classes and had students use work previously completed for new activities.
Mary Shelley	Chunking content through steps to build up into a larger project or skill.	Apparent through the references and comprehension checks based on previous lessons teacher utilized project steps to help students chunk the project into manageable steps.
Zelda Fitz	Starts with a graphic organizer or PowerPoint with examples, build from there based on the goal.	Seen through repeated practice of various paragraph elements and feedback on the elements during class.

of instructional scaffolding as both an espoused belief and enacted practice remained constant across the five cases collectively.

Collective espoused beliefs and enacted practices of lesson comprehension. The final illustrative example provides another rich point (Agar, 1994) of data as the second category demonstrating within- and cross-case alignment of espoused beliefs and enacted practices. The summary of espoused beliefs and enacted practices of each case is provided in Table 36. Then, a discussion of the cross-case analysis of lesson comprehension beliefs and practices is provided.

Table 36

Lesson Comprehension Cross-Case

Case study	Espoused beliefs	Enacted practices
Annie	Evaluated based on work; subsequent lessons to accommodate	Questions asked directly to teacher were just as common as class-wide comprehension checks by the teacher
Crystal	Starts with expressing a goal so they know what the target is; can tell by a graphic organizer who needs help	Questions directly to the teacher were recorded half as frequently as the teacher's use of comprehension checks to the class during instruction
Jo March	Homogenous and heterogenous groupings to support and reteach as needed	Individuals asking questions was recorded with the same frequency as the teacher conducting comprehension checks
Mary Shelley	Corrects errors/issues one at a time instead of trying to overhaul entire writing pieces at once, knowing those small pieces build up	Clarification questions from individuals were infrequent, and comprehension checks by the teacher were three times as frequent, though students demonstrated ease in approaching the teacher
Zelda Fitz	Uses daily goal to assess and then adjusts the lessons as needed for classes	Individual questions occurred with half the frequency of class-wide comprehension checks; referenced prior assignment and conducted re-teach

The espoused beliefs of lesson comprehension provided a telling example of alignment. The collective belief, based upon data, indicates that these teachers hold a belief in approaching student comprehension through checks, by questioning as well as based on formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Sadler, 1998). Then, these checks appear to be used to adjust future lessons as needed, according to interview and observation data. The cross-case analysis showed that each participant commonly relies on teacher-generated questions and on student-generated questions to check for student understanding and comprehension. This collective enacted practice of teacher- and student-generated questions as an assessment tool is common among most classroom

teachers (Heritage & Heritage, 2013). Although enacted practices differed in frequency from case study to case study, the belief that student comprehension drives lessons, scaffolding, and pacing was universal, as was the overarching idea of checking for comprehension during class time.

Research Question Three

While teacher strengths and challenges tended to be specific to each teacher, a common thread was identified within "Challenges" was in managing their workload. For example, Annie stated a challenge in providing timely, quality writing feedback to 210 students. Mary Shelley stated her challenge was in providing lessons while ensuring understanding, with large class sizes. Zelda Fitz stated her challenge broadly in being able to get everything done and always having more to do.

A second trend was identified from the examination of self-efficacy in relation to beliefs: the challenges that teachers identified in writing instruction were not pushed aside or skimmed over, but intentionally addressed in order to improve. For example, Jo March found that her challenge lie in getting students to develop meaningful commentary within a non-five paragraph essay structure. During observations, she specifically designed the scaffolding of the writing to build into a larger essay, She also designed activities to help build student thought and critical thinking, such as annotating primary texts and reformatting annotated content around central themes. Rather than resign herself to students who struggled despite her lessons, she designed her lessons to attack the writing elements she found most challenging to try and improve. The trend of addressing teaching challenges during observed classes was opposite of what was

expected based upon the current literature. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) state that a teacher's efficacy beliefs affect their classroom behavior. The intentional addressing of the challenge could be the result of high self-efficacy in their overall teaching abilities that provide the confidence (Bandura, 1997) to push forward and take on the challenge, believing they will find success.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In conducting my research at a school site that I am a part of, and teachers with whom I am familiar, I found that these teachers felt comfortable speaking to me of their emic perspective (Creswell, 2013) allowing me to gather rich points (Agar, 1994) of data. Teachers were not the only ones who demonstrated ease at my presence. Each observed class contained at least one student who was familiar with me for one reason or another, which worked to my benefit. For example, when a ninth grader started disrupting class to ask questions about me and why I was there, another student interjected before the teacher even spoke, saying "It's okay, that's just the debate teacher. She's cool." The students accepted the response and refocused on their teacher's instruction, ignoring me completely for the rest of the period and subsequent observations. I was practically invisible in each of the classes observed, giving me the experience of being the proverbial fly on the wall as I gathered data.

