

PRESERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS'
WRITING INSTRUCTION

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates the preparation of preservice teachers (PSTs) for writing instruction, focusing on writing instruction of English language learners (ELLs). It is comprised of three research studies: one systematic review and two empirical studies. The introduction to this dissertation provides an overview of the three studies.

The introduction is followed by the first study which examines previous research on PST preparation and efficacy development for writing and ELL instruction. The review identifies several barriers to the development of teaching efficacy for writing and ELL instruction: prior experiences with writing, lack of content knowledge, and insufficient methods coursework for writing/ELL instruction. Within these studies, several suggestions are made to increase PST preparation: field experiences teaching writing to ELL, writing and second language acquisition content instruction, language shock experiences, and self-reflection and opportunities to write.

The second study investigates the development of teaching efficacy of six PSTs who participated in an extracurricular enrichment program, *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW). Qualitative data were collected from the participants over the course of two semesters, including survey data, interviews, journals, reflection forms, and video observations. Results show that participants perceived that their content and pedagogical efficacy increased for ELL writing instruction, which was reflected in the higher quality of their pedagogical moves later in the intervention.

The final study follows four of the participants of BTEW into their clinical and beginning teaching experiences, to investigate how they positioned writing and ELL writing in their classrooms, and the tensions they experience when attempting to enact

writing instruction. Using journal and interview data gathered over the course of one semester, results show that all but one participant worked in schools where little priority is given to writing or ELL modifications. They struggled to enact instruction on the writing process, and disagreed with their mentor teachers and administration over writing pedagogy. Additional research is needed to better understand how ELL writing instruction is positioned in schools, particularly schools of varying income levels, and the long-term influence of teacher preparation programs.

The dissertation concludes with recommendations for future writing researchers and teacher educators. Specifically, it encourages the concentrated integration of ELL writing methods courses into teacher education programs, coupled with more purposeful and rigorous clinical teaching placements.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This dissertation tackles an issue that has heretofore been largely ignored in the research: preservice teacher preparation for ELL writing. Writing is a critical skill, and the ability to write well has been identified as a major factor in future college success and job acquisition (e.g., Holland, 2013). Unfortunately, students in the United States (U.S.) consistently underperform in writing on both fourth and eighth grade assessments (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2012). This is particularly true for ELLs, most whom score “below level” or “far below level” on measures of writing (NCES, 2012). These statistics have led stakeholders to ask questions about how student writing can be improved, which researchers have tried to address through proposing various pedagogical techniques for writing instruction (e.g., Ciampa, 2016). However, none of these recommendations address the underlying problem of *why* teachers are not teaching writing. Some researchers have postulated that the primary reason for student underperformance in writing is that teachers lack efficacy for writing instruction- a result of inadequate attention given to writing methods in teacher education programs (e.g., Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). This dissertation seeks to examine the topic of preservice teacher (PST) preparation through a review of the current literature and two in-depth case studies.

This introductory section presents an overview of the research questions answered by the three studies, and provides a brief look at the methodology of each.

1.1. Overview of Studies

1.1.1. Study One

The first study is a review of the literature on preservice teacher preparation and efficacy development for ELL writing instruction. Following systematic review procedures

by Risko et al. (2008), a total of 35 articles were identified to answer the following questions: 1) What literature exists on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction?; 2) What barriers exist for PSTs in the development of positive self-efficacy for writing and ELL instruction?; and 3) What are the recommendations for building PSTs self-efficacy for writing and ELL instruction? To answer these questions, each study was coded for the following information: a) study type (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, conceptual/theoretical); b) research questions; c) theoretical framework; d) participant information, including teacher classification and grouping characteristics; e) grade level of certification or study focus; f) location; g) study characteristics, such as sampling procedures and duration of study; h) data collected; i) study procedures; j) results; and k) limitations. The results of this review provide implications for how best to prepare PSTs for ELL writing instruction, and had a direct impact on the development of the teacher preparation program presented in study two.

1.1.2. Study Two

The second study in this dissertation involves an in-depth look at the efficacy development of six PSTs who participated in a teacher preparation program entitled Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW), which was designed based on findings from the literature review. In BTEW, PSTs participated in a continuous and recursive preparation program, while at the same time engaging in bi-weekly field experiences teaching ELL writing. Journal, interview, reflection form, survey, and observational data were all gathered to understand how efficacy for ELL writing manifested over the course of two semesters in the program, Fall 2018 and Spring 2019. Using First and Second Cycle coding methods laid out by Saldaña (2015), the following questions were answered: 1)

Before participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing, and what do they attribute this to?; 2) After participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing?; 3) What aspects of the BTEW framework do PSTs attribute to the development of teaching efficacy, if any?; and 4) How is the PSTs stated pedagogical efficacy reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves? Findings have important implications for teacher educators and provide the foundation for future research.

1.1.3. Study Three

Little is known about the influence of teacher preparation programs on the actual classroom practices of teachers upon graduation (e.g., Goldhaber, 2019). In an effort to contribute to this gap in the literature, the third study in this dissertation follows four of the BTEW participants as they transitioned into either clinical teaching or their first year of full-time teaching to understand how their experiences with BTEW influenced their classroom practices. Similar to study two, qualitative coding procedures by Saldaña (2015) were followed to answer three questions: 1) How is writing and ELL writing positioned in the classrooms of PST and BT participants?; 2) How did BTEW influence the classroom teaching practices of PST and BT participants?; and 3) What tensions and/or unexpected challenges are PST and BT participants experiencing between how writing instruction was enacted and positioned in BTEW, and what is expected in schools? Findings have implications for the selection of mentor teachers, clinical teaching placements, and present many questions for future research.

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2. PRESERVICE TEACHER PREPARATION FOR ELL WRITING INSTRUCTION: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Educators and policy-makers have long recognized that the number of English language learners (ELLs) in classrooms across the United States (US) is on the rise (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). In the year 2015, there were 4.8 million ELLs enrolled in public schools, comprising 9.5% of the total public school population (NCES, 2015). These figures are even greater in certain states; for example, ELLs make up 21% of California public school students, and 16.8% of students in Texas public schools (NCES, 2015). In order to meet the needs of these ELLs, state laws have increasingly required English as a Second Language (ESL) methods courses to be included within teacher education programs. While these methods courses are a step in the right direction, rarely do they include an explicit focus on how to teach writing to ELLs (Batchelor, Morgan, Kidder-Brown, & Zimmerman, 2014). By the same token, the nation-wide push for standardized assessments in reading and math has led many teachers cast aside writing instruction, meaning that preservice teachers (PSTs) are also not exposed to ELL writing instruction in their field experiences (Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011).

It is no surprise that PSTs often graduate university with little knowledge about ELL writing, and an overall low efficacy for writing instruction (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). In a recent analysis of 42 elementary education preparation programs across the US, only five of the 155 reported literacy courses were found to include “writing” in the title, and only two focused primarily on writing (Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). There was no mention of a focus on ELL writing instruction in any of the programs, so it can be assumed that the deficit of preparation for general writing instruction is reflective of the preparation for ELL

writing instruction. This is problematic because if PSTs are to keep up with the demands of state standards, such as Common Core, they must enter the profession with a strong basis of knowledge for ELL writing instruction, and high instructional efficacy (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Efficacy, or the conviction that a behavior can be successfully executed (Bandura, 1977), is a particularly salient topic, as it has been found to be strongly correlated with student success, and ELL writing in particular (e.g., Batchelor et al., 2014; Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, Driscoll, 2005).

Research has consistently reported that PSTs must participate in both carefully constructed teacher education programs and field experiences to build efficacy for instruction and working with diverse learners (e.g., Ladson-Billings, 1994). What is not yet clear from the literature are the areas of writing and ELL instruction that PSTs find the most challenging, and how teacher education programs can target those challenges to increase teaching efficacy. This gap in knowledge is primarily the result of both the paucity of research on PST preparation for general (e.g., Cutler & Graham, 2008; Morgan & Pytash, 2014) and ELL writing instruction (Bomer, Land, Rubin, & Van Dike, 2019; Kang & Veitch, 2017).

Two previous literature reviews have been conducted on PST preparation for writing instruction. Morgan and Pytash (2014) examined studies conducted between 1990-2010, and found that: a) PSTs enter teacher education programs with negative preconceptions about themselves as writers that are difficult to overcome, and b) these negative attitudes could be altered through extensive hands-on instruction and practice, however such opportunities are scarce within field placements. The authors provide recommendations for how to prepare PSTs to become successful teachers of writing after

graduation, and warn that writing cannot continue to be neglected in favor of reading. Bomer et al. (2019) also conducted a literature review to understand how course content and activities in preservice teacher preparation programs can change negative attitudes resulting from prior writing experiences. To do so, they examined studies on preservice teacher preparation for writing conducted between 2000 and 2018. Their findings support those of Morgan and Pytash (2014), however they contend that there is no single teacher education activity that is more important than others. Instead, they purport that reflecting on prior experiences may be critical for PSTs to understand the social nature of writing (Bomer et al., 2019). This understanding may be particularly critical for teachers of ELL students, however very few studies have examined how to prepare PSTs for enacting writing instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse students (Bomer et al., 2019).

In the present literature review, current research on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction will be examined through the lens of self-efficacy theories (e.g., Bandura, 1997) to determine what barriers exist in the development of teaching efficacy, and how these can be overcome in teacher education programs. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What literature exists on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction?
2. What barriers exist for PSTs in the development of a positive self-efficacy for writing and ELL instruction?
3. What are the recommendations for building PSTs self-efficacy for writing and ELL instruction?

2.1. Theoretical Framework

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as “the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes,” (p. 193). Stated differently, self-efficacy is an individual's perception of their ability to execute a task well, or “what you believe you can do with what you have under a variety of circumstances,” (Bandura, 1986, p. 37). Self-efficacy is future-oriented, because it reflects the conviction that a person has about their ability to skillfully perform in a situation that has yet to occur (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Self-efficacy is also a context-specific judgment of capabilities, so it varies across situations (Pajares, 1997). For example, a person can have high self-efficacy for driving a car, but low self-efficacy for steering a boat.

Beliefs about self-efficacy exert tremendous influence over the behaviors and actions of individuals (Bandura & Wessels, 1997). A person’s self-efficacy determines the sort of activities, including choice of profession, they will engage in, the amount of effort they will expend on a task or activity, and how long they will persist in the face of stressors or difficulties (Bandura, 1977). Individuals with high self-efficacy view tasks that are difficult as challenges to conquer, attribute failure to insufficient effort or a lack of knowledge about a particular task, and believe that they have control over situations (Bandura & Wessels, 1997). Self-efficacious individuals become deeply engrossed in challenging activities and remain committed even when faced with failure (Bandura & Wessels, 1997). On the other hand, low self-efficacy causes people to avoid tasks that they believe are threatening, attribute failures to personal deficiencies, focus on negative outcomes, and measure success in terms of triumph over others (Bandura & Wessels, 1997).

The development of self-efficacy is attributed to four main sources: a) mastery experiences, b) vicarious experiences, c) verbal persuasion, and d) physiological arousal (Bandura, 1997). Mastery experiences are those in which an individual achieves success at a task or activity, and are largely considered to be the most powerful source for changing beliefs (e.g., Bandura & Wessels, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Vicarious experiences are when the activity or task is modeled by someone else (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). In this case, the greater the perceived similarity between the individual and the model, the more likely that self-efficacy will be influenced by the models' successes and failures (Bandura, 1997). Verbal persuasion involves the interactions between individuals and others about their performance on a particular task or activity. Bandura and Wessels (1997) suggest that verbal persuasion is more likely to undermine self-efficacy than enhance it. Finally, physiological arousal "adds to a feeling of capability or incompetence, depending upon whether it is experienced as a sense of anxiety or of excitement about a performance," (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011, p. 751).

2.1.1. Teachers and Self-Efficacy

Teacher beliefs and self-efficacy in their teaching ability have been found to be among the most consistent and reliable predictors of student success (e.g., Pajares, 1997). High self-efficacy has been linked to student outcomes such as motivation, academic achievement, and positive classroom behavior (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). By the same token, teachers with high self-efficacy tend to be better organized, more willing to try new things, less critical, and persistent when working with struggling students (Graham, Harris, Fink, & MacArthur, 2001). Self-efficacy also influences what subjects

teachers are willing to teach, as they tend to avoid content for which they have low self-efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005).

Researchers have suggested that self-efficacy for teaching can be broken into two constructs: *personal teaching efficacy (PTE)* and *general teaching efficacy (GTE)*. PTE is defined as a teachers' belief about their teaching competence (Graham et al., 2001), or their belief that they possess the skills and abilities to successfully instruct students and manage behavior (Putnam, 2012). On the other hand, the definition of GTE has been less well-defined; some refer to it as outcome expectations (Graham et al., 2001), whereas others define it as how the contextual environment influences teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness (Putnam, 2012). Tschannen-Moran and Johnson (2011) differentiate the two this way,

...teachers make two interrelated judgements: an assessment of their personal teaching competence in light of the assumed requirements of an anticipated teaching task. Judgments of personal competence are those a teacher makes about his or her capabilities based on an assessment of internal strengths and deficits. The assessment of the teaching task may include the instructional resources available as well as the quality of the curriculum; student factors such as their perceived ability, motivation, and socioeconomic status; and contextual factors such as school climate, collegial support, and leadership, (p. 752).

Thus, teaching efficacy is highly influenced by assessments of personal capability, perceptions of school resources, and student factors. Most researchers agree that factors associated with PTE play a bigger role in teaching outcomes and the enactment of teaching than do those correlated with GTE.

Efficacy for teaching develops from the same four sources as self-efficacy. The successful execution of a lesson is considered to be a mastery experience, which are widely acknowledged to be the most powerful influencers of teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007) because they provide authentic evidence that the teacher is capable of succeeding in their career (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Teacher efficacy can also develop through verbal persuasion, which usually takes the form of feedback from either an administrator or colleague, or through professional development workshops (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Vicarious experiences, or observations of well implemented lessons or teaching strategies, leads teachers to assess their own capabilities for the task (Bandura, 1997), and can act as a signal that they too can execute that lesson (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Finally, teaching efficacy is influenced by the feelings that a teacher gets when completing a lesson, which is called physiological arousal; a teacher who experiences pleasure upon completing a lesson may gain a spike in teaching efficacy, whereas one who fears losing control may continuously feel stressed or anxious, thus decreasing their teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009).

Teaching efficacy is context and subject-specific, therefore it may be higher in one area than another. Teaching efficacy is usually divided into: a) efficacy for instructional strategies, or confidence in the ability to successfully execute classroom activities and assessments, b) efficacy for classroom management, or belief in the ability to maintain a well ordered and organized classroom, and c) efficacy for student engagement, or confidence in the capacity to maintain students' interest and minimize disruptions (Brown, Lee, & Collins, 2005). The development of teaching efficacy is not linear, so efficacy for

these may not develop at the same time or the same rate (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011).

2.1.2. Self-Efficacy Development in Preservice Teachers

Arguably more important than examining the efficacy of in-service teachers is examining it in PSTs. The ever-increasing pressure to have students meet greater levels of achievement coupled with the knowledge that high self-efficacy leads to persistence in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 1977) means that the development and maintenance of PST teaching efficacy is crucial (Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011). If teacher educators can prepare PSTs in such a way that they enter the profession with high teaching efficacy, and maintain this through the well documented first year slump (e.g., Brown et al., 2015; Pendergast et al., 2011; Putnam, 2012), positive student outcomes are more likely.

Field experiences are considered mastery experiences, and are thus the most significant contributor to the development of teaching efficacy (e.g., Brown et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2012; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). They are the only time that PSTs are faced with real-life teacher challenges, while having these challenges scaffolded by mentor teachers and teacher educators (Putnam, 2012). When PSTs get the chance to face adversity and come through unscathed, their teaching efficacy increases. Field experiences also provide verbal persuasion from mentor teachers and teacher educators in the form of guidance and praise, and vicarious experiences through witnessing a veteran teacher (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008).

Several studies have expanded on the benefits of field experiences for the development of teaching efficacy (Brown et al., 2015; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Lee et al., 2012). In these studies, the opportunity to plan and deliver lessons increased

PSTs' teaching efficacy for pedagogical content knowledge, classroom management, student engagement, planning and preparing for instruction, and instructional strategies. The only area that showed no increase in efficacy was family involvement, likely due to limited exposure to parents during the school day. Also noted as a significant contributor was the mentor teacher; the opportunity to form a relationship (Brown et al., 2015) with a mentor, and PSTs' perceptions of their mentor teachers as highly self-efficacious (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008) also increased teaching efficacy. Thus, the development of teaching efficacy occurred through a combination of mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, and vicarious experiences. We can postulate that physiological arousal from skillfully delivering a lesson or witnessing student success may have also contributed, however this source was not directly investigated.

On the other hand, some research suggests that PSTs lose teaching efficacy during their student teaching and first year of teaching (e.g., Putnam, 2012). This was confirmed by Pendergast et al. (2011), who found that PSTs finished student teaching with lower efficacy than when they had begun. Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) determined that student teaching increased efficacy, only to have it drop during the first year of teaching. The authors attributed this to the removal of support; once all the classroom responsibilities were realized, without assistance, the participants' perceptions of their capabilities were lower. Putnam (2012) determined that the teaching efficacy of PSTs and first year teachers were similarly low, but began to rise around the third year of teaching. Such findings suggest that the more mastery experiences PSTs' can engage in, the better. However, mastery experiences are not enough if they are not carefully scaffolded through vicarious experiences and verbal persuasion by mentor teachers and teacher educators.

PSTs cannot simply be thrown into a field experience classroom and expected to learn, but instead need purposeful, systematic guidance.

It is important to note that in multiple studies traditional field experiences did not increase PSTs efficacy for family involvement (e.g., Brown et al., 2015), supporting the contention that efficacy is context-related and not linear in its development (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Teaching efficacy will fail to develop in areas to which PSTs' have not been exposed, underscoring the importance of an experiential variety, exposure to students from a multitude of backgrounds, and instruction on pedagogy for all subject areas.

2.2. Methods

The procedures for this review were guided by those of a systematic review (e.g., Risko et al., 2008), to the extent that was possible. A systematic review includes four steps: a) a general search for relevant studies, b) a review of titles and abstracts to determine if the studies meet inclusion criteria, c) a quality analysis of identified articles, and d) a quantitative and qualitative synthesis of all studies included. Because the majority of studies involved mainly qualitative data, descriptive statistics were not included.

2.2.1. Literature Search

A search of studies published between 2008 and 2019 was conducted using the ERIC (ProQuest), JSTOR, and TAMU databases. Search terms included, in various combinations, *preservice teachers*, *teacher candidates*, *teaching*, *writing*, *instruction*, *ELLs*, *English language learners*, *ESL*, *English as a second language*, *self-efficacy*, *preparation*. Once relevant articles were identified, the author engaged in footnote chasing,

where studies that met the inclusion criteria but were not previously identified by the search were located and included, if relevant.

2.2.2. Selection and Coding Criteria

The following inclusion criteria were used to identify articles: a) published in a peer-reviewed journal between 2008-2019, b) written or available in English, c) primarily focused on preservice teachers, d) at least 50% of the article focused on PST preparation for writing and/or ELL instruction and/or the development of PST self-efficacy, and e) focused on preparing PSTs for K-12 instruction. Because this review specifically sought to understand how to best increase PST self-efficacy for ELL writing instruction, studies that focused on in-service teachers, those that asked PSTs to write but did not provide pedagogical implications, studies that focused exclusively on content-area writing, and those examining non-native English speaking PSTs' writing errors were not included. Other studies that were not included were those focused on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction, as challenges and strategies for this are often substantially different from general ELL instruction.

The initial search yielded a total of 361 articles to be screened, of which 84 were fully reviewed. Final acceptance included a total of 50 articles, which were then coded for the following information: a) study type (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, conceptual/theoretical); b) research questions; c) theoretical framework; d) participant information, including teacher classification and grouping characteristics; e) grade level of certification or study focus; f) location; g) study characteristics, such as sampling procedures and duration of study; h) data collected; i) study procedures; j) results; and k) limitations.

Grade level or certification or study focus was broken into several categories. *Early childhood* referred to preparation for working with students who have not yet begun formal schooling, meaning Pre-K or lower. Elementary was split into *primary* (K-2) and *upper* (3-5). *Middle school* denotes grades six through eight, and *high school* refers to grades nine through 12.

2.2.3. Quality Analysis

The quality of the included studies was determined using a criteria chart developed Risko et al. (2008), which presents three overarching standards and seven criteria to review the reporting of prior literature, connections between topic and theory, methodological procedures, and the presentation and validity of the findings. Studies were rated as 3 if they met all criteria, as 2 if they met between two to six criteria, or as 1 if they met one or zero criteria. Only 12% of studies (N = 6) met all criteria and received a score of 3. The remaining 88% (N = 44) received a score of 2. The total scores for each criteria can be seen in Figure 2.1 below.

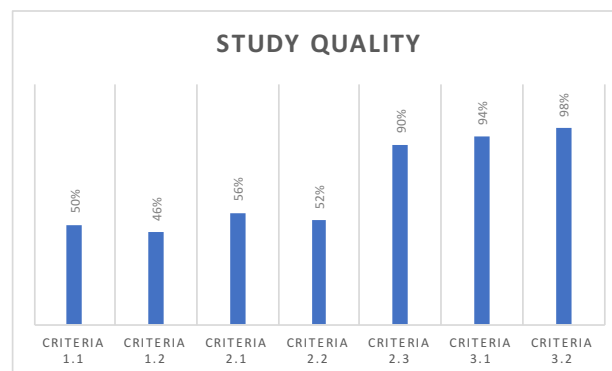


Figure 2.1 Quality Scores for the Included Studies

The lack of theoretical framework was a noted problem across many of the reviewed studies (40%, N = 20). A large number of studies also did not link the findings to either prior literature or the theoretical framework (40%, N = 20) within their discussion. In terms of the methodology, two issues presented themselves: a) failure to disclose the level of researcher participation (20%, N = 10), and b) no discussion on the number of data sources collected or the transcription/recording procedures (30%, N = 15). For the most part, participants were well described, as were data collection procedures. The strength of the reviewed studies fell in standard three, as the majority had findings that were consistent with the research questions and legitimate for the data that was collected. The biggest issue in the presentation of findings was failure to connect it to theory, however this was not surprising considering that 40% of the studies were not built upon a theoretical foundation.

While not part of the criteria set by Risko et al. (2008), the availability of the data collection materials for each study were also reviewed. A search of the appendices and methodology sections was conducted to ascertain if the authors provided the observation protocols, interview questions, journal prompts, surveys or questionnaires, or any other materials used in the study. It was found that only 38% of the articles (N = 19) provided these documents. While this is somewhat alarming, it should be cautioned that the nature of qualitative data does not always lend itself to exact reporting, as many interview questions are open-ended and data sources may involve unstructured observations or unfettered journal entries. The second area of examination sought to determine if the data collection materials used within each study were research based. The methodology section

of each article was searched to determine if protocols were guided by past research, and if surveys had been validated. It was found that 42% (N = 21) were based on, or borrowed from, previous research. This is unsurprising considering the paucity of studies on PST preparation for ELL writing instruction; we can surmise that many of the authors were unable to locate materials or protocols to match their research purpose.

2.2.4. Terminology

Preservice teachers. It was decided to use the term *preservice teachers (PSTs)* to refer to any undergraduate or masters-level student who was enrolled in a university-level teacher education program and had not yet held a full-time teaching position. While the terms *student teacher* and *teacher candidate* are used by some researchers, *PST* is the most pervasive across the literature.