The ability to investigate the beliefs and practices of colleagues held great significance for me. As a teacher, I became so focused on what my class was doing and what came next, and how my students were performing that I was never able to see how other teachers taught and why they taught that way. So often as a teacher I heard edicts from districts or administration that teachers collectively would rail against, feeling misunderstood. "Implement these procedures, you'll be assessed on their use," or "You need to teach the same thing at the same time so you can give common assessments."

Teachers often say that “Teaching is an art, not just a science.” When examining how differently the same beliefs can manifest in a classroom, that sentence holds more meaning. The teaching of content knowledge becomes artful in how teachers craft content to convey information to students in a way they can connect to, understand, retain.

Chapter V begins by summarizing the findings for my collective case study. The summary is organized by research question. Then, pertinent implications based on findings will be discussed. Finally, the chapter concludes with a description of limitations of the study as well as future research area suggestions.

The research questions for this study were as follows.

1. What espoused beliefs do high school English Language Arts teachers hold toward teaching?
2. How do the espoused beliefs align with enacted writing instruction practice?
3. How does teacher self-efficacy toward writing instruction associate with espoused beliefs and enacted writing instruction practices?

Research Question One

In examining the espoused beliefs of high school English Language Arts teachers with regards to teaching, all five participants shared their ideas readily. Participants provided their espoused beliefs through the completion of the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire (Fives & Buehl, 2008), “Kermit and the Keyboard” story analysis (Driscoll, 2005), and personal interview (Appendix C). From these instruments, an understanding was gathered for each case study regarding teaching beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2008), sources of teaching knowledge (Buehl & Fives, 2009) and belief functions

(Fives & Buehl, 2012).

The a priori codes indicated that each participant's data was assigned each code with varying degrees of frequency, providing a spectrum of teacher espoused beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2012). This array of teaching beliefs affirms the categories identified by Fives and Buehl regarding teacher beliefs (2008), teaching knowledge sources (2009), and belief functions (2012).

Belief topics (Fives & Buehl, 2008) contained seven categories used as a priori codes: (a) self, (b) context or environment, (c) content or knowledge, (d) specific teaching practices, (e) teaching approach, and (f) students. Each belief topic was identified during coding, but certain belief topics were more prevalent, especially in examining the questions focusing on asking teachers what they believed teaching is, what teaching requires, and where teaching knowledge comes from. In this focused content area, teacher beliefs focused on the topics of content/knowledge, students, and teaching approach. Their expressions of teaching approach provided insight that allowed for a better understanding of their perspectives and the beliefs they hold and provided interesting takeaways. For example, student creativity was ranked as a high priority by Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley, whereas it was ranked in the bottom three for both Crystal and Zelda Fitz. Content/knowledge and students were expected foci in belief categories, reaffirming the beliefs these teachers hold in why they teach and what they teach.

One emergent code, motivation, was identified as a belief topic, adding to the understanding of teacher espoused beliefs, and was indicated as a factor in each case

study. Motivation was referenced by these teachers as a personal factor as well as a tool or area of knowledge used in the classroom to help students. Motivation, an essential learning component (Bandura, 1997), spanned across each case study, rendering the emergent code as an important pattern to note.

Motivation was identified in various ways across case studies, providing common ways in which motivation was recorded for multiple participants. For example, motivation from seeing success as a student was recorded as a factor in becoming a teacher for Annie, Mary Shelley, and Zelda Fitz. Motivation was identified as an element in Kermit's success (or lack thereof) in the story analysis "Kermit and the Keyboard by all participants, indicating a recognition by teachers of motivation's role in learning. Another example was the use of extrinsic motivation for students in the classroom by each participant during an observation. Motivation provided a common thread of belief throughout and across the case studies.

Belief functions (Fives & Buehl, 2012) had three categories: (a) filters for interpretation, (b) frames for defining problems, and (c) guides or standards for action. Throughout the data interpretation, although all three functions were identified, teachers focused on using their belief as a filter for interpretation or a guide/standard for action. Expressing beliefs using a frame for defining a problem, was used infrequently. The implication of this finding suggests that teachers often focus their beliefs on expressing a positive aspect of how or why they do something.

The third category of a priori codes identified the seven sources of teaching knowledge (Buehl & Fives, 2009): (a) formal education, (b) formalized bodies of

knowledge, (c) observational learning, (d) collaboration with others, (e) enactive experiences, and (f) self-reflection. Findings from the data collection and analysis indicate that a prevalent belief among teachers is that the source of teaching knowledge is derived primarily from observational learning through mentor teachers, collaboration with colleagues, and the enactive experiences teachers gain from teaching in their own classrooms. Mary Shelley elaborated on the value of enactive experiences, stating, "It also comes from a fair amount of trial and error within a classroom where a person gets to constantly reflect and refine for themselves what is working and what does not." This finding aligns with Buehl and Fives (2009) who found that informal sources of knowledge were more frequently recognized than other sources.