Teacher education programs. In this study, university programs designed to prepare PSTs for teacher certification are referred to as *teacher education programs*.

Field experiences. University-sponsored opportunities to engage in hands-on teaching or observations in K-12 schools will be called *field experiences*.

Teacher educator. The term *teacher educator* will be used to denote any university-level professional who is an instructor or supervisor of PSTs.

Mentor teacher. *Mentor teacher* will refer to in-service classroom teachers with which PSTs are placed during field experience.

In-service teacher. To indicate a teacher who is already practicing, but is not specifically discussed in the role of a mentor, the term *in-service teacher* will be applied.

English language learner (ELL). The term *English language learner (ELL)* will be used for students whose first language is not English, and are in the process of learning English.

ELL instruction. *ELL instruction* will refer to the teaching of students whose first language is not English.

ESL instruction. The term *ESL instruction* will also be used to refer to the educational context of American schools, in which students are learning English in a country in which it is the dominant language.

2.3. Findings: Research Question One

The first research question asked, *what literature exists on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction?* The search process revealed that the majority of articles were either geared towards PST preparation for writing instruction or PST preparation for working with ELLs. Only a small handful of articles addressed the concept of writing in a second language, and not necessarily in a way that correlated to how to best prepare PSTs to teach writing to ELLs. Thus, information below is organized into “preparation for writing instruction” and “preparation for ELL instruction”.

2.3.1. Preservice Teacher Preparation for Writing Instruction

A total of 35 articles were identified that either provided information about how teacher education programs were preparing PSTs for teaching writing, or that investigated the teaching efficacy of PSTs for writing instruction. All included articles provided recommendations about best practices for preparing PSTs to be self-efficacious teachers of writing.

2.3.1.1. Research Design.

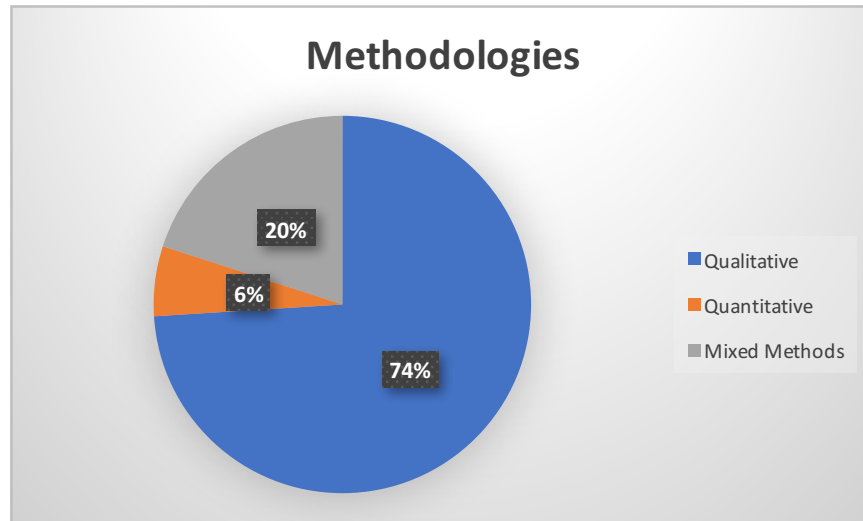


Figure 2.2 Methodologies Used in Research on PST Preparation for Writing Instruction

Little variance was found in the methodologies of the identified studies. As can be seen in Figure 2.2, studies that used qualitative methodologies were the most prevalent. Sixty-three percent (N = 21) of the articles were centered around some form of intervention, whereas 31% (N = 11) were based solely on data collected during or after participation in ‘business-as-usual’ methods courses. The majority of studies took place over the course of one semester (60%, N = 21), which is unsurprising when considering that whole course sections of PSTs were recruited for participation in many of the studies. Figure 2.3 provides more information about the duration of the studies. It is important to note that none of the research extended into the participants’ first year of teaching, although one study did follow a PST into her clinical teaching experience (Jensen, 2019).

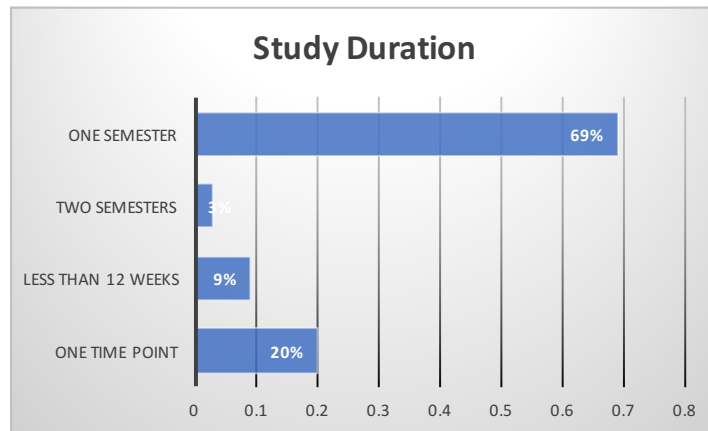


Figure 2.3 Duration of Studies on PST Preparation for Writing Instruction

2.3.1.2. Data Sources.

Many of the studies used surveys, most of which included open-ended questions (34%, N = 12). PST reflections about their own writing or writing instruction (43%, N = 15) were also common. Prevalent across studies were individual interviews and focus groups (34%, N = 12), and researcher observations (29%, N = 10), either of PSTs' personal writing or classroom instruction. A large number of studies also incorporated one of the following: journals, blogs, photos and/or drawings, PST writing samples, pen pal correspondence, writing-based lesson plans, and rubrics. In most studies (80%, N = 28) multiple sources of data were collected for triangulation purposes. Despite this, only 26% (N = 9) used pre/post measures.

2.3.1.3. Participants

Given the prevalence of qualitative data across studies, it was somewhat surprising to find that many of the identified articles involved 30 or more participants (49%, N = 17).

Upon further examination, it was evident that this was because data were gathered from one or more intact sections of language arts methods courses, or the equivalent at each university. Almost all the reviewed articles involved PSTs seeking certification across a range of grade levels, so coding was not mutually exclusive. Results are shown in Figure 2.4.

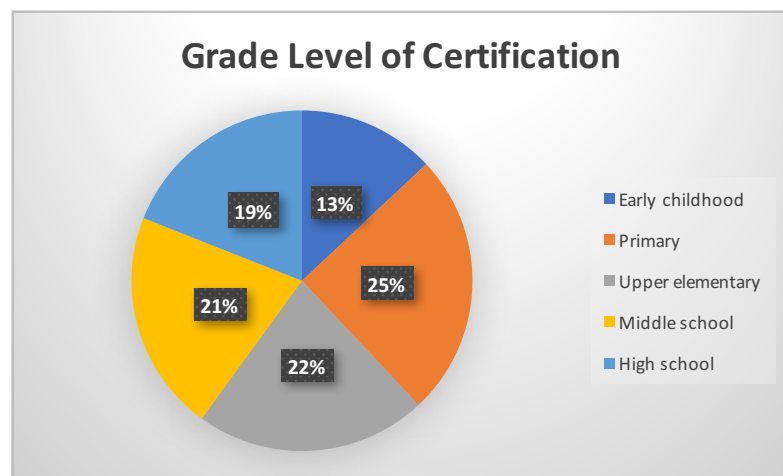


Figure 2.4 Grade Level of Certification for PST Participants

2.3.1.4. Writing Strategies

Researchers subscribed to a variety of writing pedagogies, which were used both to prepare PSTs for their own future teaching and to strengthen their personal writing skills. The unit of study approach to writing, in which PSTs are taught to ‘read like writers’ through careful consideration of the authors’ craft (Zimmerman et al., 2014) was used in 9% (N= 3) of the studies. Genre units that teach PSTs specific strategies for writing and evaluating different types of writing was used in 14% (N = 5) of the studies. The process

approach to writing instruction, or the basic steps to producing a written piece (planning, drafting, revising, editing), guided 11% (N= 4) of the studies. Similarly, the 6-Traits Writing Model (Spandel, 2005), which directs writers through pre-writing, drafting, sharing, revising, editing, and publishing stages, was used in 6% (N = 2) of the studies. The writing workshop model, through which PSTs are taught to give students choice in writing topics, extensive time to produce large-scale projects, and teacher modeling of techniques (Calkins, 1994; 2005) influenced the pedagogical approach of 9% (N = 3) of the studies. Only 3% (N = 1) asked PSTs to engage in the Language Experience Approach, also called ‘shared writing’, where young students dictate a story and the teacher writes what they say. Alternately, 6% (N = 2) focused on providing feedback employed the 6 + 1 Traits Model of Writing Assessment (Spandel, 2005) to evaluate student writing samples for idea development, organization, word choice, sentence fluency, and conventions. Thirty-seven percent (N = 13) did not identify a particular pedagogical approach, typically because the focus of the research was on PST perceptions of teaching writing.

2.3.1.5. Writing Genres

Across studies, PSTs were engaged in writing, teaching, and/or evaluating a variety of genres, however the exact genre was specified in only 40% (N = 14) of the articles. Genres included narrative (9%, N = 3), multimodal writing (6%, N = 2), poetry (6%, N = 2), how-to/procedural (3%, N = 1), letter writing (3%, N = 1), graphic novels (3%, N = 1), and expository (3%, N = 1). The remaining studies either did not provide any mention of genres, or exposed PSTs to a wide range of genres throughout the course of the research.

2.3.1.6. Intervention Activities.

Activities and interventions included were: genre units of study (26%, N = 9), field experiences with required teaching of small-group or whole-class writing lessons (17%, N = 6), pen pal exchanges between PSTs and school-aged children using either traditional or multimodal mediums (9%, N = 3), and practice providing feedback on authentic student writing samples (20%, N = 7).

2.3.2. Preservice Teacher Preparation for ELLs

2.3.2.1. Research Design

Articles focused on preparing PSTs for ELL instruction were not quite as plentiful (N = 15) as those focused on writing, and were more likely to use mixed methods (47%, N = 7) than qualitative (33%, N = 5) or quantitative (20%, N = 3) methodologies. Forty percent (N = 6) of the reviewed articles implemented some form of an intervention, whereas the remaining 60% (N = 9) involved assessments of PST perceptions or evaluations of performance on a one-time task. Similar to the articles on writing instruction, the majority took place over the course of one semester (60%, N = 9). Information about the duration of the studies can be found in Figure 2.5. Echoing the literature on writing instruction is the fact that none of the studies provided data on perceptions or teaching preparation of the participants after they had begun their first year of classroom teaching.

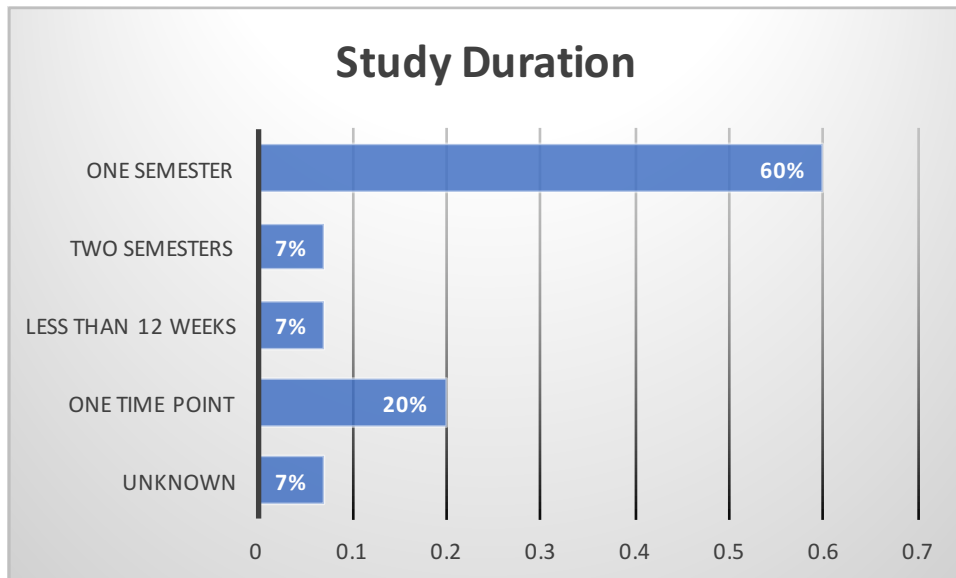


Figure 2.5 Duration of Studies on PST Preparation for ELL Instruction

2.3.2.2. Data Sources

Data largely revolved around pre/post surveys or questionnaires (40%, N = 6) about PSTs perceptions of, or attitudes towards, second language learning. One-shot surveys or questionnaires were also common across studies (33% N = 5) as were participant reflections (27%, N = 4). Other sources of data included interviews, feedback on ELLs’ writing, and lesson plans for ELL instruction. Sixty percent of studies (N = 9) relied on only one source of data.

2.3.2.3. Participants

Aside from two exceptions, most identified studies involved 21 or more participants (87%, N = 13), which was expected considering the prevalence of survey data. Like the research on preparation for writing instruction, participants in each study were interested in a variety of certification levels, with primary (67%, N = 10) and upper

elementary grades (67%, N = 10) prevailing. Exact data about grade levels of certification can be found in Figure 2.6 below.

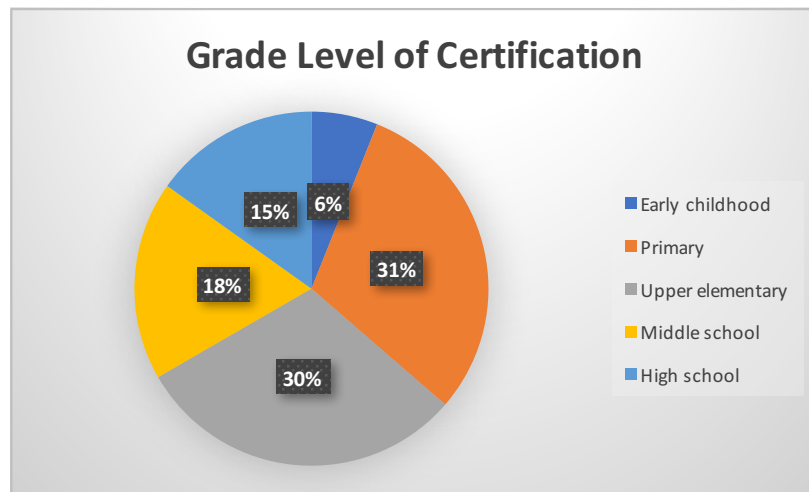


Figure 2.6 Grade Level of Certification for PST Participants

2.3.2.4. Instruction Type

There was a general lack of consensus among the reviewed studies about how to refer to second language pedagogy. Thirty-three percent (N = 5) used the term ‘English as a Second Language’ (ESL) instruction, whereas 13% (N = 2) referred to it as ‘English to Speakers of Other Languages’ (ESOL). The majority (53%, N = 8) simply subscribed to the more general ‘ELL instruction’. The difference between the terms is subtle but important; ESL is a very specific term referring to students learning in a context where the dominant language is English. On the other hand, ESOL and ELL instruction can refer to any situation in which a student who does not speak English as a native language is receiving instruction in English.

2.3.2.5. Pedagogical Approaches

Much like the literature on writing, most of the studies on ELL instruction were embedded within ESL coursework or were focused on determining how PSTs perceived ELLs as learners in their future classrooms. Interestingly, only 20% (N = 3) taught a specific language learning pedagogy; González (2016) prepared PSTs to use sheltered instruction, whereas Olson and Jimenez-Silva (2008) and Kelly (2018) taught Structured English Immersion. The rest of the studies either focused solely on perceptions or taught the underlying principles of ELL instruction, language learning strategies, and policy information.

2.3.2.6. Intervention Activities

Interventions included general instruction on pedagogical approaches to ELL instruction (13%, N = 2), language shock experiences (13%, N = 2), pen pal exchanges (7%, N = 1), and a study abroad experience (7%, N = 1). Studies that did not involve an intervention either evaluated perceptions before and after participation in ESL methods coursework (33%, N = 5) or through a one-time survey (7%, N = 1), asked PSTs to write reflections about ELL instruction (13%, N = 2), or required an evaluation of ELL writing (7%, N = 1).

2.4. Discussion: Research Question One

Perhaps the most salient finding from this section is that no studies explicitly focused on PST preparation for ELL writing instruction. In Kang and Veitch (2017), participants were exposed to ELL writing samples, however they were not provided with any guidance for how to provide feedback, or what aspects of writing to focus on. A few of the reviewed studies stressed the importance of including opportunities for writing in ESL

lesson plans (Collier et al., 2013; González, 2016; Kelly, 2018), but only in very general terms without specific pedagogical techniques, or information about how ELL writing develops.

The lack of studies on this topic illustrates a significant gap in the literature that has yet to be adequately addressed. This is concerning because the ability to write well impacts both high school graduation and future employment opportunities for all students, and ELLs in particular (Kibler, Heny, & Andrei, 2016). ELLs are expected to enter universities with the ability to write proficiently in English (Kibler et al., 2016), a skill which may never be developed if teachers are unprepared for second language writing instruction. Larsen (2013) argues that as a whole, American teachers are unprepared to teach ELL writing, a contention that is supported by this review. There is an urgent need for more research on this topic, both to emphasize its importance to teacher educators, and to ensure that ELLs across the country are being taught by highly qualified educators.

On another note, very few studies allowed PSTs to demonstrate their newly acquired pedagogical knowledge in an authentic setting. Considering the fact that mastery experiences are the number one contributor to teaching efficacy (e.g., Bandura, 1997), and that high teaching efficacy positively impacts teacher effectiveness and retention (e.g., Pajares, 1997), it would behoove all researchers and teacher educators to encourage active application of techniques as much as possible. Similarly, it is difficult to tell if the reported high teaching efficacy actually impacted PSTs' classroom practices, since a) very little observational data was collected, and b) none of the studies followed PSTs into their first year of teaching or beyond. This is consistent with Henson's (2002) contention that the lack of experimental and long-term studies has prevented research on the development of

teacher efficacy from moving forward. Such data could be critical to the design of teacher education programs, as research has consistently indicated that efficacy drops during the first year of teaching when the reality of classroom life is realized (e.g., Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Without data demonstrating how teacher education programs impact PSTs moving forward, we cannot profess to proclaim that any strategies are ‘best’.

2.5. Findings: Research Question Two

The second research question asked, *what barriers exist for PSTs in the development of a positive teaching efficacy for writing and ELL instruction?* Like above, the findings will be broken apart into writing instruction and ELL instruction.

2.5.1. Barriers to Teaching Efficacy for Writing Instruction

Across studies, a number of things were found to be barriers to the development of teaching efficacy for writing instruction. These include prior writing experiences (Daisey, 2009; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Jensen, 2019; Kaufman, 2009; Kohnen, Caprino, Crane, & Townsend, 2019; Morgan, 2010; Myers et al., 2016), lack of opportunities to witness ‘real’ writing instruction (Ballock et al., 2018; Branscombe & Schneider, 2008; Collier et al., 2013; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Hall, 2016), and a pervasive doubt in personal writing ability (Ballock et al., 2018; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Helfrich & Clark, 2016; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Morgan, 2010; Wake & Modla, 2010). Each of these will be discussed in detail below.

2.5.1.1. Prior Writing Experiences

Numerous studies touted prior experiences with writing as a major barrier to the development of teaching efficacy for writing instruction, with the contention being that PSTs develop negative attitudes towards writing based on their own schooling. One of the

biggest influences on prior experiences was found to be teachers; PSTs who perceived their former teachers as enthusiastic and encouraging of their writing were more likely to have high efficacy for writing, whereas those who received an abundance of criticism, inconsistent feedback, or who could not recall if their teachers were passionate about writing had substantially lower efficacy (Daisey, 2009; Kaufman, 2009; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Morgan, 2010). Many PSTs in the study by Morgan (2010) indicated that they had failed to have even one positive experience with a writing teacher by the time they entered university. Similarly Myers et al. (2016) found that the opportunities for writing provided by teacher educators is tremendously influenced by their own personal experiences as writers. Thus, it is evident that teacher attitudes, which in this case refers to their personal enjoyment of the act of writing as well as beliefs about the importance of writing, are a significant contributor to the development of teaching efficacy, which then impacts writing instruction across all grade levels.

Aside from teacher factors, personal choice in writing was also cited as a reason for low teaching efficacy. Many PSTs could only remember being taught formulaic writing strategies with little opportunity for personal choice (Kohnen et al., 2019; Jensen, 2019). PSTs eschewed the use of prescriptive writing opportunities at all levels of education, stating that opportunities to write creatively were more effective for the development of teaching efficacy (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Kohnen et al., 2019). Participants in Morgan (2010) stated that they did not remember learning to write during their own schooling. Because of this, they now associate writing with worksheets to practice punctuation and handwriting, tasks that are both tedious and not effective for developing positive attitudes (Morgan, 2010).

2.5.1.2. Lack of Opportunities to Witness “Real” Writing Instruction

A number of studies found that low efficacy for writing instruction stemmed from a disjointed series of opportunities to learn about or witness writing instruction in an authentic setting. Common across studies was the contention that writing instruction is rarely witnessed by PSTs in field experiences, or when it is, it seems disconnected from prior lessons or other subjects (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). Grisham and Wolsey (2011) suggested that this is due to the “marginalization” of writing instruction in public schools, where teaching reading is prioritized. In this study, many participants were unable to find even one instance of a writing workshop during their field experience. Perhaps this devaluing of writing is what led to 80% of PSTs in Collier et al. (2013) to believe that daily writing is unimportant, or participants in Hall (2016) to suggest that other subjects, like reading, are superior.

Branscombe and Schneider (2018) discussed how PSTs in their study had been negatively influenced by classroom teachers who taught “disembodied content/strategies to the whole class while the students practiced at their desks,” (p. 34). Because of this, PSTs do not realize the various ways that writing can be taught, nor do they understand how it can be individualized (Branscombe & Schneider, 2018; Hall, 2016). This caused some participants in Hall (2016) to believe that writing instruction was solely about physical mechanics, such as letter formation. Others felt overwhelmed by the complexity of teaching writing, believing that they could never do so successfully. Similarly, PSTs in Ballock et al. (2018) lacked knowledge about how to provide feedback on writing assignments due to a paucity of opportunities to witness authentic writing instruction, as

well as shallow methods coursework that failed to discuss how certain features manifest in children's writing.

2.5.1.3. Persistent Doubts in Their Own Writing Abilities and Knowledge

Even after participation in an intervention, methods coursework, or field experiences, PSTs across studies indicated that they still had low efficacy for teaching one or more areas of writing. For the most part, grammar, spelling, and mechanics were the areas of greatest concern (Ballock et al., 2018; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Helfrich & Clark, 2016; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Morgan, 2010). Other PSTs doubted their ability to successfully structure or organize a writing assignment, teach the writing process (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Wake & Modla, 2010), or differentiate instruction between genres (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). A final concern was the ability to provide effective feedback on writing assignments (Ballock et al., 2018; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Moore & Seeger, 2009).

2.5.2. Barriers to Developing Teaching Efficacy for ELL Instruction

Two major barriers to the development of teaching efficacy for ELL instruction were found in the reviewed study: a) lack of knowledge about how language is learned (González, 2016; Kang & Veitch, 2017; Kelly, 2018; Pray & Marx, 2010; Uzum et al., 2014), and b) lack of knowledge about pedagogical strategies for ELL instruction, even after ESL methods courses (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010; González, 2016; Kelly, 2018; Wessels et al., 2017). These will be discussed in detail below.

2.5.2.1. Lack of Knowledge About Language Learning

Whether through survey data, reflections, researcher observations, or interviews, PSTs across studies indicated that they did not understand basic principles of language learning, thus felt unprepared for ELL instruction. Interestingly, most of the misunderstandings were related to linguistic factors, which will be discussed in detail.

In multiple studies, PSTs were unaware of how to capitalize on the four basic language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) during instruction. González (2016) found that PSTs planned lessons focusing exclusively on speaking and writing activities, without considering listening or reading. Kelly (2018), on the other hand, determined that PSTs perceived language learning to occur only through listening activities, with teachers providing direct instruction.

In the same two studies, PSTs also were unable to distinguish between social and academic English. González (2016) noticed that PSTs' lesson plans ignored the development of social English and only emphasized academic vocabulary. Likewise, PSTs in Kelly (2018) were unable to differentiate between the two in their lesson plans. This relates to findings from Uzum et al. (2014), who noted that PSTs were unable to distinguish between linguistic proficiency levels, and therefore did not a) modify their own speech for ELLs at different levels, and b) modify instruction. Researchers believed that this misunderstanding resulted from the advanced conversational proficiency of the ELL students; because they were able to communicate effectively with the students, PSTs assumed the students' English proficiency was higher than it actually was.

Across studies, PSTs were found to be fixated on the grammatical errors made by ELLs. When conducting an analysis of adult ELLs' writing, participants in Kang and

Veitch (2017) attended more frequently to English grammar than semantics, suggesting a misunderstanding of what is important for ELL comprehensibility. By the same token, PSTs in González (2016) believed that spoken grammatical errors should be immediately and explicitly corrected. Those in Pray and Marx (2010) expressed the belief that grammatical rules should be presented to ELLs one a time, with total mastery occurring before proceeding to the next. These beliefs are in direct contrast to what is widely believed to be effective practices for ELL instruction, and demonstrated a prevailing misunderstanding on the part of PSTs, even after interventions were conducted (González, 2016; Pray & Marx, 2010).

Two studies found that PSTs were resistant to the use of the first language for second language learning. In Uzum et al. (2014), PSTs did not view the first language as a tool, but instead felt threatened and disrespected by its use in the classroom. PSTs enrolled in an ESL methods course felt that the use of the first language was inappropriate, whereas others who had worked in Mexico approved of its use (Pray & Marx, 2010). In this case, it seems that the difference of opinions came from contrasting experiences; those who had experienced feelings of fear in using a new language were more able to understand and proclaim its benefits for language learning than those who had not. When the use of the first language is purposefully and thoughtfully incorporated into second language instruction, it has been found to enhance language learning (e.g., Thomas & Collier, 2002). Indeed, the use of *translanguaging*, or the employment of a learners' entire linguistic repertoire to create meaning, has recently begun to gain in popularity to not only promote acquisition of a second language, but to create a socially just learning space (e.g., Garcia,

Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017; Hillman, Graham, Eslami, 2019; Moody, Matthews, Eslami, 2020).

2.5.2.2. Lack of Knowledge About Pedagogical Strategies

Several studies suggested that while PSTs increased in teaching efficacy for ELL instruction as a result of enrollment in methods courses, field experiences, or other interventions, they still require additional training to have high teaching efficacy.

Survey data from Wessels et al. (2017) showed that PSTs entering a teacher education program lacked confidence in their ability to successfully teach ELLs. While the assumption is that teacher education programs combined with field experiences will alleviate this concern, Durgunoglu and Hughes (2010) found that field experiences in ESL classrooms were ineffective for increasing efficacy because PSTs received minimal guidance from mentor teachers on ELL pedagogy. Likewise, Clark-Goff and Eslami (2016) found that ESL methods courses can actually overwhelm PSTs so that the prospect of teaching ELLs becomes too intimidating. They believed that they could never be fully prepared for ELL instruction until they experienced it.

Several of the intervention studies found evidence to suggest that PSTs struggle to enact ELL instruction, even if they otherwise indicated a perception of preparedness. Participants in Kelly (2018) drew pictures to portray what instruction in an ideal ESL classroom would look like, both before and after completing ESL coursework. Analysis showed no change between pre/post drawings, with PSTs still favoring direct instruction and passive listening on the part of ELLs. Likewise, analyses of sheltered instruction lesson plans in González (2016) showed that PSTs subscribed to a ‘one size fits all’ approach to ELL instruction, leading researchers to conclude that teaching one model isn’t

enough to change practices. Instead, PSTs need exposure to authentic field experiences, and opportunities to use language proficiency data and rubrics to plan effective lessons.

2.6. Discussion: Research Question Two

A pervasive theme across the literature was the general lack of opportunities to witness quality teaching. In writing research, PSTs' bemoaned the scarcity of writing instruction at their field placement schools (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011) and in ELL research, participants noted the general lack of support for ELLs by mentor teachers (Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010). Research on teaching efficacy has repeatedly proclaimed that the opportunity to observe an experienced teacher is critical for development (e.g., Brown et al., 2015). By the same token, self-efficacy literature stresses that teaching efficacy is subject specific (e.g., Pajares, 1997). Taken together, it is evident that field experiences that fail to provide PSTs with direct exposure to quality ELL writing instruction will also fail to develop PSTs who have positive efficacy for teaching this subject.

PSTs in the reviewed studies also suffered from an inadequate understanding of both the process of writing (e.g., Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011) and language learning (e.g., Kelly, 2018). Their misunderstandings of elements of writing like grammar and mechanics coupled with misconceptions about first language use and how to incorporate the four basic language skills indicates that the biggest barrier to high teaching efficacy may be content knowledge. The lack of knowledge elements of writing, like grammar and story structure, is almost certainly a result of prior experiences with writing where instruction and feedback were inconsistent, and teachers were unqualified and unenthusiastic (e.g., Daisey, 2009). Similarly, because most PSTs are monolingual (NCES,

2015), their personal experiences with language learning are likely minimal. In both instances, direct instruction on the content of writing and language learning is needed. While teacher education programs purport to develop both pedagogical and content knowledge (e.g., Putnam, 2012), it may be that learning about content is pushed aside in favor of teaching strategies. Of major concern is that these content knowledge barriers are likely to trickle into PSTs' future classroom instruction, causing them to eschew ELL writing instruction in favor of other subjects for which they feel more efficacious (e.g., Bandura & Wessels, 1997). Perhaps this is why writing achievement continues to be low in American schools (NCES, 2015). Likewise, the oft-reported teacher resistance to work with ELLs may be caused not by cultural mismatch (e.g., Gay, 2010), but instead by a fear of the unknown.

2.7. Findings: Research Question Three

The third research question asks, *what are the recommendations for building PST teaching efficacy for writing and ELL instruction?* As with the previous two research questions, findings will be broken into the recommendations for writing instruction and those for ELL instruction.

2.7.1. Recommendations for Writing Instruction Preparation

Almost every study reviewed provided pedagogical recommendations for teacher educators about how to better prepare PSTs for writing instruction, so that teaching efficacy for both personal and classroom writing tasks would increase. A primary suggestion was the use of genre units within methods courses (Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Cook & Sams, 2018; Daisey, 2008; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Pytash, 2012; Zimmerman et al., 2014), as was process-writing instruction (Batchelor et

al., 2014; Dilidüzgün, 2013; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Moore & Seeger, 2009), practice providing feedback on student writing (Ballock et al., 2018; Dempsey et al., 2009; Barnes & Chandler, 2019; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Hall, 2016; Kuehl, 2019; Langeberg, 2019; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Pytash, 2012), self-reflection and opportunities to write (Barnes, 2018; Byrd, 2010; Garcia & O'Donnell-Allen, 2016; Gerla, 2010; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Kohnen et al., 2019; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Morgan, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2014), and field experiences with writing (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Myers et al., 2019; Pytash, 2017; Roser et al., 2014).

2.7.1.1. Genre-Specific Units of Study

There are many models of writing instruction, but in the era of Common Core State Standards, genre units of study are becoming increasingly touted. It is not surprising, then, that researchers would recommend that teacher educators incorporate such instruction into their language arts methods courses. A main contention across studies is that different types of writing require particular pedagogical strategies and comfortability with the genre, both of which cannot be acquired without explicit instruction (Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Cook & Sams, 2018; Pytash, 2012; Zimmerman et al., 2014). For example, Batchelor et al. (2014) discussed the urgent need for instruction on poetry pedagogy to take away PSTs' general apprehension towards the genre, and Cook and Sams (2018) contend that comfort for multimodal writing will only occur through opportunities for guided practice. Ballock et al. (2018) suggests that without instruction on specific genres, PSTs will be unable to provide specific and targeted feedback on students' writing samples. Perhaps most importantly, exposure to genre units will push PSTs to envision the

myriad types of writing instruction that can occur in their future classrooms (Pytash, 2012; Zimmerman et al., 2014).

Aside from the pedagogical benefits, several studies argue that genre studies will have a positive impact on motivation. Martin and Dismuke (2015) suggest that exposure to multiple genres of writing provide PSTs with the opportunities to finally have fun with writing, and thus gain teaching efficacy. Daisey (2008) explained the benefits of making “how-to” books, stating that they allow PSTs the opportunity to write about topics of their interest, while also decreasing their overall writing apprehension.

2.7.1.2. Process-Writing Instruction

Process-writing instruction simply refers to the stages of writing, from planning to editing to sharing (Dilidüzgün, 2013). A number of researchers argued that PSTs require direct teaching of this method, or something similar, in order to adequately increase their efficacy for writing instruction. First, many PSTs never received instruction on process writing during their own schooling, which is why many perceive themselves as bad writers (Dilidüzgün, 2013). By providing PSTs with the opportunity to use the process approach to writing, they will improve their own writing skills and thus increase teaching efficacy (Dilidüzgün, 2013). Fry and Griffin (2010) contend that this type of skill cannot be learned without direct and purposeful teaching. In addition, Batchelor et al. (2014) suggested that the process approach to writing will remove PSTs’ focus on creating a perfect end product, and instead allow them to appreciate the steps involved in production.

2.7.1.3. Practice Reading and Giving Feedback on Student Writing

As evidenced in research question two, PSTs struggle to provide feedback on student writing even after completion of coursework. Because of this, several researchers

highlighted the need for practice evaluating authentic student writing samples. Exposure to strategies for providing feedback is thought to increase PSTs' general knowledge of the writing process and thus improve their general teaching ability (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Pytash, 2012). Specifically, PSTs need the opportunity to learn how to provide specific, focused feedback, and to differentiate their feedback for learners at varying levels of writing competency (Barnes & Chandler, 2019). Learning to provide effective feedback is also essential in combating the erroneous and pervasive belief that feedback exists only for grammar and spelling (Langeberg, 2019). Ballock et al. (2018) caution that the inability to provide meaningful feedback as a teacher will impede student writing outcomes.

By the same token, Dempsey et al. (2009) urge teacher educators to train PSTs on the use of writing rubrics to both increase efficacy for the task, and to dispel any misconceptions or fear about writing instruction. Hall (2016) believes that evaluation of student work will allow PSTs to appreciate the value of writing, and understand how writing proficiency relates to student learning across all subject areas. Kuehl (2019), on the other hand, suggested that the opportunity to participate in Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) can strengthen PSTs' quality of feedback. PLCs, she argues, provide PSTs with the opportunity to examine writing samples from a variety of grade levels and writing abilities alongside other teachers, which aids in understanding what good writing looks like. Additionally, PLCs help cultivate the skill of providing constructive criticism.

2.7.1.4. Self-Reflection and Opportunities to Write

A number of studies suggested that asking PSTs to reflect on teaching writing, or allowing them the opportunity to engage in writing, would increase efficacy for both the

task of writing and for teaching writing. A primary contention is that providing PSTs with the time and guidance to write about topics of their choosing will remove some of the emotional trauma that many associate with the subject, particularly if it is coupled with constructive feedback from teacher educators (Barnes, 2018; Gerla, 2010). Similarly, time to reflect on writing allows PSTs to grapple with their writers' identities (Garcia & O'Donnell-Allen, 2016), and to understand the writing process (Martin & Dismuke, 2015).

Reflection time is also believed to increase knowledge of writing pedagogy (Morgan, 2010). Through reflection, PSTs will begin to identify strategies that they can employ in their future classrooms (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011), and recognize what good writing looks like (Martin & Dismuke, 2015). It will also enable PSTs to become comfortable with writing-specific terms and vocabulary (Zimmerman et al., 2014), and develop a personal teaching philosophy (Byrd, 2010). Kohnen et al. (2019) contend that reflection may be particularly essential for PSTs who were educated in the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) era, as without a critical analysis of their attitudes and expectations towards writing, they might be tempted to employ formulaic teaching techniques that subscribe to the requirements of standardized tests.

2.7.1.5. Field Experiences with Writing

A general consensus among the literature is that authentic and purposeful field experiences where PSTs can witness and enact process writing instruction and the writing workshop are essential for increasing efficacy. First, working alongside a skilled mentor teacher helps PSTs recognize attributes of successful writing instruction that they can later incorporate into their own teaching (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Pytash, 2017).

Additionally, it enables PSTs to make the connection between theory and practice (Myers

et al., 2019). Field experiences also provide PSTs with the unique opportunity to try out new pedagogical techniques in a real setting, and then receive feedback from experienced mentor teachers (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Roser et al., 2014).

The process of providing feedback on writing is also facilitated by field experiences. PSTs can witness how mentor teachers conference with students, and then ask questions to clarify any confusions or misconceptions (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). Having the opportunity to conference with students about writing also enables PSTs to learn about the importance of listening to students explain their writing, so that they can better understand how to assist them in their writing development (Fry & Griffin, 2010).

2.7.2. Recommendations for the Preparation of ELL Instruction

Researchers made a number of recommendations for how to increase teaching efficacy for ELL instruction. Prevalent across studies was the idea that ESL methods courses are essential, particularly if they focus on building confidence for instruction (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Smith, 2011; Uzum et al., 2014). Also recommended were interactive field experiences with ELLs (Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Rodriguez, 2013; Pray & Marx, 2010) and ‘language shock’ experiences (Washburn, 2008; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015).

2.7.2.1. ESL Methods Courses Focusing on Teaching Efficacy

First and foremost, researchers agreed that ESL methods courses are an essential component of any teacher education program, largely because of the emotional security that they impart. ESL methods courses are thought to help PSTs develop a secure sense of self when faced with students who are different from them (Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008). This confidence is needed for PSTs to cease feeling threatened by students’ use of the first

language for language learning (Uzum et al., 2014). By the same token, ESL methods courses provide PSTs with the pedagogical tools, or strategies for how to effectively teach a variety of subjects to ELLs, they need to feel good about their ability to teach (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008). This is particularly essential because PSTs are often challenged the most by ELLs with low English proficiency; targeted methods courses can reduce this fear through providing PSTs with the skills they need to work with all learners (Smith, 2011), thus developing more positive attitudes towards ELLs (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016).

2.7.2.2. Interactive Field Experiences with ELLs

Much like preparation for writing instruction, field experiences were cited as an essential step to building teaching efficacy for ELL instruction. When PSTs are able to implement lessons based on ESL methodology, they are then able to realize both the importance and effectiveness of such techniques (Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Rodriguez, 2013). Such experiences also allow PSTs to confront their fear of working with ELLs in a supportive setting before they are responsible for their own classrooms (Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011).

Pray and Marx (2010) particularly emphasize the importance of study abroad programs to build cultural competence and to force PSTs to reflect on their own biases and stereotypes. They caution that this type of experience should complement, not replace, traditional ESL methods courses. In study abroad contexts, PSTs are given the chance to implement learned instructional strategies in a real setting. Through this, they suggest that PSTs will develop more empathy for ELLs, as well as passion and enthusiasm for the field of education.

2.7.2.3. Language Shock Experiences

‘Language shock’ is defined as an instructor unexpectedly using a foreign language in a class in which the dominant language is expected (Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). Wright-Maley and Green (2015) recommended that this strategy be used within ESL methods courses to help develop positive attitudes towards ELLs, to enhance understanding of the pedagogical choices made by teachers of ELLs, and to increase teaching efficacy for how to work with ELLs. Likewise, Washburn (2008) believes that language shock experiences can help build empathy for the confusion and frustration that ELLs feel when they are learning in an unfamiliar language.

2.8. Discussion: Research Question Three

If the barriers faced by PSTs in developing efficacy for writing instruction are rooted in a lack of content knowledge, it should come as no surprise that multiple studies provided recommendations for content instruction. For writing, this manifested in the use of genre units in coursework, explicit instruction on process writing, and opportunities to write (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018). In ELL instruction ‘language shock’ lessons and ESL methods courses (e.g., Wright-Maley & Green, 2015) were recommended. Efficacy researchers would consider such techniques to be both verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences, two of the four major contributors to self-efficacy (e.g., Bandura & Wessels, 1997). In the development of teaching efficacy, verbal persuasion often manifests in the form of professional development workshops and training; undergraduate coursework would likely be considered to fall in this category. Language shock lessons would be considered vicarious experiences, as would providing PSTs with exemplary models of writing and demonstrating delivering feedback.

Field experiences, and particularly student teaching, have long been established as the best way to increase teaching efficacy (e.g., Brown et al., 2015; Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008; Lee et al., 2012; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) because they provide PSTs with a supportive and scaffolded environment to try out new pedagogical techniques. This is critical, as efficacy literature consistently suggests that efficacy drops when teachers are attempting a new strategy (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Targeted field experiences have the potential to ameliorate these negative beliefs before PSTs officially become teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). It is reasonable to assume that this is why the reviewed literature stressed the need for PSTs to have hands-on practice delivering ESL (e.g., Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011) and writing lessons (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011), and practice delivering feedback on writing assignments (e.g., Fry & Griffin, 2010). In self-efficacy literature, these recommendations are considered mastery experiences, and are widely thought of as the most powerful contributor to positive teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). While field experiences are a required component of any teacher education program, this finding highlights the urgent need for subject-specific opportunities to enact best practices based on research. Teacher education programs cannot assume that PSTs will naturally develop teaching efficacy for writing and ELL instruction in their field placements, but instead need to ensure that they do. This means that teacher education programs need to work closely with mentor teachers to make sure that PSTs are given the opportunity to both witness and practice research-based and effective writing and ESL pedagogical techniques. Teaching efficacy is subject specific (Graham et al., 2001), and therefore PSTs will not have high efficacy for writing and ESL instruction without mastery experiences in those areas.

In sum, teaching efficacy seems to develop for PSTs through knowledge of content as well as through understanding of pedagogical techniques. Typically, teaching efficacy is thought to encompass efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement (Brown et al., 2015), with knowledge of content left out of the equation. However, it is clear that content knowledge needs to be considered as part of teaching efficacy. Perhaps the term *teaching efficacy* should be broken into two subsections: *content efficacy* and *pedagogical efficacy*. Results of this review suggest that both content efficacy and pedagogical efficacy must be high before a positive teaching efficacy can be realized. High content efficacy is achieved when PSTs are confident that they have sufficient knowledge of the material that they are required to teach. Teacher education programs can develop content efficacy through verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences. On the other hand, positive pedagogical efficacy is when PSTs believe that they can successfully plan and deliver a lesson where students are well-behaved and engaged. To achieve this, teacher education programs must provide PSTs with mastery experiences in all subject areas.

2.9. Conclusion

This literature review contributes to our understanding of how PSTs are prepared for writing and ELL instruction, and what barriers they face in developing teaching efficacy for the aforementioned subjects. Morgan and Pytash (2014) conducted a review about writing studies produced between 1990-2010, with findings that were similar to the ones found in this study: both reviews indicated that PSTs enter teacher education programs with low efficacy for writing, but are given few opportunities to develop their writing knowledge within teacher education programs. Both suggested that writing

methods courses, opportunities to write, vicarious experiences, and field experiences were essential for development. It is notable that despite the almost decade long gap between the present review and that of Morgan and Pytash, the challenges remain the same. Teacher education programs continue to favor reading methods, relegating writing to one or two class periods (Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). Most PSTs leave college with the same low efficacy for writing with which they began, which is then passed on to their future students, and the cycle repeats. If we hope for student achievement in writing to rise nationwide, it is essential that teacher education programs develop both content efficacy and pedagogical efficacy for writing.

Perhaps the most salient finding, however, is the lack of studies on ELL writing instruction. While this review provided a general idea as to how efficacy for ELL instruction can be developed, research points to the need for specific, explicit instruction on each subject to cultivate positive teaching efficacy. Coupled with the knowledge that ELLs struggle more with writing in English than their native English speaking peers (NCES, 2015), it is essential for teacher education programs to provide explicit instruction on ELL writing content and pedagogy.

This review was constrained by one critical limitation. While the intention was to report on research about PST preparation for ELL writing instruction, this was proven to be impossible due to the shortage of studies in this area. Therefore, findings about writing preparation were separated from those about preparation for ELL instruction, meaning that this review cannot determine the exact best methods for teaching PSTs about ELL writing would be. However, we can assume that combining the best practices for each will yield the desired results.

A number of unanswered questions still remain. What type of writing instruction, such as process writing, 6 Traits, genre study, etc., is the best for increasing PSTs' content knowledge of writing? How can teacher education programs provide instruction in writing pedagogy that mimics that which occurs in the school? How can teacher education programs work with mentor teachers to ensure that PSTs are exposed to quality writing, ELL, and ELL writing instruction? What exactly do PSTs need to know about ELL writing to become highly efficacious in this area? Additionally, how do writing and ESL methods courses impact the efficacy of PSTs as they begin their careers? Longitudinal studies are needed on this topic. Future researchers should explore each of these questions in detail in the hopes that PSTs everywhere will become successful and enthusiastic teachers of ELL writing.

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3. BECOMING TEACHERS OF ELL WRITING: THE IMPACT OF A PREPARATION PROGRAM ON THE EFFICACY OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

The nationwide focus on reading and math achievement has led many schools to promote reading and math, but neglect the third R, writing (Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). While this affects all students, it may be particularly detrimental for English language learners (ELLs). In 2011, only 35% of 8th grade ELLs and 20% of 12th grade ELLs scored at or above the *basic* level of writing on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). Only 1% of ELLs in both 8th and 12th grade scored at or above the *proficient* level (NCES, 2012). This is incredibly detrimental, as the research shows that employers highly value workers who can proficiently write (Holland, 2013), so the lack of writing instruction may prohibit ELLs from getting certain jobs.

Student underachievement in writing has been attributed to inadequate teacher preparation (McKeown, Brindle, Harris, Sandmel, Steinbrecher, Graham..., & Oakes, 2018). Recently, more attention has been paid to the paucity of writing methods courses in teacher education programs, and the scarcity of instruction on ELL writing (Applebee & Langer, 2011; Brindle, Harris, Graham, & Hebert, 2016; Drew, Olinghouse, Faggella-Luby, & Welsh, 2017; Hodges, Wright, & McTigue, 2019; Kang & Veitch, 2017; Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Preservice teachers (PSTs) are graduating teacher education programs with low efficacy for writing, and ELL writing, instruction (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). This is problematic because teacher efficacy, or the belief that a behavior can be successfully executed (Bandura, 1977), has been strongly linked to student outcomes, and specifically

to ELL writing (e.g., Batchelor, Morgan, Kidder-Brown, & Zimmerman, 2014; Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, Driscoll, 2005).