Participants in the current study found that other sources of teaching knowledge were less valuable. Formalized bodies of knowledge, like professional development opportunities, were not seen as a great source of knowledge. Teachers are not necessarily applying what they learned during progessional development, which aligns with current research (Longhurst, Jones, & Campbell, 2017). Annie, for example, stated, "I'm not sure that I learned a ton." Teacher preparation programs were also not recognized as a valuable source, with Zelda Fitz referring to them as worthless. Although each participant expressed the knowledge sources they valued in a unique way, collectively, mentors, colleagues, and their own classrooms were the most frequently identified sources of teaching knowledge. This finding indicates that the preferred source of knowledge comes from outside teacher preparation programs and is important to note for researchers and teacher preparation program faculty. Future research could explore further into why

teachers prefer these sources over others.

Research Question Two

To examine the espoused beliefs of teachers in comparison to their enacted beliefs, I coded classroom observations with emergent coding. These emergent codes were compared with a priori code content (from the Teacher Beliefs Questionnaire, story analysis, and interview) to identify common themes. Seven themes emerged in comparing espoused beliefs with enacted practices: writing, teacher behavior, technology use, class time use, instructional scaffolding, learning activities, and student comprehension. Collectively, these terms symbolize the categories of instructional beliefs that secondary English Language Arts teachers in writing instruction hold that connect the espoused beliefs they have with the enacted practices they utilize in the classroom.

The identification of these categories can be informative to teacher preparation programs as well as researchers, creating pathways with which to better understand the beliefs and how these beliefs influence classroom practice. These seven themes encompass more than writing instruction or any other single element, demonstrating how connected teacher beliefs are with one another and, further, how they must be examined collectively, rather than with narrow focus, due to their connectedness.

The complexity of teacher beliefs (Davis & Sumara, 2006; McQuitty, 2012) are further indicated through the lack of data the career teachers, Crystal and Zelda Fitz, provided for their espoused beliefs regarding teacher beliefs. Examining the lack of data from an emic perspective (Creswell, 2013), Crystal and Zelda Fitz's beliefs regarding

their behaviors in the classroom are potentially so tightly-woven, so nested within their other belief systems (Davis & Sumara, 2006), that they cannot express the idea as separate from their personal behavior beliefs. Contextually, if the questions had been geared more toward their teacher behavior, it is possible that greater specificity in beliefs would have been espoused (Alexander & Dochy, 2005).

Analyzing each case study, the espoused beliefs in each category typically aligned with the enacted beliefs. On occasion, the data exhibited too little information in order to determine alignment. For example, Jo March and Zelda Fitz's espoused beliefs regarding technology use were too sparse to identify direct alignment with their enacted practices. While direct alignment was not determined, based upon information provided, technology could be considered a tool and utilized as part of the "variety" they both aimed to include in their classes. Jo March had a similar issue with regards to instructional scaffolding using group feedback. While espoused, the observations occurred during earlier stages of writing and were therefore unobserved. These examples indicate that although alignment cannot be determined, nor can it simply be identified as unaligned, because the data available does not provide contradictions.

Examining teacher beliefs in this way is important. Identifying beliefs that could provide alignment, not simply as aligned or unaligned, allows for the complexity of beliefs to be better understood. When examined as a black-or-white issue that either demonstrates alignment or unalignment, the dualistic nature of teacher beliefs can indicate discrepancies (Bereczki & Kárpáti, 2018; Charalambous et al., 2002) rather than recognize potential alignment through further investigation.

The nestedness and complexity of teacher beliefs (Bryan, 2003) also indicate that certain beliefs are expressed with greater levels of specificity based upon context (Alexander & Dochy, 1995) and that if the context was adjusted, alignment might be identifiable. It is possible that, because I did not specifically ask about the use of technology in the classroom, it simply was referenced with less specificity as a "modality" or "variety," seen as a tool by these teachers with which to achieve their daily goals in the classroom rather than as a belief.

Using the content analysis for all five cases, I conducted a cross-case analysis that identified patterns. Often, these patterns spanned two or three teachers. For example, although Annie, Crystal, and Jo March believed that teaching was the sharing of information, Mary Shelley and Zelda Fitz believed teaching was to empower and prepare students for their futures. Another example was seen in comparing class time use. While Annie and Mary Shelley focused most on creating lessons as part of a goal-based larger picture, Jo March and Zelda Fitz both focused on creating variety and multiple components in each lesson to engage learners. Crystal focused on her "show-go" method where she showed students how to do a skill and then had them practice that skill. While interesting, no clear pattern emerged as to who aligned with whom due to variation by category. An emergent code, motivation, was identified across all cases. Motivation (Bandura, 1997), while a common code, was not identified as a predominant belief. The identification of the code as a common belief is important to note, as it appeared across cases and in nearly all data sources. Three themes, however, demonstrated alignment and provided notable insight across cases.

Three themes, acting as rich points (Agar, 1994) of data, provided consistent findings of overarching ideas in the categories of espoused beliefs of teacher behavior, espoused beliefs and enacted practices of instructional scaffolding, and espoused beliefs and enacted practices of student comprehension. Identifying similarities in enacted practices does not imply that the theme looks the same throughout each case, merely that it is observed in some form.

As each teacher's manifestation of instructional approach (Miller, 2011) is different than their coworkers, their "own personal style" (Jasparro & Billups, 2012) of teaching can be seen in the way they create and present content to their classes. Unique presentations of content do not change the core of what is taught. Rather, the presentation alters format to cater to the teacher's efficacy beliefs, enabling higher levels of confidence in their classroom behavior (Bandura, 1997; Curtis, 2017). Also, teaching with one's own personal style (Jasparro & Billups, 2012) better allows alignment with one's espoused beliefs (Fives & Buehl, 2008). Therefore, unique teaching styles ought not to be discouraged. Teachers with higher self-efficacy beliefs "create mastery experiences for their students" whereas teachers with lower self-efficacy beliefs "construct classroom environments that are likely to undermine students' judgements of their abilities and their cognitive development" (Bandura, 1997, p. 241). When teachers teach in a way they feel confident about, they are able to provide better learning experiences for their students. Participants appeared calm and confident during observations, engaging students and teaching their own way, even when teaching similar lessons, as Annie and Mary Shelley did.

At its core, each participant's personal style of teaching combined four theoretical approaches (behaviorism, cognitivism, social cognitivism, and socio-culturalism) in varying amounts, aligning with previous research indicating blends of theories are more common in teacher beliefs than a single theory (Allen & Hunsaker, 2016; Fives & Buehl, 2012). An interesting finding regarding theoretical approaches was identified. All five participants utilized elements of behaviorism frequently in their classroom management. For example, using positive and negative reinforcement (Skinner, 1948) to achieve a desired behavior, such as Jo March getting students to walk to and from the library without talking in order to earn a movie with the consequence of no movie for any one student talking.

The use of cognitivist elements was near or above behaviorism as a frequently utilized approach. Teachers used strategies such as advanced organizers, comprehension checks, scaffolding, and questioning to ensure that the information they were teaching was being retained (Driscoll, 2005; Ormrod, 2018). For example, all participants utilized an advanced organizer (Bruning et al., 2011; Driscoll, 2005) during observed classes as they chunked information into manageable lessons over the course of many days, using recall to activate student schema (Anderson, 1978).

Social cognitivism was utilized by all five participants, but coded at a rate of half or less than previously discussed approaches. Teachers worked to incorporate elements of social cognitivism, such as modeling and social learning, but were fewer and farther between, even when used on a daily basis, as Annie and Mary Shelley did. Crystal, Jo March, and Zelda Fitz only had social cognitive elements in two of their three observed

classes.

Finally, three of the five participants used elements of socio-culturalism during their observed classes. Crystal and Zelda Fitz, the career teachers, did not use elements of socio-culturalism in their classes whereas Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley, the mid-career teachers, each utilized sociocultural elements in their teaching approach. Although lesson scaffolding was identified for class time use, Crystal and Zelda Fitz's scaffolding was in lesson planning to chunk content for units, not instructional content during class in conjunction with students' Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978), contrasting with Annie, Jo March, and Mary Shelley. Scaffolding by Crystal and Zelda Fitz was utilized in a social cognitive manner rather than socio-cultural. This contrast implies that teaching approach may differ based upon the generation of the teacher and when they began in their career, though future research would be needed to determine the validity of this assertion.

Research Question Three

The examination of teacher self-efficacy and how it associated with espoused beliefs and enacted practices in writing instruction provided insights about teachers' perceived strengths and challenges. Recall that the terms 'high self-efficacy' and 'low self-efficacy' (Bandura, 1997) were replaced with the terms 'strengths' and 'weaknesses' respectively. The findings suggested that although the strengths and weaknesses identified by teachers were specific to them, the self-identified strengths were observed and tended to focus on how they approach teaching. For example, Annie enjoyed

teaching a variety of writing styles, Jo March believed that her style of creating multiple activities each day engaged learners, and Zelda Fitz found her strength was in trying different activities for individual and small group work. Crystal and Mary Shelley's strengths focused on lesson planning. Crystal believed that her strength lay in creating the time students need to write a draft and receive feedback, and Mary Shelley believed that her strength was in the creation and scaffolding of projects into steps. This finding indicated that teachers bring their strengths into their teaching, feeling confident in their skills through use of their chosen approach, and aligns with current research (Bandura, 2018).