To increase teacher efficacy, teacher education programs need to make substantial changes to the way they approach writing instruction preparation (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Writing methods courses that provide PSTs with knowledge about both content and pedagogy, including that which targets ELLs, need to be required. Field experiences that provide PSTs with the opportunity to implement writing lessons with diverse learners, then receive feedback from an experienced mentor are also essential (e.g., Ballock, McQuitty, & McNary, 2018; Bandura, 1997; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009).

The proposed study will be among the first to investigate the development of PST efficacy for ELL writing instruction (Morgan & Pytash, 2014) by using a model of teacher preparation called *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW) that was designed specifically for the present study based on recommendations from the literature on writing and ELL instruction (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Darling-Hammond, Hyler, & Gardner, 2017; Fry & Griffin, 2010; McKeown et al., 2018; Pytash, 2017; Uzum, Petró, & Berg, 2014). Specifically, this study will seek to understand how the framework of BTEW impacts PST efficacy for ELL writing instruction, and how this efficacy influences instruction.

3.1. Literature Review

3.1.1. Why is Preparation Important?

The ability to write well plays a critical role in comprehension (Miller, Scott, & McTigue, 2018), as well as achievement in other school subjects like math (Kenney,

Shoffner, & Norris, 2014) and science (Rupley, 2010). Studies have shown that student writing can improve by around 12-percentile points if students write for at least 30-minutes a day (Graham & Harris, 2016), however this is rare in most U.S. schools. Information from the National Center for Education Statistics (2012) indicates that only 25% of students are given this amount of time to write during the school day, because most teachers devote significantly less than 30-minutes a day to writing instruction (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Drew et al., 2017).

Teacher preparation, or lack thereof, has been identified as a major cause of the nationwide underachievement in writing; most colleges of education do not prioritize the subject of writing, and fail to have even a single writing methods course available for PSTs (Morgan & Pytash, 2014; Myers, Scales, Grisham, Wolsey, Dismuke, Smetana,...& Martin, 2016). This is particularly true for ELL writing, which is ignored in most teacher education programs (Kang & Veitch, 2017). Even in field placements, writing instruction is rarely witnessed by PSTs (e.g., Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Morgan & Pytash, 2014). In a study by Grisham and Wolsey (2011), PSTs reported that a) mentor teachers provided almost no time for writing each day, b) when writing instruction occurred, it was always focused on the same genre, and c) the field placement failed to boost their efficacy for writing instruction. Likewise, Brenner and McQuirk (2019) asserted that teachers are more likely to teach short, isolated writing tasks that fail to engage students in the writing process, and which ultimately prohibit the development of efficacy in PSTs. This finding was supported by Branscombe and Schneider (2018), whose PST participants developed negative attitudes towards writing instruction after witnessing

a series of disconnected, disjointed writing lessons that involved no individual student conferencing.

The failure of teacher education programs to provide writing methods courses has resulted in PSTs graduating with a low efficacy for writing instruction (Morgan & Pytash, 2014), which directly impacts their practice as in-service teachers. Most in-service teachers report that they feel significantly less prepared to teach writing than other core subjects like reading, math, social studies, and science (e.g., Brindle et al., 2016; Martin & Dismuke, 2018), and overall have negative attitudes and low efficacy for writing instruction (McKeown et al., 2018). Likewise, many do not feel confident in their abilities to teach ELLs (e.g., Wessels, Trainin, Reeves, Catalano, & Deng, 2017). Research shows that teachers tend to avoid subjects for which they have low efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005), meaning that ELL writing instruction is unlikely to occur if teachers do not feel efficacious. Teacher efficacy for writing also impacts students' attitudes (Hodges et al., 2019). Students typically have higher efficacy for writing when they believe their teachers are enthusiastic about the subject, and lower efficacy when they perceive the opposite (Daisey, 2009; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Kaufman, 2009; Morgan, 2010). Thus, ELL achievement in writing will continue to be low, and instruction will remain scarce, unless teacher education programs take the necessary steps to prepare PSTs.

3.1.2. Recommendations for Preparation

Literature on teacher efficacy considers *personal teaching efficacy* to be the most significant contributor to teaching outcomes and the enactment of teaching (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Personal teaching efficacy is defined as the belief that teachers hold about their teaching competence (Graham, Harris, Fink, & MacArthur,

2001), or their beliefs that they possess the necessary skills to provide quality instruction and manage student behavior (Putnam, 2012). Personal teaching efficacy is said to develop from four sources: a) mastery experiences, b) verbal persuasion, c) vicarious experiences, and d) physiological arousal (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). *Mastery experiences* are widely considered to be the most influential (e.g., Brown, Lee, & Collins, 2015; Lee, Tice, Collins, Brown, Smith, & Fox, 2012; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005), and are defined as the successful completion of a task or behavior (Bandura & Wessels, 1997), such as when a PST successfully executes a lesson. Interactions between individuals about task performance are examples of *verbal persuasion*, and are found in teacher preparation when a mentor teacher provides feedback on a lesson (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). *Vicarious experiences* are when a task or activity is modeled by someone else (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), such as when a PST witnesses a mentor teacher enacting a lesson. Finally, the feelings derived from completing a task, like the pleasure from witnessing a student master a topic, is known as *physiological arousal* (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Personal teaching efficacy can be further broken down into efficacy for content, or a teachers' beliefs about their level of understanding and comfort with a particular topic, efficacy for pedagogy, or a teachers' confidence in their ability to successfully execute a lesson, and efficacy for self, or a teachers' overall perceptions of their capabilities (Brown et al., 2015).

Research has provided several suggestions to increase PSTs preparation and personal teaching efficacy for writing and ELL instruction, although no studies have examined this for ELL writing instruction specifically (Moody, 2020). First, direct instruction on different genres of writing is recommended to provide PSTs with a vision of

how writing instruction will look in their own classroom, and to increase comfort for genres like poetry, for which efficacy is traditionally low (Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Cook & Sams, 2018; Daisey, 2008; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Pytash, 2012; Zimmerman, Morgan, & Kidder-Brown, 2014). Instruction on the writing process has also been recommended, as many PSTs lack background knowledge on the stages of writing (Batchelor et al., 2014; Dilidüzgün, 2013; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Moore & Seeger, 2009). Such instruction will enable PSTs to both improve their personal writing skills and recognize that writing encompasses more than the creation of a final product (Batchelor et al., 2014; Dilidüzgün, 2013). Similarly, ESL methods courses must include specific pedagogical strategies for all subject areas (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Smith, 2011; Uzum et al., 2014), including writing. Most importantly, researchers emphasized the need for authentic field experiences where PSTs are able to enact writing and ELL instruction (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Pray & Marx, 2010; Pytash, 2017; Rodriguez, 2013; Roser, Hoffman, Wetzel, Price-Dennis, Peterson, & Chamberlain, 2014), and practice providing feedback and writing conferencing (Ballock et al., 2018; Dempsey, PytlikZillig, & Bruning, 2009; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Hall, 2016; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Pytash, 2012).

These recommendations align with the principles of effective teacher professional development determined by the Learning Policy Institute (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Central to change-provoking professional development is: a) a focus on content, b) opportunities for active learning, or field experiences for PSTs, c) collaboration and the development of relationships, d) modelling of effective practice, e) coaching and expert support, f) individualized feedback and reflections, and g) sustained duration (Bates &

Morgan, 2018). Combined with the literature on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction, it becomes evident that any framework designed to increase PST efficacy for writing should include explicit instruction on the process of writing and stages of ELL writing, as well as opportunities for active learning in authentic environments under the guidance of a mentor (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Fry & Griffin, 2010; McKeown et al., 2018; Pytash, 2017; Uzum et al., 2014).

3.2. Study Purpose

To the best of my knowledge, no studies have sought to examine how personal teaching efficacy for ELL writing can be developed through teacher education programs (Kang & Veitch, 2017), nor have any relevant frameworks been proposed. Most of the literature focuses on professional development for in-service teachers (e.g., Martin & Dismuke, 2018; McKeown et al., 2018), or does not specifically reference ELLs (e.g., Hodges et al., 2019). While a handful of studies have investigated PST preparation for writing instruction, most have revolved around methods courses and have not included opportunities for PSTs to demonstrate their knowledge in an actual classroom (Moody, 2020). When field experiences were included, they usually occurred over the course of only one semester and were not paired with any structured feedback or guidance from mentors (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). Also problematic is that the majority of studies have shown an increase in efficacy from self-reported data such as journals or surveys, without classroom observations to corroborate the findings (e.g., Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). This makes it difficult to determine: a) if PST efficacy really did increase, b) how this corresponds with actual classroom practice, c) the impact of teacher education

programs on classroom practice, and d) the longitudinal impact of such programs on efficacy and instruction.

The present study will seek to cover the above-mentioned gaps in the literature by examining how participation in BTEW, a year-long teacher preparation program, impacted the personal teaching efficacy of PST participants for ELL writing. As with previous studies, self-reported data about efficacy and preparation for ELL writing is included, but is contrasted against observations of actual classroom practice in an effort to answer the following research questions:

1. Before participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for ELL writing, and what do they attribute this to?
2. After participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for ELL writing?
3. What aspects of the BTEW framework do PSTs attribute to the development of teaching efficacy, if any?
4. How is the PSTs' stated pedagogical efficacy reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves?

3.3. Terminology

Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW). This term refers to a year-long teacher preparation program designed to prepare preservice teachers for elementary writing and ELL writing instruction.

Content efficacy. *Content efficacy* is a component of *personal teaching efficacy* that refers to a teachers' belief that they have sufficient knowledge of the material, or content, that they are required to teach.

English language learner (ELL). The term *English language learner (ELL)* will be used for students whose first language is not English, and are in the process of learning English.

ELL instruction. *ELL instruction* will refer to the teaching of students whose first language is not English.

Field experiences. The opportunity to engage in hands-on teaching through the after school intervention (Ready, Set, Write) will be called a *field experience*. Additionally, any opportunity to engage in hands-on teaching or observations in K-12 schools will be called *field experiences*.

In-service teacher. To indicate a teacher who is already practicing, but is not specifically positioned as a mentor in the present study, the term *in-service teacher* will be applied.

Mentor teacher. *Mentor teacher* will refer to a veteran teacher who serves as a role model for aspiring teachers.

Pedagogical efficacy. When teachers believe that they can successfully plan and deliver a lesson where students are well-behaved and engaged, this is called *pedagogical efficacy*, a component of *personal teaching efficacy*.

Pedagogical moves. *Pedagogical moves* are defined as teachers' choices in the strategies and resources that they use to provide successful instruction. It encompasses the decisions and/or adjustments that teachers make in response to their students' background knowledge, prior experiences, and linguistic proficiency.

Personal teaching efficacy. The term *personal teaching efficacy* will be used to refer to PSTs' efficacy for content and pedagogy.

Preservice teachers (PSTs). *Preservice teachers (PSTs)* refers to any undergraduate or masters-level students enrolled in a university-level teacher education program that has not yet held a full-time teaching position. While the terms *student teacher* and *teacher candidate* are used by some researchers, *PST* is the most pervasive across the literature.

Teacher education programs. In this study, university programs designed to prepare PSTs for teacher certification are referred to as *teacher education programs*.

Teacher preparation program. The term *teacher preparation program* will be used to refer to a professional development program, Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW), that is designed specifically to prepare preservice teachers for classroom instruction.

3.4. Researcher Positionality

Within any qualitative study, it is important for the researcher to acknowledge that “the writing of a qualitative text cannot be separated from the author, how it is received by readers, and how it impacts the participants and sites under study,” (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 228). Researchers must disclose their own participation and how the findings are understood through the lens of their prior experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2018). As the main researcher of this study, it is important to understand how I came to develop BTEW, and how this shaped my interactions with the study participants.

At the time of the study, I was seeking a doctorate in Literacy and ESL education at a large research university. I started my doctorate after ten years of teaching elementary students in a Title I school comprised almost entirely of Spanish ELLs. I was always a self-contained teacher, meaning that I taught all subjects, in grades one, three, and four. During

my third year of teaching I was awarded Teacher of the Year by my district, which led me to become a new faculty mentor. I was routinely assigned to work with new teachers, particularly those who were struggling with classroom management or literacy instruction. I also had the privilege of mentoring several student teachers from nearby universities. Somewhere around my sixth year of teaching, I became the school expert on fourth grade writing, and would often be called out of my own classroom to teach other students. This led to me become the literacy coach for our school, where I worked on reading and writing development with students from all grade levels. I also conducted many staff developments with the whole school and individual teachers. These experiences provided me with a very clear vision of my future mentoring aspiring educators within the field of ELL literacy.

During the first year of my doctoral studies I became involved with a new project called Ready, Set, Write! (RSW) that investigated the use of technology within early writing. I assisted with the grant proposal and IRB, and was hired as its project manager. One of the first tasks assigned to me was to create a curriculum for the project. My prior experiences as a writing teacher combined with my position as a researcher well-versed in the field of literacy and ELL instruction led me to use the Writing Workshop by Lucy Calkins as an overarching foundation for the curriculum. Likewise, my beliefs in sociocultural theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and constructivism (Gallimore & Tharpe, 1990) shaped how I designed the curriculum, as I sought to create a learning environment that emphasized social interaction and experiential learning.

In the first year (Fall 2017 and Spring 2018), the RSW intervention was implemented by myself and another graduate student, with four PSTs serving as assistants. Due to some consistency issues, I believed that these issues could be circumvented in the

second year of RSW (Fall 2018 and Spring 2019) if the intervention was taught entirely by PSTs. So, I designed BTEW and recruited 11 interested PSTs to teach the intervention. This was the culmination of my professional background and doctoral studies, because it combined my expertise in writing and ELL instruction with my passion for mentoring new teachers. Since I conceptualized BTEW, it was up to me to determine how I would manage it so that a) RSW remained a successful and reliable research project, and b) the PSTs involved were participating in an authentic field experience that would be beneficial for their future careers. I drew on my prior experience of conducting professional development trainings, mentoring new and aspiring teachers, and my knowledge of teacher preparation literature to create the framework of BTEW. Like when I designed the RSW curriculum, I incorporated my theoretical ideologies to ensure that all learning would be scaffolded and collaborative in nature, with teacher agency prioritized (Vygotsky, 1978).

When BTEW began in earnest, I realized that my role was one of tremendous power and responsibility. Because of this, I attempted to be cognizant of my interactions with the PSTs to ensure that I was providing meaningful and timely feedback about their teaching practices. I tried to empower all the PSTs by allowing them to choose activities and plan lessons for each week, and by emphasizing that they, too, are knowledge holders with classroom authority. In this way, I sought to create a space where all PSTs could begin to formulate their own teacher beliefs (Huber, Li, Murphy, Nelson, & Young, 2014), so that they would feel confident and knowledgeable about ELL writing in their future classrooms.

3.5. Research Methodology

The study utilizes a longitudinal qualitative case study methodology. A case study is an approach that explores “a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information,” (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 96). In this instance, the case study involves a group of six PSTs who participated in the program, Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW). Good case studies provide an “in-depth understanding” of a particular case through the use of various data sources (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 98). Guided by constructivist and sociocultural theories, the present study will employ a variety of data to understand how participation in BTEW impacted PSTs personal teaching efficacy for writing instruction, and how this influenced their pedagogical moves.

Constructivist theory posits that knowledge is formed through interactions with others and the environment, where learners reconstruct their own presumptions based on new experiences (Unrau & Alvermann, 2013). Prior research has shown that PSTs enter teacher education programs with preconceived notions about writing and ELLs that are largely resistant to change (Morgan & Pytash, 2014) unless presented with extensive and longitudinal field experiences scaffolded by knowledgeable mentors and opportunities for reflection (e.g., Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Pytash, 2017). Thus, constructivism will be used in this study to understand how the framework of BTEW facilitated a change in the personal teaching efficacy of the PSTs. Similarly, sociocultural theory suggests that how individuals teach, and how they understand teaching, is shaped by the various settings of their life (Grossman, Valencia, Evans, Thompson, Martin, & Place, 2000). By linking the setting of BTEW to the knowledge acquired, sociocultural theory can

be used to understand how and why PSTs develop personal teaching efficacy for ELL writing instruction, and how this manifests in their instruction (Zimmerman et al., 2014).

3.5.1. Setting

The setting for this study is in a unique, researcher-designed teacher preparation program called *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW), which is centered around an authentic field experience called *Ready, Set, Write!* (RSW). More information about BTEW will be provided in the procedures section. Below, particular details about the field experience will be discussed.

3.5.1.1. The Field Experience

The BTEW field experience was situated within a larger research project called RSW, an experimental writing intervention that took place over the course of two years, with each year consisting of two semesters. The present study follows PSTs in Year 2 (Fall 2018 and Spring 2019). In Fall 2018, instruction centered around lower-level writing skills (e.g., spelling) and the development of narrative writing, both with and without technology, for struggling second grade students. In Spring 2019, one group of struggling students received technology-enhanced narrative writing instruction, whereas two other groups received instruction over a variety of writing genres. These two groups were called “Enrichment”, and consisted of typically-developing writers who were recruited as a comparison sample to the struggling writers. All RSW interventions took place after school, two days a week, 85 minutes each, for 10 weeks total. Three schools participated in the RSW intervention, all of which were part of Barker ISD (pseudonym), a district in the southwestern U.S. Barker ISD services approximately 16,000 students a year, 75% of which are economically disadvantaged, and 24% of whom are ELLs. Demographic

information about the student participants from each school is presented in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 School Demographics

	Fall 2018		Spring 2019	
	N	% ELLs	N	% ELLs
Billman Elementary	23	52% (n = 12)	17*	47% (n = 8)
Farley Elementary			22	73% (n = 16)
Harvest Elementary	20	65% (n = 13)	21*	75% (n = 16)

*Enrichment intervention

3.5.1.2. Participants

Eleven PSTs were recruited for BTEW from the teacher education department of a large, public university, six of whom agreed to participate in the current study. Recruitment for the 2018-19 school year occurred at the end of the semester in Spring 2018. I, along with two PSTs who had worked in the RSW intervention during 2017-18, visited various reading-related education courses. In each course, we gave a short 5-minute presentation about the program and distributed flyers. BTEW was presented as a completely voluntary, extracurricular program that would not correspond with any coursework, nor provide any university credit. PSTs were told that there was the possibility

of hourly pay for work in the RSW intervention, depending on the position they were hired for. Potential participants were required to engage in a 30-minute interview to determine their availability and interest level in the program, and 11 total participants were selected.

The 11 PSTs who chose to participate in BTEW did so for a variety of reasons, including: a) a desire to increase their pedagogical knowledge, b) the opportunity to learn about writing instruction, c) the ability to work with ELLs, d) to gain as much real-life teaching experience as possible before formally entering the profession, and e) the possibility of a paid job that directly corresponded with their future careers. Additionally, they all expressed a general disappointment in the teacher preparation program of their university, particularly regarding writing instruction (Pre-Interview, 2018). At the time of the present study, no writing-specific methods courses were required, or even offered, by their teacher education program. The general consensus among PSTs was that if writing was mentioned at all, it was over the course of one class period, then quickly forgotten (Pre-Interview, 2018). Several Writing Intensive courses were required for all the PSTs, which are designed to provide PSTs with opportunities to practice writing and giving feedback on different genres while simultaneously learning content (Hodges, 2015). However, research has indicated that Writing Intensive courses are ineffective for helping with their writing development and self-efficacy (Hodges, 2015). This finding is attributed to course instructors who fail to make the writing process apparent, and do not tie it to classroom pedagogy. PSTs were also required to take two ESL Methods coursework for their teacher education program, however those who had already fulfilled these requirements indicated that ELL writing had never been mentioned, nor had opportunities to examine authentic writing samples been presented (Pre-Interview, 2018).

Table 3.2 below shows the characteristics of the six BTEW PSTs (out of 11 total) who agreed to be part of the present research study. Laura and Kathleen had both worked for the RSW intervention for two semesters in 2017-18, but only as assistants to the first author. More specific information about each will be provided in later chapters.

Table 3.2 Participant Information

	Ethnicity	Gender	Age	Semesters in program
Laura	W	F	22	3
Kathleen	W	F	21	4
Mandy	W	F	20	2
Dylan	W	F	22	2
Sabrina	H	F	19	2
Maizie	W	F	20	2

PSTs were assigned to a different school each semester. Additionally, some of their instructional roles changed based on the needs of the school, their preference, or their experience level. Instructional roles included: a) Lead Teacher, b) Assistant Teacher, or c) Co-Lead Teacher. As a Lead Teacher, the PST was charged with planning and preparing for the main writing lesson (i.e., implementing the writing workshop) whole group every day of the RSW or Enrichment intervention. Additionally, Lead Teachers were the primary point of contact for all parents and school staff, were in charge of classroom management, and responsible for overseeing all Assistant Teachers. To be selected as a Lead Teacher,

PSTs had to have prior experience (a minimum of one semester) with the RSW intervention or similar program.

Assistant Teachers were PSTs who had no prior experience with the RSW intervention. This position required the PSTs to plan for and prepare one center mini-lesson and activity, which they would deliver to three small groups of students each day. Centers activities involved only lower-level writing skills, such as handwriting, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. Each Assistant Teacher was assigned to one specific skill each semester. They were also tasked with smaller classroom duties like dismissing students, taking attendance, and helping enforce classroom management.

The responsibility of the Co-Leads combined the duties of the Lead Teachers and Assistant Teachers. To be a Co-Lead, the PST had to have prior experience in the RSW intervention or equivalent, however they did not have to assume the same amount of responsibility as a Lead Teacher. Co-Leads would usually prepare for and teach one whole group lesson per week (instead of the two done by Lead Teachers), and would prepare for and teach one centers activity per week. The reasons PSTs were selected as Co-Leads instead of a Lead Teachers were varied. For example, during Fall 2018 Laura was completing her senior year; her rigorous coursework and required field placement would only allow her to devote one day a week to the program. Therefore, Laura was a Co-Lead during Fall 2018, and was in charge of teaching the whole group lesson on the days she was present. Mandy, on the other hand, had no prior experience with the RSW intervention, but had taught with me during the summer at a rural school in Mexico. Based on this prior experience, plus the need for someone to take Laura's place when she could not be present, Mandy was placed as a Co-Lead in Fall 2018. She continued in this

position in Spring 2019, when she too began her senior year and coursework and field schedule would not permit two days a week of participation. Sabrina and Maizie were Co-Leads in Spring 2019 because they would take turns teaching the whole group lesson when Mandy was unable to be present. As the youngest and least experienced members of the program, they made the decision that the responsibility for the whole class lesson should be shared between them.

It was the responsibility of all the BTEW PSTs to work in small groups with students during individual writing time. Thus, after the mini-lesson had concluded each day, PSTs would conference with students about their writing progress, provide them with feedback, or discuss other issues/concerns about their writing sample. Information about the role of each PST can be found in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 PST Roles in RSW Intervention

	Semester	Position	School
Laura	Fall '18	Co-Lead Teacher	Harvest Elementary
Kathleen	Fall '18	Lead Teacher	Billman Elementary
	Spring '19	Lead Teacher	Harvest Elementary
	Spring '19	Lead Teacher	Billman Elementary
Mandy	Fall '18	Co-Lead Teacher	Harvest Elementary
	Spring '19	Co-Lead Teacher	Farley Elementary
Dylan	Fall '18	Assistant Teacher	Billman Elementary
	Spring '19	Assistant Teacher	Harvest Elementary
	Spring '19	Assistant Teacher	Billman Elementary
Sabrina	Fall '18	Assistant Teacher	Harvest Elementary
	Spring '19	Co-Lead Teacher	Farley Elementary
Maizie	Fall '18	Assistant Teacher	Billman Elementary
	Spring '19	Co-Lead Teacher	Farley Elementary

3.5.2. Procedures

3.5.2.1. RSW Intervention

The field experience for BTEW was situated within RSW, a larger research project. PSTs were charged with implementing the RSW curriculum, which differed slightly depending on the group that the school was assigned to. Information about school assignments can be seen in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 School Assignments in RSW

	Writing	Writing + Tech	Control
2017-18	Farley	Billman	Harvest
2018-19	Billman	Harvest	Farley

The RSW curriculum was created by two researchers. Curriculum targeted the writing-related Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) for second grade. Each day, PSTs in RSW would: a) teach three rounds of centers activities focusing on lower-level skills like vocabulary, handwriting, spelling, and grammar; b) deliver a mini-lesson on personal narrative compositions, using guidelines from Lucy Calkins' Writing Workshop (2005); and c) conduct individual writing conferences with students. Under the guidance of the BTEW PSTs, RSW students produced two narrative writing samples per semester, meaning that they engaged in the entire writing process twice. Thus, the BTEW PSTs

taught the same lessons between two to four times, using the prompts “*write about a time you helped someone*” and “*write about a time you had to apologize*”.

The curriculum differed slightly for each group. PSTs who taught in the Writing group engaged in more traditional instruction, where all assignments were completed using paper and pencil and mini-lessons were centered around anchor charts. Center activities involved hands-on games and activities. On the other hand, PSTs teaching in the Writing + Tech group had students compose on various iPad applications, and used an iPad connected to a smartboard for instruction. Many centers activities were also done on the iPads. The main difference involved preparation; while the PSTs in the Writing group had to create anchor charts and games, and be responsible for all student materials, those in the Writing + Tech group had to manage, navigate, and troubleshoot the iPads. The Control group received the same curriculum as the Writing + Tech group during Spring 2019.

3.5.2.2. Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW)

BTEW is a unique framework that was designed to ensure that the PSTs were appropriately prepared to provide writing instruction in the RSW intervention. The framework of BTEW targets the development of skills in ELL writing instruction, the Writing Workshop, classroom management, planning, and problem-solving. Current literature on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction, as well as best practices in professional development, were used when planning the framework for BTEW (see Figure 3.1). The framework involves a cycle of professional development that was repeated weekly throughout the entirety of Fall 2018 and Spring 2019, built on the premise that sustained and longitudinal professional development is more effective than one-shot workshops (Bates & Morgan, 2018). Each stage will be discussed in detail below.

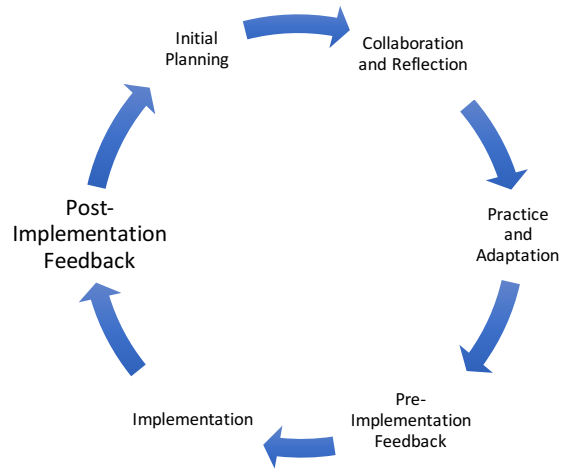


Figure 3.1 BTEW Framework

3.5.2.2.1. Program Introduction Stage

Research on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction highlights the need for methods courses that provide instruction on both pedagogy and content (e.g., Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Martin & Dismuke, 2015). Likewise, professional development research has determined that a focus on content is essential (Bates & Morgan, 2018). These suggestions are what led to the creation of the *Program Introduction* stage of the framework, which can be seen in Figure 3.2.

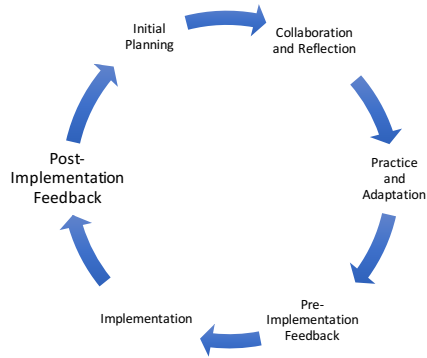


Figure 3.2 Program Introduction Stage of BTEW

Program Introduction was designed to occur only once, which is the reason it exists outside of the cycle. As a whole group, PSTs in BTEW participated in this at the beginning of the Fall 2018 semester, before any classroom instruction began. During *Program Introduction*, which took place over the course of two weeks, PSTs were provided with an overview of the goals and structure of the RSW intervention, and received direct instruction on classroom management strategies. *Program Introduction* also included genre-specific instruction on narrative writing and opportunities to practice giving feedback on student work, both of which are considered to be essential in PST writing preparation (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018; Fry & Griffin, 2010). Embedded within this was explicit instruction on ELL writing, including discussion of stages of second language acquisition and clear examples of how these stages manifest within the writing of ELL students (Newman, Samimny, & Romstedt, 2010). *Program Introduction* also included an introduction to the components of the Writing Workshop (Calkins, 2005), as prior literature has suggested that PSTs often have little recollection of learning how to write, or steps within the writing process (Morgan, 2010) and that instruction on this process prior to teaching pedagogy is beneficial (e.g., Batchelor et al., 2014).

3.5.2.2.2. *Initial Planning Stage*

The *Initial Planning* stage (see Figure 3.3) is focused more on the project manager and mentor of BTEW than on the PSTs. In this stage, I used the RSW curriculum to write the lesson plans for the main lesson each week. Afterwards, the plans were sent to the PSTs to review in preparation for the weekly meeting (to be discussed in the following section). There are several reasons why the PSTs did not write the plans themselves: a) RSW is an experimental research project, so the content was consistent across groups, b) the PSTs were inexperienced in lesson planning, particularly in creating plans for ELLs, and c) best practices in professional development for teachers of ELLs routinely emphasizes the need for scaffolding by expert mentors (Casteel & Ballantyne, 2010). Scaffolding by a knowledgeable mentor is considered to be a key in the development of personal teaching efficacy, especially when PSTs are attempting to try a new pedagogical strategy (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011).

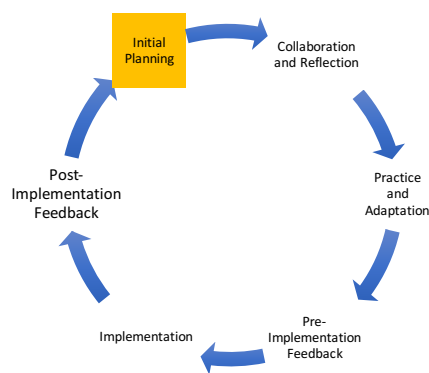


Figure 3.3 Initial Planning Stage of BTEW

3.5.2.2.3. Collaboration and Reflection Stage

The Collaboration and Reflection stage (see Figure 3.4) is one of the most important components of the BTEW framework. Every week, *Collaboration and Reflection* occurred during a face-to-face group meeting to prepare for the upcoming weeks' lessons. Meetings would last between one to three hours, and would begin with 15 minutes of reflection time, where the PSTs would write in their journals. A number of studies suggest that providing reflection time for PSTs increases both efficacy for the task of writing and writing instruction (e.g., Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Morgan, 2010), and enables PSTs time to think about what good writing instruction looks like (Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011). Written reflections were always accompanied by a dialogue between the project manager/mentor and the PSTs about any instructional challenges they faced during the RSW intervention that week. At this time, suggestions to counteract any issues would be provided by the project manager/mentor and by the other PSTs in BTEW. This type of collaboration is considered to be essential for successful professional development because it “supports a togetherness mindset and develops collective knowledge that extends beyond individualized, isolated classroom experiences,” (Bates & Morgan, 2018, p. 624). Similarly, the establishment of a trusting mentor relationship (Brown et al., 2015) and individualized feedback about each classroom context has been found to be an essential part of professional development (Bates & Morgan, 2018). This may be particularly true for teachers of ELLs, whose classrooms vary dramatically in the number, language proficiency, and heritage language of their ELL students. The diverse nature of all ELL classrooms is what led Bohon, McKelvey, Rhodes, and Robnolt (2017)

to identify individualized coaching and time for reflection as key components of any professional development geared towards teachers of ELLs.

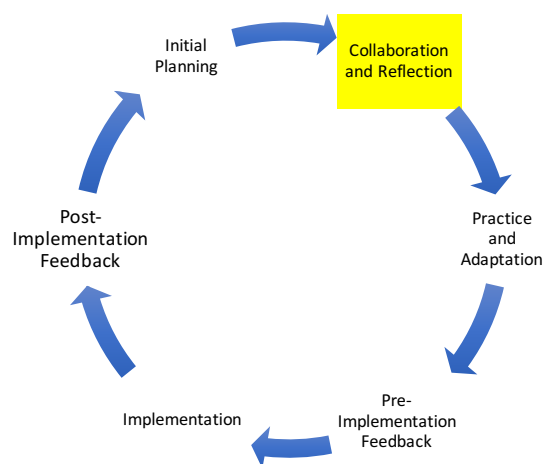


Figure 3.4 Collaboration and Reflection Stage of BTEW

The *Collaboration and Reflection* stage is also when the lesson plans for the week were discussed and negotiated. Following suggestions for effective professional development practices for teachers of ELLs, PSTs were allowed to suggest adaptations to the pace and materials to fit the needs of their own classroom context (McKeown et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2010). In this way, PSTs became the experts of their own context. The project manager/mentor of RSW both had to ensure that the lessons and instructional experiences met quality standards and were supported by research, while still attempting to provide PSTs with enough agency over their classrooms to make informed decisions and to facilitate their development of personal teaching efficacy (McKeown et al., 2018). This was both a tricky but critical step in the BTEW framework.

The *Collaboration and Reflection* stage would also occasionally involve direct instruction on new pedagogical techniques for teaching writing to ELLs (e.g., Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008), or practice providing feedback on authentic ELL writing samples. Several researchers have emphasized the importance of exposing PSTs to effective strategies for providing feedback on writing (e.g., Fry & Griffin, 2010), as the inability to do so is likely to impede student writing outcomes (Ballock et al., 2018). This is especially true for teachers of ELLs, who need specific instruction to understand the linguistic phenomena that occur in their students' writing (Newman et al., 2010). In these meetings, student work samples from Year One of the RSW intervention were presented, and PSTs would practice writing conferencing strategies.

3.5.2.2.4. Practice and Adaptation Stage

Figure 3.5 shows the *Practice and Adaptation* stage, which occurred each week after the weekly meeting. At this time, the PSTs would watch video recordings of the project manager/mentor teaching the corresponding lessons from Year One of the RSW intervention to familiarize themselves with effective teaching pedagogy. This type of vicarious experience, in which PSTs witness the successful execution of a lesson, is one of the key contributors to the development of personal teaching efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Likewise, the opportunity to observe an experienced teacher, through video recordings or otherwise, “gives teachers a clear picture of what they are working to achieve in their classrooms,” (Bates & Morgan, 2018, p. 624). After watching the relevant videos, PSTs would write scripts for their lessons. While this was more necessary in Fall 2018 than in Spring 2019, research has shown that the benefit of intensive scaffolding continues through the first few years of teaching (Putnam, 2012).

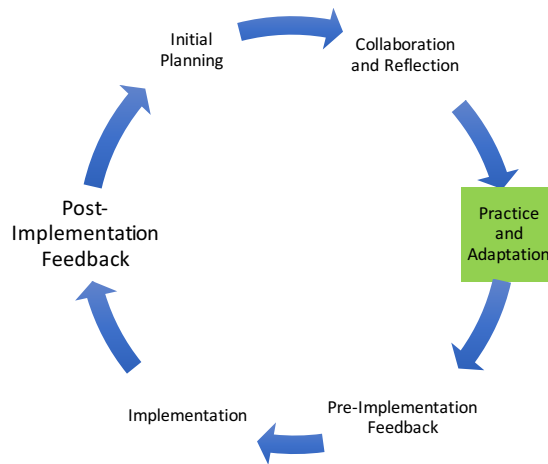


Figure 3.5 Practice and Adaptation Stage of BTEW

3.5.2.2.5. Pre-Implementation Feedback Stage

Feedback on PST scripts was provided (see Figure 3.6) by the project manager/mentor at least one day before the RSW intervention began each week. At this time, questions about the instructional plan would be posed, recommendations for rephrasing or condensing teacher talk would be presented, and suggestions for strategies to work with ELLs would be provided. Discussions around how to use visuals, the role of Spanish cognates, and tips for how to make language comprehensible without watering down content occurred to provide the PSTs with a solid understanding of the practical strategies that teachers of ELLs can utilize (Casteel & Ballantyne, 2010). For example, the PSTs in BTEW learned how to conduct collaborative write alouds, which provide comprehensible input for ELLs who are engaged in the writing process (Krashen, 1985). In collaborative writing, the teacher verbalizes their thinking as they write a shared class

story, voicing the things they are thinking and doing as they write, pointing out correct sentence structure, grammar, and vocabulary, and encouraging student input (Linares, 2019). Collaborative write alouds enable ELLs to become comfortable with the independent writing process, which can be very intimidating (Linares, 2019).

During this first feedback stage, the PSTs were provided with constructive feedback on their scripts, as this has been found to be an essential component of teacher professional development (Bates & Morgan, 2018). At this stage, PSTs would read the feedback and make any suggested changes before the RSW intervention.

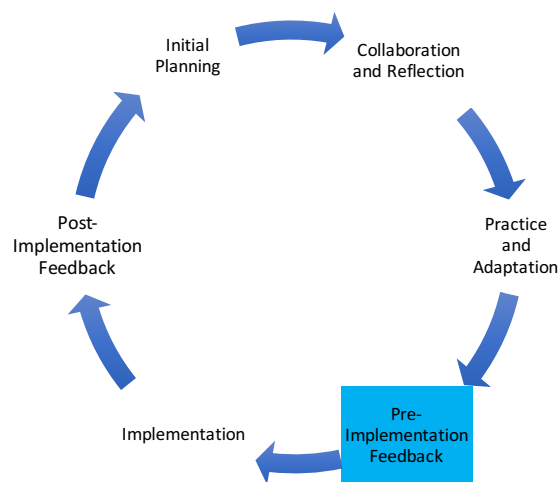


Figure 3.6 Pre-Implementation Feedback Stage of BTEW

3.5.2.2.6. Implementation Stage

Field experiences where PSTs are provided with authentic opportunities to enact instruction are considered a critical component of any teacher preparation program (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Pytash, 2017;

Rodriguez, 2013; Roser et al., 2014) and have been consistently found to be the most significant contributor to the development of teaching efficacy (e.g., Brown et al., 2015; Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011; Pray & Marx, 2010; Putnam, 2012). Thus, it is not an overstatement to say that the *Implementation* stage of BTEW (see Figure 3.7) was the most important for the PSTs. In this stage, the PSTs enacted the planned instruction within the RSW and Enrichment interventions.

BTEW is different from traditional field experiences for many reasons, however the *Implementation* stage is perhaps the most unique. Unlike traditional field experiences in teacher education programs, the PSTs in BTEW were tasked not only with lesson implementation, but with the management of the entire after-school program. Thus, classroom management, student engagement, differentiation, and parent-teacher interactions were all the responsibility of the PSTs, without on-the-spot help from a veteran teacher present in the classroom. While the PSTs in BTEW received extensive support, as evidenced by the BTEW framework, the success of the actual classroom instruction was completely dependent upon their implementation. Therefore, the Implementation stage of BTEW is similar to the role of a beginning teacher, but with highly intensive mentor support. In traditional field experiences, PSTs are placed in classrooms for part or all of the school day with a mentor teacher. The overall responsibility for the classroom and its students rests squarely on the shoulder of the mentor teacher. In such situations, PSTs usually teach a handful of lessons each week, all of which are overseen by the mentor teacher, who is present in the classroom for each lesson and able to step in if anything goes awry. Additionally, in traditional field experiences classroom management has already been established by the mentor teacher,

and is typically maintained by that teacher. While traditional field experiences are widely considered to be among the most important contributors to the development of personal teaching efficacy (Brown et al., 2015; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Lee et al., 2012), the opportunity to enact writing instruction is rarely found in the literature (Moody, 2020). Likewise, there has yet to be a study that has asked PSTs to take on the role of a full-time teacher, where they are solely responsible for all facets of instruction and for establishing their own classroom management.

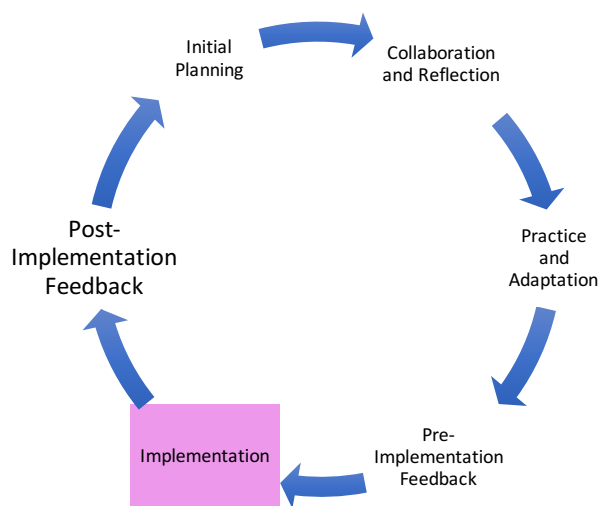


Figure 3.7 Implementation Stage of BTEW

3.5.2.2.7. Post-Implementation Feedback Stage

The importance of feedback for PST development has been emphasized in the literature on teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009) and in professional development research (Bates & Morgan, 2018). Failure to provide feedback can have an adverse effect; the removal of support during student teaching and the first year of teaching

often results in a drop in efficacy (Pendergast et al., 2011; Putnam, 2012; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Bates and Morgan (2018) caution that to be effective, feedback must be grounded in concrete, behavioral evidence. With this in mind, the *Post-Implementation Feedback* stage of the BTEW framework (see Figure 3.8) was when the project manager/mentor watched the video recordings of the weekly lessons, and provided targeted, individualized, and constructive suggestions/feedback to each PST (Bates & Morgan, 2018; McKeown et al., 2018). PSTs were given this feedback in written form, and were expected to make adjustments before the next week’s lesson.

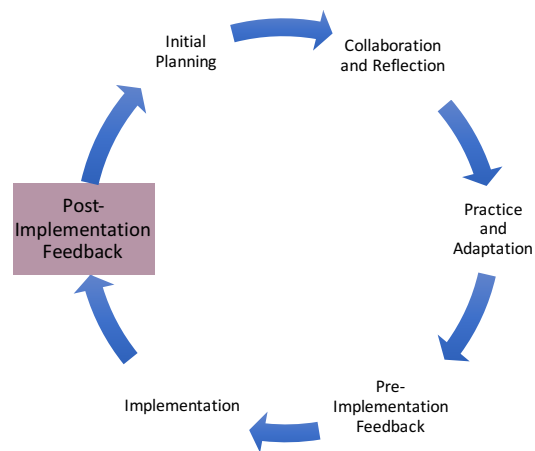


Figure 3.8 Post-Implementation Feedback Stage of BTEW

3.5.2.3. Data Collection

After a synthesis of the literature on PST preparation for ELL writing, a wide variety of qualitative data were selected for use, including: written reflections, researcher observations, and focus group interviews (Pytash, 2012; 2017). Following procedures by Hodges (2015), a qualitative and quantitative survey about PST self-beliefs was collected, and observational data were evaluated using a research-based observation instrument

(Henk, Marinak, Moore, & Mallette, 2003). These diverse data sources provided valuable insights into the development of content and pedagogical efficacy for the PSTs within BTEW, and enabled a triangulation of themes across a variety of sources. An overview of the data collected can be seen in Table 3.5 below, and will be described in more detail in the following sections.

Table 3.5 Summary of Data Collected

	Timepoints	Amount	Type
PT-SWI	Sept. 2018 Dec. 2018 May 2019	3	Quantitative + Qualitative
Open-ended journals	Fall 2018 Spring 2019	10-20	Qualitative
Reflection forms	Fall 2018 Spring 2019	40	Quantitative + Qualitative
Focus group interviews	Sept. 2018 May 2019	2	Qualitative
Recorded observations	Fall 2018 Spring 2019	40	Qualitative

3.5.2.3.1. Preservice Teacher Self-Efficacy for Writing Inventory (PT-SWI)

The PT-SWI is a survey created by Hodges (2015) based on a conglomeration of assessments used to measure self-efficacy for writing (e.g., with a high reliability ($\alpha = .92$)). It is the only survey that assesses PSTs' efficacy for both writing instruction and the act of writing. It also focuses on the effectiveness of teacher education programs for

writing instruction preparation (Hodges, 2015). In the present study, questions on the PT-SWI were slightly modified by the researcher to specifically reference ELLs. For example, the question “*How prepared do you feel to teach writing?*” was changed to “*How prepared do you feel to teach writing to ELLs?*”. These slight modifications were particularly important, because no research to date has examined PST preparation for writing instruction, nor has PST self-efficacy for ELL writing been examined (Moody, 2020).

The PT-SWI was administered three times over the course of the study. The first time was in Fall 2018, prior to the beginning of BTEW, and before any of the participants had experienced being a Lead Teacher. The PT-SWI was also administered at the end of the Fall 2018 semester. The final administration was at the end of the Spring 2019 semester, when all participants had experienced being a Lead/Co-Lead Teacher in at least one participating school. Multiple administrations of surveys are common in research on PST preparation (e.g., Daisey, 2008; Pray & Marx, 2010; Smith, 2011; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015) to gain insight into shifts in knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs.

The purpose of the PT-SWI within the context of the present study was to gain participant background information, including information about prior ELL writing experiences in teacher education programs and perceived effectiveness of such experiences. Additionally, it allowed for an examination of how the participants’ positioning of their personal teaching efficacy changed, or did not change, over the course of BTEW.

3.5.2.3.2. Open-Ended Journals

Prior research has suggested that providing PSTs with the opportunity to engage in written reflections may increase their efficacy for both the act of writing, and for writing instruction (Barnes, 2018; Byrd, 2010; Garcia & O'Donnell-Allen, 2016; Gerla, 2010; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Morgan, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2014). Personal writing activities, like journaling, are believed to help PSTs overcome some of their negative beliefs about writing (Barnes, 2018; Gerla, 2010), as well as increase knowledge of writing pedagogy (Morgan, 2010). In the present study, each participant completed a weekly open-ended journal reflection during Fall 2018 and Spring 2019. There were no specific journal requirements, other than for the participants to reflect on their experiences teaching writing that week, as well as to document any outside event (i.e., coursework, other field experiences) that had influenced or impacted their teaching. The goal of the reflections was for the participants to begin to see themselves as capable teachers of ELL writing, and to ensure that they were cognizant about the pedagogical knowledge that they had accumulated.

3.5.2.3.3. Reflection Forms

While the open-ended journals provided participants with the opportunity to broadly reflect on their teaching experiences, they were also asked to complete a more structured reflection of their daily teaching. These reflection forms (see Appendix A) were completed by the PST participants after each day of the intervention, totaling approximately 40 reflections per participant over the course of the two semesters. Specifically, the reflections asked the following questions:

1. Date of the lesson.

2. Focus of the writing workshop for that day (i.e., “small moments”, “organization”, “revising/editing”, etc.).
3. Specific lesson taught (i.e., “spelling and grammar”, “handwriting/technology”, “vocabulary”, or “writing mini lesson”).
4. Two ratings asking participants to answer: a) how well they believed they taught the lesson, and b) how well they believed the students learned the concept.
5. A brief summary of the lesson.
6. Reflection of what went well, and what did not go well.
7. What could have been changed within the lesson.
8. Any other reflections.