A surprise in the data was the finding regarding self-identified challenges. The findings suggest that teachers, rather than avoid or skim over teaching components they find challenging, intentionally address their challenges in effort to improve them. For example, Zelda Fitz stated that her challenge was in getting everything done and creating sophistication in student writers. She explained how she worked through this challenge by dividing her grading into piles of 10 student essays each, and that by so doing, it was much easier to grade without being overwhelmed when addressed in smaller chunks. During observation one, she discussed with her students how to improve their writing to increase sophistication, having them practice on individual whiteboards.

Mary Shelley identified the challenge in ensuring that students in large classes all demonstrate comprehension. During observation two she had each student participate in a class activity by sharing an answer. She had each student share twice to ensure understanding before she moved on. Jo March, as a final example, identified her

challenge as getting students to demonstrate meaningful, original thought in their writing and to break students of the habit of writing a five-paragraph essay. During observation one she approached student critical thinking through two activities, a group poster activity and a graphic organizer, that would scaffold their ideas into an analytical essay spanning more than five paragraphs. The implications from this finding are important for teachers, teacher preparation program staff, and school administrations. Recognizing where personal challenges lie can be a great tool for teacher self-reflection and the improving of personal classroom practices, if encouraged to take on their challenges.

Instructional Implications

The findings of my study have instructional implications relevant to school systems, teacher preparation programs, and educational researchers. The results indicate that teacher beliefs have a direct impact on classroom practices, and that these sources of teaching knowledge come from enactive experiences (Goddard, Goddard, Kim & Miller, 2015) and mentor teachers (Buehl & Fives, 2009). Teachers may lack access to new research (Nadelson & Jones, 2016; Nadelson et al., 2016). Zelda Fitz affirmed as much during her interview, saying, “No, I wouldn’t even know where to look.” All participants identified their departmental coworkers as their first resource. With this in mind, measures should be taken toward making research that could impact teacher beliefs, and therefore classroom practices, more accessible to K-12 teachers.

Further, administrators and district personnel may want to re-examine their approach to professional development. Personalized professional development can be

more impactful than generalized professional development trainings and provide increased espoused teacher efficacy (Clark, Schoepf, & Hatch, 2018). While each participant had varying personal preferences and opinions regarding professional development, they all espoused a belief that their learning source was in large part from their colleagues and mentors based upon what teachers perceive as working in the classroom.

Re-examination of professional development could yield a magnitude of results based on the needs of teachers, students, administration, and district stakeholders. In examining how to better serve the educational stakeholders of any given school, I recommend the following ideas based on my findings: (a) reevaluate what professional development opportunities are provided, implemented, and how it can be shared impactfully, (b) consider the shifting of funds into a mentoring program, and (c) provide increased access and exposure to research databases with an increased agency to allow teachers the freedom to try new methods, techniques, strategies in their classroom.

A second important implication from this study is that although teachers may create content that looks different from their colleagues, there is relative consistency and focus, especially with regards to instructional scaffolding and student comprehension. This emphasizes the view that teachers should be afforded opportunities to develop instruction based on students' needs as well as his or her individual teacher expertise (Longhurst et al., 2017). Results indicate that teachers focus heavily on the needs of their students, prioritizing student learning and thinking over course content or products of learning. School and district administrators, in identifying the similarities of teacher

goals, could provide allowance for greater teacher agency. While teachers may approach standards in the way that plays to their personal strengths, teachers are ultimately working toward the same goals.

A final implication from this study is the recognition that English Language Arts teachers across the examined department were overwhelmed with the workload in teaching large numbers of students at a time and the assessing of student learning that increases with every student in the class. Zelda Fitz stated that she broke her essay grading down to piles of ten to do a "little each night" so that she could get through them without being overwhelmed. Administrators could examine what solutions are feasible for their school or district. Examples of solutions could be to: (a) limit the class sizes to smaller numbers, (b) budget for resources to aid teachers with grading, or (c) hire support staff trained to grade based on teacher-provided rubrics.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of this study is that the participants were English Language Arts teachers from one department at one high school. The insights provided by this small group of teachers are useful for making visible the collective beliefs found within a group that teaches students of similar demographic and socioeconomic status. However, because the collective case study design was conducted within one high school, it does not provide sufficient data to be transferrable to English Language Arts teachers in general. Future studies could involve English Language Arts teachers from a variety of high schools with the aim of providing a more complete picture of the alignment (or

contradictions) of espoused beliefs and enacted practices of these teachers.

A second limitation of the current study is that the study did not specifically focus on the possible nuanced differences between veteran and mid-career teacher's espoused and enacted beliefs. The limited sample size due to the nature of the study design limited the number of teachers invited to participate. Further, the small number of participants limited the ability to collect a large data set that would provide opportunities for finer-grained analyses of veteran and novice teachers differences on espoused and enacted practices. Future research could be designed to compare the beliefs and practices of more experienced teachers with that of new teachers to better understand teacher beliefs and if/how they change after years in a classroom.

A third limitation to this study is that the self-efficacy survey was revised so that it focused on self-identified strengths and challenges of these teachers. Future research could focus specifically on Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy scale and Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). These two scales would provide an avenue to examine more deeply the components of writing instruction English Language Arts teachers identify as areas of low self-efficacy. That information could provide insights towards content areas English Language Arts teachers may skim over or avoid teaching because of low efficacy levels. Teacher preparation programs could then develop curriculum focused on those areas to help future English Language Arts teachers feel more confident with their knowledge and skills.

A final limitation to this study is that the finding of motivation, while evident across case studies, was identified but not examined further. Future research could

elaborate on this finding through a focus on intrinsic and extrinsic beliefs as well as student motivation versus teacher motivation and how these motivations interact with espoused and enacted teacher beliefs.

Conclusions

In sum, the findings of the present study support the idea that teacher beliefs play a key role in classroom practice. In examining teacher beliefs as complex and interconnected with multiple beliefs (Davis & Sumara, 2006), the findings of this study indicate that espoused beliefs typically align with enacted practices. The approach of this study provides greater explanatory value than one of narrower focus due to the recognition and identification of interconnectedness and complexity within and between teacher beliefs. Narrow focuses can lead to identifying inconsistencies between espoused belief and enacted practice (Fives & Buehl, 2012) which may be inaccurate. My research findings indicate that when examined with a lens that acknowledges complexity and nestedness (Davis & Sumara, 2006), inconsistencies between belief and practice are not found. Finally, it is of interest to note that although English Language Arts teachers play to their teaching strengths, they do not always avoid what they find challenging. Indeed, these English Language Arts teachers focus on the needs of their students, centering their teaching around the students' learning process and thinking skills.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Participant Invitation

Dear Teacher:

We are interested in conducting a study examining teacher beliefs in the secondary ELA classroom, with focus on writing instruction and its associated self-efficacy. We are interested in seeing how teachers reflect on their personal teaching beliefs, how confident they feel in different aspects of writing instruction, and how they teach writing in the classroom.

We are inviting you to participate because of your teaching position and experiences. Participation includes completing an online teacher beliefs questionnaire with some additional survey questions, a personal interview related to your beliefs and experiences that will take approximately 60 minutes, and three classroom observations each lasting one full class period. By participating, you are helping add to the field of educational research in better understanding how teacher beliefs can impact classroom writing instruction.

Prior to being sent the online questionnaire and survey questions, you will be asked to sign a Participant Informed Consent form. The Participant Informed Consent form will provide you with additional details regarding your participation in the current study.

We are hopeful that you will join with other experienced English Language Arts teachers to examine your teaching beliefs and practices with a focus on writing instruction. Your experience and beliefs matter and can provide information in the field of education. If you have any questions about the current research study, please contact Sydnie Schoepf or Dr. Suzanne Jones using the information listed below.

Respectfully,

Suzanne H. Jones, Ph.D.
(801) 520-9240
suzanne.jones@usu.edu

Sydnie Schoepf, M.Ed.
(801) 879-2992
sydnie.schoepf@aggiemail.usu.edu

Appendix B

Informed Consent

OFFICE of RESEARCH and GRADUATE STUDIES
UtahStateUniversity
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Page 1 of 2
Protocol # 10044
IRB Approval Date: 10/2/2017
Consent Document Expires: 10/2/2022

v.9

Informed Consent

"Do what I say, not what I do?" Espoused and enacted beliefs with associated teacher efficacies in writing instruction.

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Sydnie Schoepf, a doctoral candidate in the school of Teacher Education and Leadership at Utah State University. The purpose of this research is to explore and better understand the relationship between what teachers believe, how they teach writing instruction, and how confident they feel about specific aspects of writing instruction. Your participation is entirely voluntary.

This form includes detailed information on the research to help you decide whether to participate. Please read it carefully and ask any questions you have before you agree to participate.

Procedures

Your participation will involve a one-on-one interview with the researcher, a questionnaire with free-response questions, and three classroom observations of a full class period. Your total participation in this project is expected to not exceed 5 hours. If you agree to participate, the researcher will also collect basic teaching-related demographic data for comparison purposes. I anticipate that 5 people will participate in this research.

Risks

This is a minimal risk research study. That means that the risks of participating are no more likely or serious than those you encounter in everyday activities. The foreseeable risks or discomforts include longer than expected length of interview, visitor-related off-task student behaviors and loss of data confidentiality. In order to minimize those risks and discomforts, the researcher will remain as unobtrusive as possible during interviews, allow for participants to schedule all interviews and classroom observations, and utilize pseudonyms for all participants to maintain privacy.