The reflection forms yielded highly specific data and valuable data about the participants’ daily pedagogical practices and challenges, and was primarily used as a source of triangulation for the observational data.

3.5.2.3.4. Focus Group Interviews

Focus group interviews have been used in a number of studies on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Pytash, 2012; 2017) and are generally regarded as a useful way to elicit information from participants who share similar experiences and cooperate well with one another (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In this study, focus groups were used to elicit deep reflection; participants’ memories were inspired by the comments of others (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Two focus group interviews were collected for this study. The first took place at the beginning of Fall 2018, before any participant had experienced the role of Lead Teacher. This focus group lasted approximately 80 minutes, and was audio recorded. All

participants were involved in the focus group interview, and were asked to discuss a series of questions related to: a) prior school-based writing experiences, b) personal feelings about writing, c) any writing or ELL writing preparation they had experienced within their teacher education program, and d) beliefs and feelings about ELL writing instruction. Specific interview questions can be seen in Appendix B. The purpose of this interview data was to collect rich data related to the experiences of the PSTs and to complement and expand upon the data collected in the PT-SWI.

The second focus group was much lengthier (approx. 100 minutes), and took place in Spring 2019, at the end of the semester. This focus group was also audio recorded, and consisted of four out of the five participants; the fifth participant was interviewed on her own at a later date, using the same interview questions. Participants reflected on a variety of questions related to their experience as Lead Teachers in BTEW, including: a) what they believe to be critical elements and methods for ELL writing instruction, b) new realizations about both writing instruction and themselves as teachers, c) beliefs about writing and ELLs, and d) how the BTEW contributed to their professional growth. Data from these interviews were triangulated against open-ended journals and PT-SWI data to examine if and how PSTs personal teaching efficacy shifted over the course of BTEW.

3.5.2.3.5. Recorded Observations

Every RSW and Enrichment lesson across the two semesters of BTEW was video recorded in its entirety. This was essential to understand how the quality of the pedagogical moves used by the PSTs aligned, or did not align, with their personal teaching efficacy. Only three prior studies on PST preparation for writing and ELL instruction (Branscombe & Schneider, 2018; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Pytash, 2017) have included observational data

gathered in an authentic classroom setting. Thus, while research may claim that participation in methods courses or field experiences has a direct impact on the pedagogical moves used by PSTs, this is mostly based on reflection data and not verifiable classroom practices (Moody, 2020). This study is among the first to use observational data to understand how participants' classroom practices changed as a result of participation in a research-based teacher preparation program (BTEW).

3.5.3. Data Analysis

This qualitative research study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. Before participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing, and what do they attribute this to?
2. After participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing?
3. What aspects of the BTEW framework do PSTs attribute to the development of teaching efficacy, if any?
4. How is the PSTs' stated pedagogical efficacy reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves?

All data were analyzed using First and Second Cycle coding methods laid out by Saldaña (2015). To start, interview data were transcribed using Inqscribe (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Exact words were used, and each comment was identified by speaker and time stamped (McKeown et al., 2018). Data from the reflection forms were transferred to Word documents, and data from the PT-SWI were transferred to an Excel sheet. Upon completion, the data were checked for accuracy against the original sources by a separate, trained undergraduate research assistant (Freebody, 2004).

3.5.3.1. Data Analysis of Research Questions One, Two, and Three

Research questions one through three ask: 1) *before participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing, and what do they attribute this to?*; 2) *after participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for writing?*; and 3) *what aspects of the BTEW framework do PSTs attribute to the development of teaching efficacy, if any?* Each question was analyzed using two cycles of qualitative coding procedures outlined by Saldaña (2015). To begin, Rater One (the project manager/mentor) analyzed a randomly selected 20%, or pilot sample, of the journal, interview, and PT-SWI data. In the First Cycle, Structural Coding procedures were used; phrases or terms representing specific research questions were applied to a segment of data, after which similarly coded segments were collected together for more detailed coding and analysis (Saldaña, 2015). Thus, relevant segments of the interview, journal, and PT-SWI reflection data were coded for each participant based on the research question. Segments were not reliant on margined entries or idea units, but could include part or all of a participants' response, guiding questions, probes, and follow ups (Saldaña, 2015). To illustrate, First Cycle coding looked like this:

Using NVivo data analysis software, nodes were labeled as “positive pedagogical efficacy”, “negative pedagogical efficacy”, “positive content efficacy”, and “negative content efficacy”. These nodes are based on the constructs examined in research questions one. These nodes were further split into child nodes for each participant, as it is essential to study individual thoughts and beliefs in case study research. Nodes were identified following the definitions of the constructs of efficacy highlighted in the *Terminology* section:

1. *Pedagogical efficacy* is defined as *when teachers believe that they can successfully plan and deliver a lesson where students are well-behaved and engaged*. Any segments of data in which a participant discusses planning, preparation, student engagement, and classroom management were coded as either “positive” or “negative” based on the analytic memo.
2. *Content efficacy* refers to *a teachers’ belief that they have sufficient knowledge of the material, or content, that they are required to teach*. When a participant discusses prior experiences with writing, their knowledge of the subject of writing, the way they define writing, or the role of writing for content mastery, this was coded as either “positive” or “negative”.
3. It should be noted that many segments were double-coded, as they included both examples of pedagogical efficacy and content efficacy.

The Second Cycle of coding applied Focused Coding techniques to search for the most frequent or significant codes identified during the First Cycle to develop major categories and/or themes (Saldaña, 2015). Specifically, Rater One examined the data coded as “positive pedagogical efficacy” for emergent themes by participant and the group as a whole. Notes about musings, questions, or “ah-ha” moments during the process of Focused Coding were recorded by Rater One as an Analytic Memo (Saldaña, 2015).

After all pilot data were coded, Rater One created an Analytic Memo based on the coding that occurred in both the First and Second Cycles. As explained by Saldaña (2015), “the purpose of an analytic memo is to document and reflect on your coding process and coding choices; how the process of inquiry is taking shape; and the emergent patterns, categories, and subcategories, themes, and concepts in your data- all possibly leading

towards theory,” (p. 32). In this study, the Analytic Memo was developed to provide a rationalization for specific choices made during coding, and as a codebook for other raters to follow in the analysis process. It should be noted that the Analytic Memo created during the pilot coding was only an introductory guide, and was subject to changes by the second rater as coding progressed.

Following the pilot coding, Rater Two (a trained undergraduate research assistant) was provided with the same 20% of the data used in the pilot coding, and engaged in First Cycle coding using the Analytic Memo as a guide. Once complete, coding agreements for the pilot study were calculated. To do so, NVivo nodes were exported into Excel, where the average percentage of agreement was determined to be 97.58%, which meets acceptability standards. Rater One and Rater Two met to discuss the discrepancies, which were then added to the analytic memo. Data were then split into two sections to appropriately identify how the PSTs positioned their efficacy before and after BTEW: a) Before BTEW, which was the time prior to the beginning of the study in Fall 2018, and included the focus group, journal, and PT-SWI data from that time point, and b) After BTEW, which was all PT-SWI, journal, and focus group data collected once the BTEW was complete. Using stratified random selection, Rater One and Rater Two engaged in First Cycle coding of 20% of the data from each of the five sections. Coding agreements were calculated for each section, after which each rater was assigned a random 40% of the remaining data from that section to code independently. Results of the coding agreement for both sections are reported in Table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6 First Cycle Coding Agreement

Section	% of Agreement
Before BTEW	98.20%
After BTEW	97.93%

Throughout the process of First Cycle coding, notes were added to the Analytic Memo by both Rater One and Rater Two. For each section, Rater One coded a random 12.5% of the data initially coded by Rater Two. Rater Two coded a random 12.5% of the data initially coded by Rater One. Coding agreement remained above 98% across all sections. Any discrepancies were discussed by both raters. Upon completion of the First Cycle of coding, both raters met to discuss the Analytic Memo, and to develop salient themes. A codebook was then developed, and themes were entered as nodes in NVivo. Once again, child nodes were created for each participant and for the two time sections (Before BTEW and After BTEW).

Rater One and Rater Two met to discuss and code all Second Cycle data into themes on Nvivo. As with the First Cycle of coding, specific segments of data could be coded into more than one theme if decided upon by both raters. Upon completion of the Second Cycle of coding, themes and representative excerpts from each participant were determined.

3.5.3.2. Data Analysis of Research Question Four

For research question four, *how is the PSTs' stated pedagogical efficacy reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves?*, video observations of each participant from

Fall 2018 and Spring 2019 were analyzed following procedures by Martin and Dismuke (2018), and using the Writing Observational Framework (WOF; Henk et al., 2003).

The WOF is a checklist instrument that allows researchers to examine a classroom lesson for the following features: a) the process of writing the students are engaged in, b) tools used in the lesson, and c) teacher practices, including scaffolding and student engagement techniques (Henk et al., 2003). The checklist includes 24 items related to students, and 36 that focus on teachers' practices (Henk et al., 2003). Each item is coded as *observed*, *commendation*, *recommendation*, and *not applicable*. *Observed* (score = 2) indicates that the component was seen and judged to be satisfactory, whereas *commendation* (score = 3) means that it was seen and judged to be of very high quality. *Recommendation* (score = 1) indicates that it was either not observed when it should have been, or judged to be of poor quality. Finally, *not applicable* (score = 0 and disregarded) indicates that the component was not observed because it would have been unsuitable for the lesson (Henk et al., 2003).

WOF was used to analyze PST instruction on the writing process. WOF focuses specifically on best practices for writing instruction, which align with the Writing Workshop model promoted within BTEW. While WOF focuses on specific stages of the writing process, it also has more general categories of best instructional practices that teachers can and should employ across writing genres and within any stage of the writing process. These categories are *classroom climate*, *skill and strategy instruction*, and *teacher practices*. Only these three sections were used to evaluate the quality of instruction of the PSTs in BTEW, as these factors could be consistently observed across videos, and thus provided a uniform way to investigate changes in their quality of pedagogical moves.

Using stratified random selection, two videos of individual PSTs from Fall 2018 and two videos from Spring 2019 were selected for analysis, equaling a total of four videos each. Within the videos, times in which the target PST was observable and engaged in some type of instruction (e.g., whole class, small group, one-on-one and/or conferencing) were identified, then three segments of approximately three minutes each were randomly selected for analysis. The selected videos and time points can be seen in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7 Lessons Coded with WOF

	Semester	Date	Segments Coded*
Dylan	Fall 2018	October 18	1_28:00-31:00 2_17:00-21:00
		November 27	1_18:00-26:00 3_13:00-16:00
	Spring 2019	April 2	1_04:00-07:00 2_18:00-21:00 3_03:00-06:00
		April 16	1_09:00-12:00 2_13:00-16:00 2_18:00-21:00
	Kathleen	Fall 2018	October 2
November 8			2_13:00-16:00 2_24:00-27:00 3_05:00-08:00
Spring 2019		March 26	1_09:00-13:00 1_17:00-20:00 3_15:00-18:00
		April 2	1_12:00-15:00 2_07:00-12:00 3_03:00-06:00
Laura		Fall 2018	October 2
	November 6		1_00:00-03:00 2_11:00-17:00
Maizie	Fall 2018	November 27	1_28:00-31:00 2_00:00-03:00 3_14:00-17:00
		November 29	1_28:00-31:00 2_02:00-05:00 3_13:00-16:00

Table 3.7 Continued

	Semester	Date	Segments Coded
	Spring 2019	March 19	2_20:00-26:00 3_10:00-13:00
		March 21	2_30:00-33:00 3_03:00-08:00 3_10:00-13:00
Mandy	Fall 2018	October 4	3_03:00-09:00 4_02:00-05:00
		November 29	2_12:00-18:00 3_11:00-14:00
	Spring 2019	January 22	1_18:00-21:00 2_06:00-12:00
		January 31	3_06:00-09:00 3_13:00-16:00 3_22:00-25:00
Sabrina	Fall 2018	October 9	1_26:00-29:00 2_04:00-07:00 3_00:00-03:00
		November 29	1_16:00-22:00 3_17:00-20:00
		January 31	1_05:00-08:00 2_03:00-07:00 2_15:00-18:00
		March 21	2_00:00-03:00 2_23:00-27:00 3_13:00-16:00

Note: Videos for each day were divided in three to four parts, which is indicated by the first number in the segment.

In order to ensure consistency and minimize bias in the coding of the selected observations, three separate raters, Rater Three, Rater Four, and Rater Five were trained in the use of the WOF. Using two randomly selected videos from the first year of the program (videos which are not part of the data set for the present study), the three raters engaged in a practice round of coding. Coding agreement for the practice round was calculated, and 90% was reached for each. All coding discrepancies were discussed between raters, and inconsistency issues were resolved.

After the practice round of coding was completed and coding agreement was established, raters began coding. Each selected video was coded by two raters, who were not aware of when each video was recorded, meaning that they were not aware of either the exact date or the semester in which it was recorded. Raters were directed to watch the identified time segments for each PST, and to focus on the instruction provided only by the target PST. Occasionally the raters faced issues with video quality or framing of the camera; when this happened, raters were instructed to code the missing elements as “n/a” and to include a note detailing the issue on the WOF form.

When coding was complete, coding agreement calculations were completed for the WOF, and 83% agreement was reached. Raters met to discuss and resolve any discrepancies. The average of the three targeted categories (*classroom climate, skill and strategy instruction, and teacher practices*) were calculated, and the average quality of instruction was indicated for each semester (see Table 3.8 for more details). Data were then triangulated against the journal, reflection, PT-SWI, and interview data to provide corroborating evidence (Creswell & Poth, 2018) and to minimize misinterpretation and researcher bias (Stake, 2005).

Table 3.8 WOF Quality of Instruction Indicator

Score	Quality of Instruction
1.00 - 1.49	Very low quality
1.50 - 1.99	Low quality
2.00 - 2.49	Average quality
2.50 - 2.79	High quality
2.80 - 3.00	Very high quality

3.6. Research Question One

3.6.1. Results

Research question one asks: *before participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for ELL writing, and what do they attribute this to?* To examine this thoroughly, it is essential to understand the efficacy positioning of each participant as an individual, and then reflect on the shared experiences that have impacted their teaching efficacy for general and ELL writing instruction.

3.6.1.1. Efficacy Positioning

3.6.1.1.1. Dylan

Dylan started with BTEW in Fall 2018 as a junior interdisciplinary studies (EC-6) major. At that time, Dylan found writing to be a challenging, unenjoyable task, and thus rarely engaged in writing for personal reasons. She expressed a lack of confidence for sharing her own writing with others, and for writing across multiple genres. In her teacher education program Dylan had taken two reading methods courses, but no courses had focused on writing instruction. Thus, she felt only “a little prepared” and “a little

confident” to teach general writing and writing to ELLs. Specifically, Dylan felt somewhat confident in her knowledge of grammatical conventions and spelling, but lacked confidence in her ability to provide effective instruction on voice, clarity, cohesiveness, and quality. She also felt that she would struggle to build writing motivation and self-efficacy for writing, and to assess students’ writing. When asked to list effective pedagogical strategies for writing instruction, Dylan expressed that she had not learned any (Dylan, PT-SWI, September 2018).

3.6.1.1.2. Kathleen

Kathleen began working as an Assistant Teacher in BTEW in Fall 2017, a full year ahead of many of the other participants. At the beginning of the present study, Kathleen was a junior interdisciplinary studies major (EC-6) and was entering her second year of working for BTEW. Unlike Dylan, Kathleen indicated that she enjoys the act of writing, writes for personal reasons on a daily basis, does not find writing to be a challenging task, and is highly confident in her abilities to write across multiple genres and for various audiences. Unsurprisingly, Kathleen has no reservations about sharing her writing with others (Kathleen, PT-SWI, September 2018). In the initial interview, Kathleen expressed that she loves creative writing, grammar, and even writes short stories and poems in her free time (Kathleen, Pre-Interview, 00:07:27.09).

Prior to Fall 2018, Kathleen had taken four courses related to reading instruction, but none focused on writing. Despite this, she felt “very prepared” and “very confident” to teach general and ELL writing, which she attributed to the year she spent working for BTEW as an Assistant Teacher. However, Kathleen strongly disagreed with every statement about the preparation for writing instruction resulting from her teacher

preparation program; thus, while she herself believes in her ability to teach writing based on her prior experiences with BTEW, she vehemently denies any influence of her teacher education program. When asked to identify effective practices for writing instruction, Kathleen lists five practices and states, “I know all of these practices from working for BTEW the past year. I did not learn any of these from my undergraduate classes,” (Kathleen, PT-SWI, September 2018).

3.6.1.1.3. Laura

Much like Kathleen, Laura also worked for BTEW as an Assistant Teacher in Fall 2017. During Fall 2018, Laura was a senior interdisciplinary studies (EC-6) major, preparing for her last semester of undergraduate coursework before full-time clinical teaching. While Laura feels fairly confident in her personal writing abilities, she does not enjoy the act of writing. She expressed trepidation for sharing her writing with peers, and her ability to complete a variety of writing tasks, but feels confident that she can write for multiple purposes. In Fall 2018, Laura had taken four or more reading methods courses, but zero courses focused on writing instruction. Because of this, Laura indicated that she only felt “a little prepared” and “a little confident” for teaching general and ELL writing. Similar to Kathleen, Laura also felt that her teacher education program had not prepared her for many aspects of teaching writing. Specifically, Laura did not feel prepared to provide instruction on voice, clarity, cohesiveness, and quality. She did indicate confidence in her ability to integrate writing across subjects, writing motivation, spelling, and organization. When asked to list effective writing strategies, Laura named five and indicated that she had learned them all through participation in BTEW during the 2017-18 school year (Laura, PT-SWI, September 2019).

3.6.1.1.4. Maizie

Maizie was one of the youngest participants of BTEW during Fall 2018. At the time, she was a sophomore interdisciplinary studies (EC-6) major. Unlike many of the other participants, Maizie had no prior formal experience working in the field with students, as she had not yet begun any of her methods courses. Much like Kathleen, Maizie expressed an enjoyment for personal writing, indicating that she writes on a daily basis, is very confident in her writing abilities, and does not find writing to be a challenging task. She was unfazed by the idea of sharing her writing with others, and writing for multiple purposes. When BTEW began, Maizie had taken zero courses related to either reading or writing, but still expressed that she felt “confident” and “prepared” to teach general and ELL writing. Likewise, Maizie had high confidence in her ability to teach all aspects of writing instruction, including voice, organization, and story structure. However, when asked to list effective practices for teaching writing, Maizie could not come up with any, and wrote that she had no prior instruction on writing pedagogy (Maizie, PT-SWI, September 2018).

3.6.1.1.5. Mandy

Mandy started BTEW as a junior interdisciplinary studies (EC-6) major. While she felt confident in her own writing ability and does not believe writing to be challenging, she also does not feel that writing is an enjoyable task. Mandy felt confident in her ability to write for multiple purposes, and is not intimidated by the thought of sharing her writing with others. Before BTEW began, Mandy had taken three reading courses in her teacher education program, but no writing courses. She had also participated in one study abroad trip to Mexico, where she worked with elementary ELL students at a rural school in

Mexico for three weeks. When asked about her ability to teach general writing, Mandy expressed that she was “not confident” and “not prepared”, however her answers changed when asked about ELL writing; Mandy felt “a little prepared” and “a little confident” to provide ELL writing instruction. Despite this, she still had very low confidence for teaching all aspects of writing, including spelling, grammar, clarity of thought, and cohesiveness. When asked to identify effective pedagogical strategies for writing, Mandy could not list any, and stated “they teach me nothing in my classes” (Mandy, PT-SWI, September 2018).

3.6.1.1.6. Sabrina

Like Maizie, Sabrina began BTEW as a sophomore interdisciplinary studies (EC-6) major, with little prior hands-on classroom experience. Sabrina indicated that she did not feel confident in her personal writing abilities, does not enjoy writing, and is not comfortable sharing her writing with peers. Conversely, she does not find writing to be a particularly challenging task and feels qualified to write across multiple genres. At the beginning of Fall 2018, Sabrina had taken two reading courses, but zero courses on writing. Thus, she indicated that she was “not confident” and “not prepared” to teach general or ELL writing. However, she later cited assessing writing as her area of lowest confidence; Sabrina felt prepared to teach other aspects of writing instruction such as organization, spelling, and editing and revising. Despite this, when asked to identify effective practices for writing instruction, Sabrina wrote “I don’t think I have learned any at this point” (Sabrina, PT-SWI, September 2019).

3.6.1.2. Causes Attributed to Teaching Efficacy

Based on the above profiles, it is evident that before BTEW, the majority of the PSTs in this study had low efficacy for general writing instruction, and ELL writing instruction. Other than Kathleen and Maizie, most do not enjoy writing, lack confidence in their writing abilities, or both. During the initial interview, the PSTs provided some insights about their perceived efficacy, and six major themes were identified: 1) inadequate writing instruction in K-12 schooling and college coursework; 2) positive K-12 and college writing experiences; 3) lack of feedback on writing assignments by instructors/peers; 3) insufficient knowledge about writing pedagogy; 4) positive prior experiences with writing instruction; and 5) insufficient knowledge of second language acquisition. Each of these themes will be discussed further below.

3.6.1.2.1. Inadequate Writing Instruction (K-12 and College)

During the September 2018 interview, most of the PSTs expressed dissatisfaction with their K-12 and college writing instruction that led them to have low efficacy for the act of writing. A chief concern was the heavy focus on formatting and grammar in most K-12 writing assignments, leaving the PSTs to feel as though the content of the writing was unimportant as long as the structure was correct. Kathleen stated,

...the first memory I have of writing is fifth grade, and I remember it was a lot less about the content...I had a VERY strict and methodical fifth grade ELA teacher, so she didn't care about WHAT I was writing, but wanted it to be super structured, in the right format with pretty handwriting (Kathleen, Pre-Interview, 00:01:43.15).

Maizie expressed a similar experience with writing in high school stating,

I remember in high school, it didn't really matter what we were writing as long as we wrote the page limit, because that's how the AP test is. So our paper could be really bad, but if it was long enough they didn't care (Maizie, Pre-Interview, 00:03:19.08).

For both Maizie and Kathleen, their K-12 schooling experiences- such as those in Advanced Placement (AP) courses- led them to believe that writing was primarily about meeting page requirements, or mastering basic grammatical and structural concepts. Sabrina, on the other hand, felt that she simply did not receive enough instruction on writing from her K-12 teachers, leading her to believe that she was behind all of her peers in her knowledge of writing:

...I know I'm not the best at writing, I know growing up I didn't have the right writing teacher...they didn't fully teach me everything. So now, in college, when I do *My Writing Lab*, I realize how much I don't know, and it freaks me out because I don't know certain things that I should know. So, I just feel like I wasn't prepared and I still am not (Sabrina, Pre-Interview, 00:20:51.05).

In this excerpt, Sabrina talks about how she struggles with “My Writing Lab”, a program designed to provide a review of grammatical concepts, because she never received adequate instruction on grammar in her K-12 schooling.