Benefits

Although you will not directly benefit from this study, it has been designed to learn more about teacher beliefs and associated practices in the field of secondary writing instruction. Agreeing to participate in this study will allow you access to the research findings, which you may find useful in your instruction.

Confidentiality

The researchers will make every effort to ensure that the information you provide as part of this study remains confidential. Your identity will not be revealed in any publications, presentations, or reports resulting from this research study. However, it may be possible for someone to recognize your particular story/situation/response. While I will ask all participants keep their information confidential, I cannot guarantee that everyone will do so.

I will collect your information through an online questionnaire, an audio-recorded personal interview, and notes taken during classroom observations. All information will be collected using a pseudonym and your name will not appear in any data collection at any time. This data will be stored in a restricted-access cloud-based storage system. Online activities always carry a risk of a data breach, but I will use systems and processes that minimize breach opportunities. This form will be kept for three years after the study is complete, and then it will be destroyed.

It is unlikely, but possible, that others (Utah State University or Canyons District) may require me to share the information you give me from the study to ensure that the research was conducted safely and appropriately. I will only share your information if law or policy requires me to do so.

Protocol # 10644
IRB Approval Date: 10/2/2019
Consent Document Expires: 10/2/2022

v.9

Voluntary Participation & Withdrawal
Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. If you agree to participate now and change your mind later, you may withdraw at any time by giving me a written note of withdrawal. If you choose to withdraw after we have already collected information about you, data already collected will be deleted.

Findings
Once the research study is complete, the researchers will email you with the findings of the study, including personal results relating to your participation.

IRB Review
The Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the protection of human research participants at Utah State University has reviewed and approved this study. If you have questions about the research study itself, please contact Suzanne Jones, Ph.D. at suzanne.jones@usu.edu. If you have questions about your rights or would simply like to speak with someone *other* than the research team about questions or concerns, please contact the IRB Director at (435) 797-0567 or irb@usu.edu.

Suzanne H. Jones, Ph.D.
Principal Investigator
suzanne.jones@usu.edu

Sydnie Schoepf
Student Investigator
sydnie.schoepf@aggiemail.usu.edu

Informed Consent
By signing below, you agree to participate in this study. You indicate that you understand the risks and benefits of participation, and that you know what you will be asked to do. You also agree that you have asked any questions you might have and are clear on how to stop your participation in the study if you choose to do so. Please be sure to retain a copy of this form for your records.

Participant's Signature | Participant's Name, Printed | Date

Appendix C

Semistructured Individual Interview

Semistructured Individual Interview

1. What is the pseudonym you gave for yourself when you completed the questionnaire?

2. What have been some influences to your career?
    a. People
    b. Books/classes/experiences
    c. Other

3. How do you teach writing?
    a. Why do you use that approach?
    b. What approaches do you intentionally not use and why?

4. How do you identify student writing needs?

5. How do you break down a writing task or project?

6. What parts of teaching writing do you feel are challenging? Enjoyable?

7. How do you approach lesson planning for writing instruction?
    a. Why do you use that specific approach?

8. What writing opportunities do you provide for your students?
    a. How do you decide on the writing opportunities you select?
    b. How often do you provide writing opportunities?

9. How do you keep current in your knowledge of writing instruction?
    a. Do you read teacher journals? If so, which ones and why?
    b. Do you read or follow any teacher blogs? If so, which ones and why?
    c. Do you attend professional development opportunities? If so, which ones and why?
    d. Have you ever intentionally sought out studies regarding a strategy/technique to see if it was effective? Why/why not?

10. What is something you wished people knew about how you teach/approach writing?

Appendix D

Principal Letter of Support

[redacted]

August 28th, 2019

To Whom It May Concern:

I am writing this letter on behalf of one of my faculty members, Sydnie Schoepf, who is a current ELA Teacher and Debate Head Coach at [redacted] High School. Sydnie is in the midst of working on her doctoral studies and I'm providing this letter of support for the research she is preparing to embark upon in the next coming months. I give her my full support in this project.

Sydnie's focus for her study is looking at ELA Teachers and with regards to espoused and enacted beliefs and their associated self-efficacies within writing instruction. We both feel this research will further benefit the ELA department at [redacted] High School, our students, and the larger [redacted] school community.