The lack of creativity in K-12 writing assignments was also considered to be problematic by the PSTs in this study. Laura believes that her dislike of writing stems from never having a choice in writing assignments, but instead asking to complete writing assignments that were “...forced...very robotic, they would give you the outline, tell you what to write about,” (Laura, Pre-Interview, 00:00:43.05). Because her K-12 writing

experiences provided her with no creative freedom, Laura began to perceive writing as a tedious and unenjoyable task that ultimately led to her dislike of all writing.

While the university attended by the PSTs does require completion of basic general education English courses, and even designates some teacher education courses as “Writing Intensive”, many of the PSTs still expressed that their college courses were not providing them with the instruction they needed to feel like successful writers. Mandy discussed how professors would often grade assignments not on the quality of writing, but on the basis of whether or not they agreed with the students’ point of view. She explained, “I just know that I had a professor that said *oh, you wrote about the character that I didn't like, so I don't like your paper,*” (Mandy, Pre-Interview, 00:08:25.17). Mandy considered this to be problematic on many levels, but particularly because this type of feedback did not provide any guidance on how to be a better writer.

3.6.1.2.2. Positive K-12 and College Writing Experiences

Unlike most of the other PSTs in this study, Kathleen had several positive experiences with writing in K-12 and college that she believes instilled a high efficacy for personal writing. Specifically, Kathleen talks about her sixth grade teacher, whose passion and enthusiasm for writing was infectious. She said,

...in sixth grade I had an English teacher who gave us journals, and she let us write about whatever we wanted...and that's when I really started loving creative writing. And so today, I still love creative writing, and I do it if I'm going through something and I need to process it, I write about it. So it's very therapeutic and I love it (Kathleen, Pre-Interview, 00:05:42.06).

Kathleen attributes this early positive experience with writing to her continued love of writing, and her daily writing practice. However, Kathleen has also had positive writing experiences in college. She found the required grammar practice, My Writing Lab, to be fun and helpful, and also discussed at length about two college instructors who helped her grow as a writer.

Maizie also expressed that she had positive K-12 writing experiences, except hers were cultivated by her mom, not her school or teachers. She explained, “my mom used to, kind of, enforce it [writing], and now it's just a habit,” (Maizie, Pre-Interview, 00:02:13.29). Maizie attributes her daily writing habit, and her enjoyment of writing, to the emphasis that her mother placed on the subject throughout her childhood.

3.6.1.2.3. Lack of Feedback on Writing Assignments by Instructors/Peers

Out of the four PSTs who had engaged in Writing Intensive coursework (Maizie and Sabrina had not yet reached that point in the program), all four lamented about the lack of feedback provided by their professors on writing assignments. For these PSTs, receiving an “A” grade was less rewarding when it was given indiscriminately, and without opportunities for growth. Kathleen stated,

I've had multiple research papers due at the end of the semester that I've gotten 100's for, and I know there are mistakes in there, and I know they didn't include this part that they asked me to in the rubric because I did it the night before, or I didn't care, so left those parts out... and I got a 100, and I'm like...you definitely didn't read it...you just checked that I turned it in at the end of the semester and you were tired of grading (Kathleen, Pre-Interview, 00:13:03.17).

Kathleen's frustrations over writing assignments were echoed by Laura, who felt that her time and energy was being wasted working on papers that never receive adequate feedback,

...I get really frustrated with any review, like peer or professor...they're like "it's great" ...even I know it's not great, so it's frustrating. I feel like it's a step that...I don't know. Nobody takes serious, so it's not really beneficial to anyone involved, because no peer is going to sit down and actually critique the writing to where you are actually going to get better (Laura, Pre-Interview, 00:21:28.15).

In this excerpt, Laura talks about how frustrating it is to have professors or peers give meaningless feedback on papers for which she was seeking actual advice. To her, this automatic affirmation of her work prevented her from becoming a good writer. Mandy summed this up nicely by saying, "...writing is a completion grade" (Mandy, Pre-Interview, 00:07:39.03). Overall, the PSTs in this study felt that the lack of feedback provided by both professors and peers caused them to view writing as a pointless, easy task that was not to be taken seriously, and to believe that their writing skills had no hope of improvement.

3.6.1.2.4. Insufficient Knowledge of Writing Pedagogy

While much of the PSTs' low content efficacy stemmed from their own experiences as writers, they indicated that their lack of pedagogical efficacy for writing instruction was a result of little to no instruction on writing methods in their teacher education program. When asked in the initial interview about how confident, on a scale of one to five, they would feel teaching writing without the guidance of BTEW, all participants said two or below except Laura and Kathleen, who rated their confidence level

to be at four. Each complained about the lack of instruction on writing pedagogy during their time in their teacher education program. Mandy mentioned that while some courses discussed spelling, handwriting, and/or grammar, none focused on the writing process. She believed that this had begun to affect her field placement experiences, as she was ill-equipped to help the teachers with classroom writing assignments,

...this past week in my junior methods field placement, my teacher was asking me to grade, and it's a first grade class, and she was asking me to grade their writing stations...and they're talking about the writing process right now, and I had no idea how to grade it, or critique it, or anything about what I should do...I had no idea where they should be for that level, what it should look like, what I should look for, so I had to ask her like a million questions. And I had to be completely honest with her that I had never graded or analyzed an elementary writing sample before, and didn't know what to look for (Mandy, Pre-Interview, 00:22:45.13).

For Mandy, the lack of preparation for writing was problematic because it caused her to feel inadequate in front of her mentor teacher.

3.6.1.2.5. Positive Prior Experiences with Writing Instruction

Both Kathleen and Laura indicated that they had relatively high efficacy for writing instruction, which they attributed to both their prior experiences working in BTEW during 2017-18, and field experiences where they were able to witness writing instruction enacted by an expert mentor, and then practice implementing it themselves. Laura stated, “I feel like the most I've learned is through BTEW, actually working with kids who are ELLs, or in my field placement,” (Laura, Pre-Interview, 00:05:11.08). Kathleen discussed how she was able to witness writing instruction in her field placement that corresponded with what

she had witnessed in BTEW, causing her to feel more efficacious about her knowledge of writing strategies.

3.6.1.2.6. Insufficient Knowledge of Second Language Acquisition

When asked specifically about their efficacy for ELL writing instruction, the PSTs believed that their lack of knowledge about second language acquisition prevented them from feeling prepared. While two ESL methods courses are required for their teacher education program, the PSTs expressed disappointment about the content of those classes. The general consensus was that they had received no strategy instruction, only focusing on social justice issues, laws related to ELLs, and theories of language acquisition.

...in all the ESL classes, at least in mine, we just kind of learn theories and laws, and the basic progression of ELLs over the years, but we never really learn.....methods or techniques or strategies of working with them (Laura, Pre-Interview, 00:05:11.08).

In this quote, Laura is expressing her frustration over the lack of practical techniques presented in her methods coursework. Kathleen echoed this, saying that she believed the ESL methods coursework was “all just terminology and acronyms”, but little advice on exactly how to best teach ELLs (Kathleen, Pre-Interview, 00:07:20.20). Additionally, Sabrina felt that the hands-off nature of the coursework was preventing her from any real learning, stating that all instruction comes from a PowerPoint, “...so if one day I'm really tired and I'm dozing off, or I'm not fully there, then I'm not going to learn,” (Sabrina, Pre-Interview, 00:01:38.01).

Many of the PSTs were frustrated not only by the content of their methods courses, but by the associated field experiences, some of which occurred in adult learning centers.

Considering that all six participants in this study are preparing to teach students in the elementary grades, their general feeling was that an adult-focused educational context was not beneficial. Mandy said,

...during my observation...I just sat and watched an adult ESL class, and my teacher didn't let me do anything, I just sat and stared. And adults are so much different than kids, it really wasn't helpful, (Mandy, Pre-Interview, 00:03:07.03).

For the PSTs in this study, the lack of exposure to strategies for ELL instruction combined with almost no knowledge of writing pedagogy and no beneficial field experiences contributed to their low efficacy for ELL writing.

3.6.2. Discussion

Prior to participation in BTEW, most of the PSTs in this study exhibited low efficacy for both content and pedagogy in the areas of writing and ELL writing. Much of their low pedagogical efficacy was attributed to the lack of writing methods courses available at their university, a problem which is all too common in colleges of education in the U.S. (e.g., Morgan & Pytash, 2014; Myers, Sanders, Ikpeze, Yoder, Scales, Tracy, ... & Grisham, 2019). Research has shown that very few PSTs are required to take courses focused solely on the teaching of writing, and none focused on ELL writing (Brenner & McQuirk, 2019), which means they do not understand what effective writing instruction and feedback looks like (Kohnen, Caprino, Crane, & Townsend, 2019) for students of different linguistic proficiency levels. Thus, the experiences of the PSTs in the present study are unfortunately not unique.

The lack of writing methods courses in teacher education programs is in direct contrast to what the literature suggests is important for teacher preparation; research on

professional development and PST preparation has long touted the necessity of direct instruction on both content and pedagogy as critical for creating successful teachers (e.g., Batchelor et al., 2014; Pytash, 2017). Vicarious experiences, in which writing instruction is modeled by a capable mentor, are also considered critical for the development of efficacy (e.g., Moody, 2020; Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Because the PSTs in this study had not received any direct instruction or vicarious experiences on writing, it is no wonder that they lacked efficacy. It is evident, then, that the first step to developing highly efficacious writing teachers is to have at least one course in each PST program that focuses specifically on writing methods and instruction. Likewise, if we hope to develop teachers who are prepared to teach writing to ELLs, methods courses need to include a direct focus on differentiating writing instruction for all learners (Bomer, Land, Rubin, & Van Dike, 2019).

Dylan and Laura began Fall 2018 with a low efficacy for personal writing, and a general dislike for the act of writing. Morgan and Pytash (2014) noted that PSTs often have negative preconceptions of writing based on their prior schooling experiences. In the case of Dylan and Laura, they both attended public schools in a state that heavily emphasizes standardized tests, and only tests on writing in three grade levels (TEA, 2019). This causes many teachers to cast aside writing instruction until the grade levels in which it is tested, at which time the pressure for students to perform is so intense that the process becomes unenjoyable and lacks authenticity (e.g., Grisham & Wosley, 2011). The experiences of Dylan and Laura were echoed by PSTs in other studies, who remember formulaic and unenjoyable writing experiences centered around the acquisition of high standardized test scores (e.g., Jensen, 2019; Kohnen et al., 2019). It is likely that the focus

on ‘writing for the test’ caused Dylan and Laura to develop low efficacy and a dislike for writing. Research shows that writing teachers will transmit their negative beliefs to their students (Langeberg, 2019), so if we hope to break this cycle then teacher education programs must make sure that PSTs understand that writing is a complex and nuanced process that does not revolve around test scores (Kohnen et al., 2019).

Kathleen and Maizie, on the other hand, began Fall 2018 with relatively high efficacy for personal writing, which they directly attributed to positive experiences with writing during K-12. Kathleen’s love of writing was ignited by her sixth grade teacher, who was passionate and enthusiastic about writing, and provided Kathleen with a plethora of opportunities to write creatively. Having a highly passionate writing teacher has been found to be a major contributor to the development of writing efficacy (e.g., Daisey, 2009; Kaufmann, 2009; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Morgan, 2010), as has the opportunity to write creatively (Cutler & Graham, 2008; Drew et al., 2017). On the other hand, Maizie was inspired by her mother, who provided her with many opportunities to both experience success at writing, and to write for personal enjoyment and authentic purposes. This type of mastery experience has long been recognized as the most significant contributor to the development of efficacy (e.g., Bandura & Wessels, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), as has a personal enjoyment of the act of writing. Taken together, it is clear that efficacy for writing is built early, and if teacher educators hope to develop efficacious teachers of writing, then they themselves must be highly efficacious and enthusiastic about writing.

Along the same lines, personal enjoyment of writing may also be related to the development of pedagogical efficacy. Mandy and Sabrina both indicated that they felt

fairly confident in their own writing abilities, but disliked the act of writing, which caused them to feel unprepared to teach ELL writing to students. Dylan and Laura also lacked confidence due to a dislike of writing. However, the exact opposite was true for Kathleen and Maizie; both enjoy the act of writing, and felt confident in their instructional abilities. It is not surprising that Kathleen would feel efficacious, considering that she had a year of experience as an Assistant Teacher before beginning BTEW in Fall 2018. What is more surprising is that Maizie would also feel almost as confident in her ability to teach writing, despite never having participated in BTEW before and being one of the youngest and least experienced PSTs in the group. It is also unexpected that Laura would *still* lack efficacy despite having the same first year experience in BTEW as Kathleen. This suggests that one of the most critical factors for developing highly efficacious teachers of writing might be fostering a love and enjoyment of writing. Many researchers have acknowledged the importance of developing personal writing enjoyment (e.g., Morgan, 2010; Myers et al., 2016), but this is rarely emphasized in K-12 schooling or in college (e.g., Zimmerman et al., 2014). Thus, it may not be enough to simply add a writing methods course to teacher education curriculum; K-12 schooling and teacher education programs must commit to making writing an authentic, enjoyable, and rewarding task (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011).

A final point to note is the lack of writing feedback experienced by the PSTs in the present study, which caused them to dismiss writing assignments as trivial. PST participants in Kohnen et al. (2019) also experienced a lack of feedback from their professors, coupled with inconsistent grades and hidden expectations for assignments. Langeberg (2019) suggests that this is because teacher educators often do not know how to

give purposeful feedback, which causes them to either dismiss the task entirely or approach it without a clear purpose. Once again, these findings emphasize that the only way that this cycle will be broken is by preparing PSTs to be teachers of writing for *all* students.

3.7. Research Question Two

3.7.1. Results

The second research question asked, *after participation in BTEW, how do PSTs position their teaching efficacy for ELL writing?*. This question will be answered using journal, focus group interviews, and PT-SWI data from the end of Spring 2019, after the PSTs had participated in 20 weeks of BTEW.

3.7.1.1. Growth in Content Efficacy

When BTEW began, many of the PSTs believed that they were bad writers, disliked writing, or they felt as though they did not understand the writing process. Afterwards, they discussed how their content knowledge for writing grew through participation in the program, both for ELL instruction and for writing instruction. One common refrain was the realization that teaching writing was about more than conventions such as spelling and grammar. Sabrina stated,

“It's not what you think it is. I think I came in thinking...okay, well when I look at their writing I need to look at their punctuation and their spelling...the basic things, but then you actually read their stuff and you realize...oh, this isn't organized correctly... you have to guide them more in that sense, and I didn't realize that until I started teaching them (Sabrina, Post Interview, 00:12:27.07).

Through BTEW, Sabrina began to understand the steps of the writing process, and why they were important for creating an effective piece of writing. Other PSTs discussed the

elements of the writing process that they became more familiar with, such as small moments, and how this facilitated their ability to be an effective peer editor:

...I think of, like, peer editing people...I don't know how to look at them...Now because I've had to work with kids on it...learning the little things, like small moments and, like, what goes into idea development just makes it a whole new world (Mandy, Post Interview, 01:30:21.15).

For Mandy, learning about the stages of the writing process increased her ability to be an effective peer editor, and to move beyond basic grammatical or spelling conventions.

This growth in content efficacy was also reflected in the PT-SWI data. Most notably, Dylan indicated increased confidence for writing across multiple genres, shifting from feeling “unprepared” before BTEW, to “neutral” at the end of Fall 2018, to finally feeling “prepared” at the end of BTEW in Spring 2019. Dylan also demonstrated a slight shift in confidence in her overall writing abilities, from “neutral” at the first two timepoints to “confident”. The PT-SWI data also showed that Sabrina’s content efficacy increased across several areas, including the ability to self-monitor her own writing, sharing her writing with a variety of audiences, sharing writing with peers, confidence in overall writing abilities, and confidence in writing for multiple genres. The other four PSTs had indicated that they were fairly confident in their personal writing abilities at the beginning of BTEW, and thus maintained the same level of efficacy throughout the program.

3.7.1.2. Growth in Pedagogical Efficacy for Writing Instruction

Through participation in BTEW, the PSTs mentioned a growth in their knowledge of writing pedagogy, which was reflected in how they positioned their preparation to teach writing from the beginning of the program to the end. As can be seen in Figure 3.9, when

asked to rate on a scale of 1-5 how prepared they felt to teach writing, all PSTs gave themselves a four or a five by the end of BTEW, indicating they felt “prepared” or “very prepared” to teach writing.

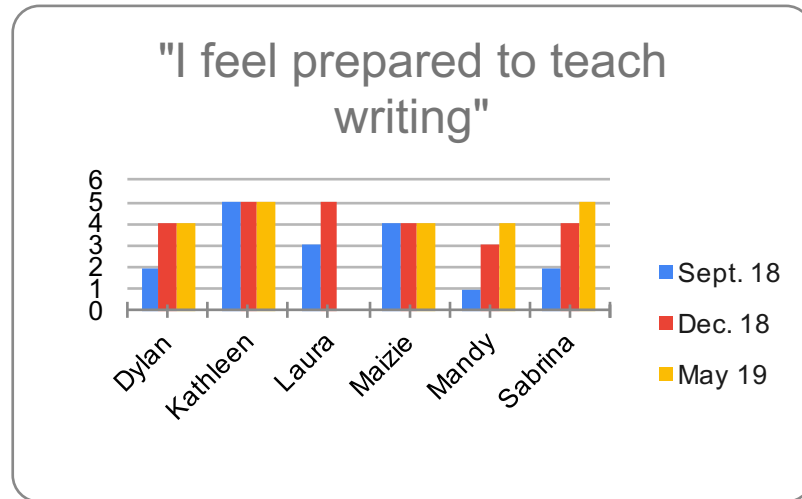


Figure 3.9 Preparation to Teach Writing

Dylan and Kathleen, who were the instructors of the Enrichment group during Spring 2019, felt that their experience providing specific, targeted instruction on narrative writing facilitated their ability to teach other genres of writing, and thus increased their overall pedagogical efficacy for writing. Dylan mentioned how she incorporated narrative writing strategies, such as a story mountain for organization, into her instruction on creative writing, and Kathleen discussed how she relied on the modeling skills that she had cultivated during narrative instruction to teach creative, how-to, and persuasive writing.

In terms of knowledge of writing pedagogy, the PSTs reflected on how valuable they believed instruction on small moments (or the narrowing down of a large topic to a

smaller topic during pre-writing) to be, because “..instead of just having them think of the topic and ramble on and on, just focus specifically. And I think that makes it easier for them too because it's not as stressful,” (Dylan, Post Interview, 00:21:22.15). They believed that knowing how to teach small moments changed their ability to see how the writing process would unfold. Kathleen stated, “Small moments...I feel like that was the core to everything...it helped with clarity of thought, it helped with organization, if they started going off topic or not making sense,” (Kathleen, Post-Interview, 01:20:03.16).

3.7.1.3. Growth in Pedagogical Efficacy for ELL Instruction

Along with an increased efficacy for writing pedagogy, the PSTs also demonstrated a notable increase in their efficacy for ELL instruction from the start of BTEW to the end. Figure 3.10 illustrates their confidence, on a scale of 1-4, for teaching ELL writing at three separate time points (beginning of Fall 2018, end of Fall 2018, end of Spring 2019). By the end of Spring 2019, most PSTs were “confident” (a score of “3”), for teaching ELL writing and Kathleen was “very confident” (a score of “4”).

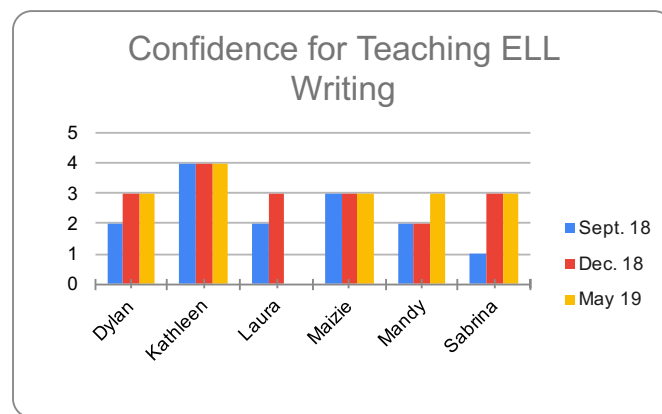


Figure 3.10 Confidence for Teaching ELL Writing

This growth in pedagogical efficacy for ELL writing was also reflected in the interview and journal data from the end of BTEW, Spring 2019. Kathleen discussed how she realized that explicit instruction broken down into digestible chunks is incredibly important when working with ELLs, because “with explicit instruction, I think they feel more capable, and there's just fewer things for them to juggle,” (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:00:45.02). She believed that smaller chunks of instruction allowed the ELLs to become more capable of “tackling a new writing technique” (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:00:45.02). Mandy expanded on her realization about the importance of student-student interactions and recorded feedback for ELLs, because it “exposes them more to working in English and getting more familiar with writing and comfortable when they can just listen to it instead of trying to focus on it all,” (Mandy, Post Interview, 00:03:33.00). Sabrina mentioned that she found the incorporation of the native language (Spanish) into instruction to be incredibly helpful in facilitating the understanding of vocabulary words, because they could “give me examples of the vocabulary words in Spanglish which helped them learn the words since these examples helped other students,” (Sabrina, Journal, April 1).

The PSTs also expressed an overall increase in confidence and enjoyment for working with ELLs through participation in BTEW. Kathleen said,

Now I really enjoy the extra challenge....it's really cool to incorporate their culture into the classroom and see how differentiates them...working with ELLs it really, really forces you to break everything down into digestible parts, and that's good for monolingual students and ELLs, so even if none of us went on to teach ELLs, we're

way better teachers now because we taught ELLs than we would be if we taught English speakers, because we wouldn't have had to be so explicit, and so particular about how we explained everything...I think that's made us all better teachers because it's really, really forced us to examine like, every word that we use (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:30:12.23).

Kathleen expressed an appreciation for the uniqueness of ELLs, and also believed it helped her grow as a teacher for any student. Mandy echoed something similar, saying

In regards to ELLs, my confidence has grown and I didn't even realize it until my field placement this spring semester in a 4th grade bilingual class. I realized I am more confident in being able to implement strategies like turn and talk, and modeling (Mandy, Journal, April 1).

Dylan believed that her efficacy for teaching ELLs rose as well through participation in BTEW, to the point where she "wouldn't be as nervous", and would be aware that teaching ELLs is about more than speaking their native language (Dylan, Post-Interview, 00:10:12.21).

3.7.1.4. Increased Efficacy for General Pedagogy

Journal and interview data from the end of BTEW also highlighted the effect that BTEW had on the PSTs' efficacy for general pedagogy. Thus, participation in BTEW had an impact not only on PSTs' beliefs about their ability to provide writing instruction for ELLs, but also for managing and commanding a classroom. Each PST reflected on this:

...we're capable...we understand the task that is ahead of us. And we understand that it will be really difficult, but we know how to do it and what obstacles are coming

at us, and we have ideas of how to handle it (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:51:31.28).

My confidence in teaching has grown drastically over the past two semesters. While I am nowhere near incredibly confident or perfect I know I am going to survive. Meaning, it's okay if I totally fall on my face and mess up, or if the kids are a little harder to handle behavior wise, or even though I don't know what I'm doing I'll figure it out. In regards to ELLs, my confidence has grown and I didn't even realize it until my field placement this spring semester in a 4th grade bilingual class. I realized I am more confident in being able to implement strategies like turn and talk, and modeling (Mandy, Journal, April 1).