Feel free to contact Sydnie ([redacted]) with any questions or inquiries you may have about her research, or me directly at [redacted]

Sincerely,

[redacted]

CURRICULUM VITAE

SYDNIE SCHOEPF

sydnie.schoepf@gmail.com
3980 Decathlon St – Salt Lake City, Utah 84124
801-879-2992

EDUCATION

Present – **UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY**, Logan, Utah
PH.D. Curriculum & Instruction, Literacy emphasis – ABD

2015 -- **STATE OF UTAH CERTIFIED TEACHER – LEVEL 2**
English Language Arts, Grades 6-12

2012 – **UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY**, Logan, Utah
M.ED. Secondary Education

2011 – **STATE OF UTAH CERTIFIED TEACHER – LEVEL 1**
English Language Arts, Grades 6-12
USOE ARL program – Utah State University

2008 – **UNIVERSITY OF UTAH**, Salt Lake City, Utah
B.A. English, Minors: History & Anthropology

LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

2015 – 2016
Department Head – English
American Leadership Academy, Spanish Fork, Utah

2012-2014
Gifted & Talented Summer Program Director – Grades 5-7
American Leadership Academy, Spanish Fork, Utah

SECONDARY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

2018 – Present
English Teacher & Debate Coach – Grades 9-12
Alta High School
Sandy, Utah

2016 – 2018
English Teacher – Grades 7-9

Entheos Academy
Kearns, Utah

2010 – 2016
English Teacher – Grades 7-8
American Leadership Academy
Spanish Fork, Utah

2009 – 2010
English Teacher – Grades 8-9
Vernal Jr. High School
Vernal, Utah

2008-2009
Substitute Teacher – Grades K-12
Granite District
Salt Lake City, Utah

COLLEGIATE TEACHING EXPERIENCE

TEACHING SECONDARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS – 3 credit relicensure course
Fall 2016 to present – Utah State Board of Education – Online Education

TEAL 3660: Educational Psychology – 3 credit undergraduate course
Spring 2017 – Utah State University – Online Education

TEAL 6100: Motivation & Classroom Management – 3 credit graduate course
Summer 2016 – Utah State University – Online Education

TEAL 6980: Independent Study – 1 credit graduate course
Spring 2016 – Utah State University – Online Education

SCED 3100: Motivation & Classroom Management – 3 credit undergraduate course
Fall 2015 – Utah State University – Distance Education
Mixed Course: alternating Broadcast and Online each week to four sites

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

AUG 2015 – JAN 2016
Co-Investigator – Dr. Louis Nadelson – Utah State University
Survey creation & data collection for research examining the use of assessment data by teachers with regards to professional development and classroom use.

AUG – DEC 2014
Research Assistant – Dr. Sarah Clark
Data coding for research examining current professional development needs for elementary teachers to teach young children to read.

RESEARCH

Nadelson, L. S., Throndsen, J., Campbell, J. E., Arp, M., Durfee, M., Dupree, K., ... **Schoepf, S.** (2016). Are they using the data? Teacher perceptions of, practices with, and preparation to use assessment data. *International Journal of Education, 8*(3), 50-71. doi:doi:10.5296/ije.v8i3.9567

Clark, S.K., **Schoepf, S.**, & Hatch, L. (under review). Exploring the use of personalized professional development to enhance upper elementary reading comprehension instruction.

TEACHING AND RESEARCH PRESENTATIONS

NATIONAL PRESENTATIONS (PEER REVIEWED)

Schoepf, S. (2016, July 29) Unboring your assessments. Presented at the annual MasteryCon in Park City, UT.

REGIONAL PRESENTATIONS (PEER REVIEWED)

Schoepf, S. (2016, March 31) Engaging learners with real world applications in the classroom for grades 6-12. Presented at the Scholarship of Teaching and Engagement Annual Conference at Utah Valley University, UT.

STATE PRESENTATIONS (PEER REVIEWED)

Schoepf, S. (2017, March 29) Shift your paradigm! Small group instruction. Presented at the American College Test State Organization Annual Conference at Salt Lake Community College, UT.

Schoepf, S. (2016, March 17) Real world connections that engage for grades 6-12. Presentation presented at the American College Test State Organization Annual Conference at Utah Valley University, UT.

INVITED PRESENTATIONS

Schoepf, S. (2015, December). RTI literacy techniques to reach all tiers in your subject. Presentation presented at the American Leadership Academy, Spanish Fork, UT.

SERVICE

DECEMBER 2015

RTI Literacy Techniques for All Subjects. Professional Development Training provided to secondary teachers at the American Leadership Academy.

2014-PRESENT

School Spelling Bee Pronouncer – American Leadership Academy

2013-PRESENT

ALA Mode Literacy Anthology Editor-in-Chief – American Leadership Academy

2010-2014

School Spelling Bee Coordinator – American Leadership Academy

2012-2014
Gifted & Talented Summer Program Director – Grades 5-7
American Leadership Academy

2012-2013
ALA Mode Literacy Anthology Content Judge – American Leadership Academy

2012-2014
National Honor Society Adviser – American Leadership Academy

2010-2012
National Junior Honor Society – American Leadership Academy

2009-2010
National Junior Honor Society Adviser – Vernal Junior High School