I realize the reason that the activities I planned were not working out and students were looking around the room and not paying attention was because I was not confident enough for them to respect me as a teacher. I now can say that this is not something I struggle with...I am more confident with small, random things such as correcting a students behavior or asking my mentor teacher if I can try a new thing or try teaching the lesson, where last semester I would have never done this. Last semester, in my field experience, I would just stand in the back and gladly help out whenever my mentor teacher asked me to. This semester, I don't wait for my teacher to tell/ask me to do something, I just know what needs to be done or I'll ask if there is anything I can do. (Dylan, Journal, April 2).

I mean, I think I'm definitely more, like, comfortable and confident now, being in front of a classroom isn't intimidating anymore, whereas it was before (Maizie, Post-Interview, 01:10:08.17).

It made me feel so good about myself, like, yes they're learning something from me (Sabrina, Post-Interview, 01:34:26.12).

These reflections illustrate how the PSTs' confidence for general teaching situations, such as being in front of the classroom or correcting student behavior, grew over the course of BTEW.

3.7.1.5. Overcoming Teaching Challenges

Through participation in BTEW, participants faced a number of teaching challenges that they were eventually able to overcome. Dylan discussed that one of her greatest challenges was getting the students to add details into their writing, and how she learned to cultivate this skill in her students through teacher questioning and modeling. Kathleen, Maizie, and Mandy echoed the same challenge, expressing that it was hard to learn how to ask the right questions that would lead to better outcomes. Dylan and Kathleen specifically mentioned a strategy that they came up with, much like the common ESL technique Total Physical Response (TPR), to get students to use more detailed vocabulary in their writing, "whenever we would do our mini lessons, Kathleen and I had them come up and, like, act out different, like, details and stuff, so that was fun. And I feel like they started using them more after that," (Dylan, Post-Interview, 00:13:48.03).

Sabrina mentioned the difficulty she had in motivating students to want to write, and how this is a challenge that she is still learning how to overcome. Mandy also

discussed the challenge of this, but mentioned that she had learned how to boost student motivation during the revising and editing stage,

...I started to notice a difference when I was trying to revise and edit their papers, and they were tired from writing it the first time, they didn't want to do it again. But when I found "oh I really liked how you talked about your grandma, can you tell me more about her", like how to reword how you were revising, like not correcting it but like putting a positive spin on it and asking them to tell you more about it, because then they want to work for you...(Mandy, Post-Interview, 01:23:25.23).

Contrary to the beginning of BTEW, when many PSTs were simply unaware of any writing or ESL pedagogy, by the end they had faced and overcome more sophisticated challenges similar to what they will likely encounter in their future classrooms.

3.7.2. Discussion

Based on the PT-SWI, interview, and journal data, it is evident that participation in BTEW changed how the PSTs positioned their efficacy for writing and ELL instruction from the beginning of the program to the end. All PSTs demonstrated a notable increase in efficacy for these areas, as well as for other areas of pedagogical efficacy like classroom management. Several recent studies have supported the contention that targeted writing interventions will increase efficacy (e.g., Kuehl, 2018), however only 7% of existing studies have had interventions that extended beyond one semester (Moody, 2020). Given that the PT-SWI data shows that several PSTs experienced notable changes in confidence from the end of Fall 2018 to the end of Spring 2019, it is likely that longitudinal field placements focusing on a consistent subject would be beneficial for all PSTs.

When reflecting on their experiences in BTEW, the PSTs felt that they had increased their content knowledge, specifically knowledge of the writing process and different genres of writing. Their increased knowledge of the writing process is not surprising, as the PSTs in this study had received minimal writing process instruction prior to BTEW- something not uncommon in teacher education programs (e.g., Dilidüzgün, 2013). Receiving this instruction during the *Initial* stage of BTEW as well as throughout the *Feedback* stages allowed the PSTs to become more appreciative of the steps of writing, and understand what being a good writer means (Batchelor et al., 2014). It is also likely that having the opportunity to plan and enact the lesson plans during the *Implementation* stage was critical for the development of content efficacy, as this has been identified as a significant contributor to efficacy in previous research (e.g., Brown et al., 2015).

Something interesting to note about the PST's increase in content knowledge is their efficacy for instruction on all genres of writing, and not just narrative writing. Dylan and Kathleen in particular had no issue with teaching multiple genres to the Enrichment group students in Spring 2019, and did not indicate that they experienced any challenges in this area. At the conclusion of BTEW, all PSTs believed that they would be capable of teaching any genre of writing. Most literature on PST preparation for writing suggests that PSTs need direct and explicit instruction on each specific genre before they will be comfortable enough to teach it (e.g., Zimmerman et al., 2014). The findings of the present study contradict this, and suggest that perhaps exposure to the writing process within any genre, as well as practice implementing it in the field, may be enough to build efficacy. This is a salient finding for teacher educators, as it implies that a focus on teaching the writing process is more important than a focus on genres, and that PSTs should be given

opportunities to enact writing process instruction regardless of the genre it is situated within.

PT-SWI data showed that Dylan and Sabrina increased their efficacy for various aspects of personal writing, such as writing across genres and sharing their writing with others. This is interesting, as both Dylan and Sabrina indicated that their teacher education program still had not provided them with any instruction on writing by the end of Spring 2019. Thus, we can postulate that their growth in personal writing efficacy is due to participation in BTEW. Most literature on preparation for writing highlights the necessity for PSTs to engage in personal writing over multiple genres to build efficacy (e.g., Morgan & Pytash, 2014). While the framework of BTEW did not include a specific focus on developing the personal writing abilities of the PST participants, it is possible that the targeted training in the writing process that they received through BTEW, as well as the opportunity to teach and evaluate student writing, impacted how they perceived their personal writing capabilities. This has important implications for Writing Intensive coursework, which is required by many universities; Hodges (2015) studied the impact of Writing Intensive courses on the efficacy of PSTs, and found that no significant differences in self-efficacy for personal writing was noted between participants in Writing Intensive coursework and those in general education classes. However, results of the present study show that PSTs' self-efficacy for personal writing was increased based on participation in BTEW. This indicates that teacher education programs may benefit from implementing writing methods courses with field experiences, in lieu of Writing Intensive courses; such experiences would facilitate PSTs knowledge about, and exposure to, how to teach writing, as well as increase their efficacy for personal writing.

Along with a change in content efficacy, the PSTs in the present study also noted a growth in pedagogical efficacy. Specifically, PSTs felt substantially more efficacious for ELL writing instruction at the end of BTEW than at the beginning. This is not entirely surprising, considering that the framework of BTEW was designed around recommendations from prior literature that suggested instruction on the writing process (Batchelor et al., 2014; Dilidüzgün, 2013; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Moore & Seeger, 2009), practice providing feedback on student writing (Ballock et al., 2018; Dempsey et al., 2009; Barnes & Chandler, 2019; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Hall, 2016; Kuehl, 2019; Langeberg, 2019; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Pytash, 2012), field experiences with writing (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Myers et al., 2019; Pytash, 2017; Roser et al., 2014), interactive field experiences with ELLs (Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011; Rodriguez, 2013; Pray & Marx, 2010), and specific instruction on ESL methods are essential for all teachers (Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Smith, 2011; Uzum et al., 2014) and would result in increased pedagogical efficacy for ELL writing. Thus, the results from the present study affirm that teacher education programs must provide such opportunities for their PSTs if they hope to develop efficacious teachers of ELL writing. It is important to note, however, that only Kathleen expressed full confidence in her ability to teach ELLs at the end of Spring 2019. This suggests that efficacy develops over time, and may require more than one semester of field work, as is typical in most teacher education programs.

While the intention of the present study was specifically to prepare the PST participants for ELL writing instruction, it is not unexpected that their teaching efficacy for other subjects would have increased. Field experiences have been repeatedly noted as the most significant contributor to efficacy development (e.g., Lee et al., 2012), indicating that

(when done well) they are the most salient aspect of any teacher education program. The sad reality, however, is that most field experiences fail to prepare PSTs for the reality of their own classrooms (McGlynn-Stewart, 2015). This is likely because most are motivated by the needs of the school, and not the needs of the PSTs. BTEW might be one of the most unique teacher preparation models in that it provides a structured, and highly mentored practice experience for PSTs, where PST goals aligned with the goals for the instruction (e.g., Villegas, SaizdeLaMora, Martin, & Mills, 2018). Perhaps teacher education programs should try to provide PSTs with more such experiences (after-school programs, summer reading and writing clinics, lab schools) that are closely monitored by university faculty. Such experiences would ensure consistency between what is being taught in the teacher preparation program, and how it is enacted.

Another reason for the increase in overall efficacy may be due to the sustained duration of the BTEW program, something that is unique from other studies on PST preparation for writing (e.g., Moody, 2020). For example, at the end of Fall 2018, none of the PSTs had yet to report an efficacy for instruction of higher than four (which was only reported by Kathleen, who had participated in BTEW prior to the present study).

Longitudinal programs have been recommended by teacher preparation research as a significant way to increase instructional efficacy (Bates & Morgan, 2018), however this opportunity is seldom presented. For example, most university clinical teaching placements are only one semester long, which may not be enough to substantially increase efficacy. It may behoove teacher education programs to increase the length of their required clinical teaching placements to one full year, so that PSTs have adequate time to develop personal teaching efficacy.

3.8. Research Question Three

3.8.1. Results

The third research question asks, *what aspects of the BTEW framework do PSTs attribute to the development of teaching efficacy, if any?*. To answer this question, journal, post-interview, and PT-SWI data were synthesized, and eight elements were identified: 1) the opportunity to establish their own classroom; 2) instruction on the writing process and pedagogy; 3) active teaching; 4) mentor feedback and videos; 5) mentor modeling; 6) multiple opportunities to teach the same lesson; 7) collaboration with co-teachers; and 8) hands-on practice scaffolding instruction for ELLs. Each will be discussed further below.

3.8.1.1. The Opportunity to Establish Their Own Classroom

While most (if not all) teacher education programs require that PSTs complete a semester or more of clinical/student teaching, almost no program is designed to allow PSTs to establish their own classroom procedures or management- this is done by the mentor teacher. This means that in most traditional clinical/student teaching experiences, classroom management is heavily scaffolded by the mentor teacher. BTEW is unique in that all the moment-by-moment classroom decisions about the management of the classroom, materials, lesson, and students lay squarely on the shoulders of the PSTs. Perhaps unsurprising is the fact that the “opportunity to establish their own classroom” was so heavily cited as the most influential aspect of BTEW. The PSTs believed that this element of the program facilitated their ability to be successful in their other field placements (those required by the university), and was the reason they received such high praise from their mentor teachers. Kathleen discussed her ability to immediately get the attention of the students in her field placement,

Yeah, my mentor teacher was like... ‘the biggest thing is you know how to command the room. Without even me having to tell you before you even taught a lesson you made them get to a level zero, get quiet, and look at you’, and other other senior methods students would be like ‘okay well so today’, and just kind of start talking over them, and she was like, she just knew immediately that I had some experience in teaching a whole class because of the way I was just able to grab their attention (Kathleen, Post-Interview, 01:08:26.15).

Dylan and Maizie reflected on how taking responsibility for their own classrooms increased their confidence to take charge, and Sabrina believed that it raised her awareness about the importance of classroom management, “...which is something we never talk about in education classes,” (Sabrina, Journal, April 1).

3.8.1.2. Instruction on the Writing Process and Pedagogy

The second most influential aspect of BTEW, as identified by the PSTs, was the explicit instruction they received on the writing process, as well as pedagogy. They believed that before BTEW, they had “no idea how to teaching writing to children,” (Maizie, Journal, April 30), but after learning about the process and having the opportunity to go through it themselves, they “feel more prepared to teaching writing. While not every class I teach will be a 2nd grade class full of struggling writers, I have the tools, strategies, and familiarity with teaching students how to write,” (Mandy, Journal, April 1). They also discussed how BTEW had changed the way they approached peer editing in their teacher education program.

3.8.1.3. Active Teaching

Also noted as important to the development of efficacy was the opportunity to actively teach writing to ELLs. Several of the PSTs pointed out that BTEW allowed them to experience how to teach writing in a way that regular observation hours and student teaching never would have. Dylan mentioned that she never would have had the opportunity to plan and teach a writing lesson because “...I wouldn't have been exposed to it, because in our classes we don't learn anything. So the only way that I've learned it is through BTEW and just experiencing it for myself,” (Dylan, Post Interview, 00:05:52.23). Maizie echoed a similar sentiment, saying that in most of her observation hours she was “stuck in the back of the classroom”, which did not make her feel successful in the way that interacting with students did (Maizie, Post Interview, 01:35:50.10). Laura felt as though the active teaching helped her understand how to structure her classroom, and what classroom management looks like:

That was my number one worry going into teaching but now I feel way more prepared than all of my other peers in senior methods. That is one thing that you cannot really learn just from reading, so I am extremely thankful that I have gotten to watch and now implement management so as a first year teacher, I will not completely go in blind,” (Laura, Journal, October 17).

3.8.1.4. Mentor Feedback and Videos

Another important component of the BTEW framework was the feedback that the PSTs received through each phase of the cycle from the project manager/mentor. Several PSTs mentioned how helpful it was to receive immediate and personalized feedback after

teaching a lesson, and to be able to look back at the video recordings to connect the feedback to their actions.

...as far as the curriculum, I think just from doing it once and then getting your [mentor] feedback and then just seeing what worked for me or what didn't work, and just like changing it, so the second time around I definitely felt more comfortable (Dylan, Post Interview, 00:14:55.03).

it was really helpful that we had recordings, we had immediate feedback on...and like the next week, I was like 'okay, last week I gave myself 15 minutes, I need to give myself 9', or whatever it was, it was really beneficial...to have that criticism right away. And that was very specific to each of us (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:58:01.06).

The comments we received from Stephanie [mentor] have helped me since I know what I need to fix and continue to do (Sabrina, Journal, October 4).

Like if I was alone and with them all day every year and that was my first year teaching, I'd be like "I'm out of here, I'm not cut out for this"...And if we didn't have you being like "okay try this now, try this now", we would've had no idea what to do (Kathleen, Post Interview, 00:23:19.29).

3.8.1.5. Mentor Modeling

The PSTs in BTEW also mentioned how helpful it was for them to see a lesson modeled, either by watching videos of the project manager/mentor providing instruction on writing, or through watching their fellow co-teachers enact a writing lesson. Through mentor modeling, the PSTs believed that they learned strategies for engaging students,

asking questions, explaining complex tasks, creating an example class story for the writing mini-lesson, and incorporating student ideas into class stories. Mandy also mentioned observing Laura during the main lesson, and noting how she effortlessly managed the class and skillfully executed each lesson, which helped Mandy to plan how she would structure her lessons.

3.8.1.6. Multiple Opportunities to Teach the Same Lesson

Dylan, Maizie, and Mandy specifically mentioned that having the opportunity to teach the same lesson multiple times was incredibly beneficial for their development as teachers of writing. This type of experience is somewhat unique to BTEW, in that the participants were able to provide instruction on the same aspect of the writing process two to four times over the course of the two semesters. They mentioned that teaching the lesson once, receiving feedback, and then teaching it again later enabled them to see “what worked for me or what didn’t work, and just like changing it, so the second time around I definitely felt more comfortable,” (Dylan, Post Interview, 00:14:55.03). Mandy echoed this, saying

Being able to teach the same thing multiple times was super helpful for me...stuff that's, like, specific to the lesson content, like you don't get to practice again a lot of times, so being able to go back and apply those changes and see the difference is, like, super helpful (Mandy, Post Interview, 00:59:06.29).

Also identified as helpful was the practice that the PSTs gained during centers instruction, in which they were able to teach the same concept three times. By the final round, most PSTs believed that they had become experts in teaching that concept.

3.8.1.7. Collaboration with Co-Teachers

As in more traditional student teaching experiences, the PSTs in this study had the opportunity to collaborate on lessons and spur-of-the-moment classroom decisions with other teachers. The difference is that in BTEW, the PSTs were collaborating with PSTs who had roughly the same teaching experience and pedagogical background knowledge as they did, as opposed to highly-knowledgeable veteran teachers. Instead of being a detriment, several of the PSTs found this to be incredibly helpful for their efficacy development. This was partially attributed to the benefits of mutually shared experiences, or someone else who could relate to the student issues, and affirm their wonderings. Mandy also mentioned how useful it was to be able to collaborate with Laura on lesson plan development, and Maizie felt that her co-teachers were indispensable when it came to classroom management, “It is hard to watch classroom management while teaching the whole group. I am so nervous about my content that having a support system from the other teachers is really helpful,” (Maize, Reflection, October 11).

3.8.1.8. Hands-On Practice with ELLs

Working directly with ELLs and having to scaffold instruction was also noted by the PSTs as incredibly important for their efficacy development. For Dylan, this allowed her to overcome her fear of teaching ELLs, and become confident in her ability to provide comprehensible and beneficial instruction. Maizie believes that her experiences in BTEW made her coursework more relevant, saying “I am just now taking ESL Methods I, and already have a strong grasp on everything we have talked about in the class thus far because of BTEW,” (Maizie, Journal, April 1). Likewise, Mandy felt that her practice with

ELLs in BTEW allowed her to be more successful in her senior methods field placement, where she was assigned to work in a fourth grade bilingual class:

Without BTEW, I would have literally fallen on my face in senior methods so many more times than I actually did, because for some reason I got placed in a bilingual class which terrified me at first, honestly, because that's not my certification, and all the kids like, yeah they spoke a lot of English, but it's a different culture in the room than having a mix of ELLs and monolingual students, just like the whole bilingual essence in the room, it's hard to explain, it's just totally different. So if I had never worked with ELLs before I would've been just like "I don't know what I'm doing", but I could take some strategies from BTEW like scaffolding, and stopping over certain words, and checking for understanding, and going back, and just different things, strategies, that I'd already had to use. Because if I hadn't, I wouldn't have known what to do," (Mandy, Post Interview, 01:06:47.24).

For Dylan, Laura, Maizie, and Mandy, the opportunity to work with ELLs provided them with the foundation that they needed to be successful teachers moving forward.

3.8.2. Discussion

There are many elements of BTEW that were identified as beneficial for the PSTs in this study, some of which are common in standard teacher education programs, and some that are unique to the BTEW program. For example, most teacher education programs have clinical/ student teaching experiences that provide PSTs with the opportunity to actively teach lessons over a variety of subjects. Likewise, many programs have an ESL field component, where PSTs are asked to employ second language

acquisition strategies. Field experiences where PSTs can both engage in mastery (active teaching) and vicarious experiences (witnessing successful teaching by a mentor) have long been considered critical for the development of teaching efficacy (e.g., Brown et al., 2015; Fry & Griffin, 2010). Active teaching with ELLs has also been identified as essential for not only building teaching efficacy, but for reducing fears about working with language learners (e.g., Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Villegas et al., 2018). Thus, it will come as no surprise that the PSTs in this study found the opportunity to actively teach and interact with ELLs to be a substantial contributor to their efficacy development. Indeed, the Implementation Stage of the BTEW program was certainly the foundation of the program, and teacher education programs must continue to provide such experiences for their PSTs. It should be noted that part of the reason that the Implementation Stage was so important to the PSTs in the present study is that they were responsible for teaching a lesson every single day to “their own” group of students; for field experiences to impact efficacy for ELL writing instruction, purposeful opportunities to teach and build relationships with ELL students must be present (e.g., Villegas et al., 2018).

Embedded within the *Implementation* stage was the opportunity for the PSTs to establish their own classrooms, through which they established autonomy and their own teaching identities. This is unique to BTEW, as in traditional field experiences the responsibility for the classroom usually lies on the shoulders of the mentor teachers, so PSTs are never quite able to establish their own identities. Perhaps this is the reason why most new teachers struggle with things like classroom management, parent-teacher communication, dealing with students with difficult behaviors, and modifications for language learners (e.g., Gourneau, 2014). Teacher education programs should attempt to

place PSTs in situations where they have the opportunity to establish autonomy over a classroom context, as this is how efficacy will truly develop (e.g., Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; McKeown et al., 2018). In fact, PSTs will only develop into “real” teachers when they are provided with the opportunity to enact teacher-duties, like lesson planning, classroom management, differentiation, and instruction (Langeberg, 2019). Engaging with families and dealing with difficult student behavior is part of the everyday life of teachers, and should be a required part of the clinical/student teaching experience.

Content instruction was also identified as an essential component of BTEW. Content instruction on the writing process and stages of second language acquisition was presented during the *Program Introduction* stage, and was woven throughout the rest of the program as needed. While a focus on content has long been recognized as essential in teacher education programs (e.g., Bates & Morgan, 2018), very few programs ever focus on the writing process or stages of ELL writing (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Given that the PSTs in the present study strongly disliked writing and (for the most part) could not identify a time when they had received effective writing instruction, it is no surprise that they found the specific focus on content in BTEW to be useful. Most salient, perhaps, was the explicit instruction on the stages of language acquisition and how they manifest within student writing, as these are notably different for ELLs than for native English speakers (e.g., Newman et al., 2010). Teacher education programs should consider the implementation of methods courses specifically focused on writing content and pedagogy, with ESL writing embedded within. Such knowledge is essential if teacher education programs hope to develop teachers who understand the challenges that second language

writers face, and are prepared to teach them (e.g., Moody, 2020; Morgan & Pytash, 2014; Villegas et al., 2018).

The mentor-PST relationship was a substantial contributor to the development of efficacy in the PSTs in this study. Specifically, they noted the individualized feedback that they received throughout all stages of the BTEW framework, which has also been found to be a critical part of professional development for ELL in-service teachers (Bohon et al., 2017). The following characteristics of the feedback were noted by the PSTs: a) feedback throughout every stage of the process, including lesson planning and implementation, b) feedback given by one consistent mentor teacher throughout every stage, and c) feedback given over multiple attempts at the same lesson. Teacher education programs can use this information to guide how they attempt to provide feedback to their PSTs, and how they prepare mentor teachers to work with PSTs in the field. Perhaps most importantly is the consistency of who is providing the feedback, as lesson plans should be reviewed by the same person who will be observing their implementation in an authentic setting (e.g., Myers et al., 2019).

Another important aspect of the mentor-PST relationship was the mentor modeling. The opportunity to witness a successful lesson was noted as incredibly helpful by the PSTs in this present study, even if the mentor was simply another peer. This aligns with the research on vicarious experiences, which says that the opportunity to witness the successful execution of a lesson by someone who is characteristically similar is a significant contributor to efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Such opportunities “give(s) teachers a clear picture of what they are working to achieve in their classrooms,” (Bates & Morgan, 2018, p. 624), particularly when attempting a new

pedagogical strategy. While field experiences are supposed to provide such opportunities, it is not guaranteed that all PSTs will be able to both witness and implement the exact same lesson. This is particularly true for writing, as PSTs typically either fail to see any examples of writing instruction, or see disjointed writing lessons (e.g., Branscombe & Schneider, 2018; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). This suggests that teacher education programs should attempt to place PSTs in classrooms where they are able to both witness and teach the same lesson, such as with a teacher who is departmentalized and teaches the same subject two or three times a day. Departmentalization is becoming increasingly more prevalent in elementary schools across the U.S., and may present a critical opportunity for PSTs to get the needed vicarious and mastery experiences. Placement in departmentalized programs might also provide the PSTs with the opportunity to establish some autonomy if they are allowed to take over primary responsibility of one of the daily classes.

Along the same lines, one of the most unique aspects of the BTEW program were the multiple opportunities for the PSTs to teach the same lesson, and try out new techniques and approaches after they did not work the first time. The PSTs identified this as a critical part of their efficacy development, and is likely a large reason why their efficacy increased so substantially from Fall 2018 to Spring 2019. Unfortunately, most PSTs do not get the opportunity to experiment and reflect on which methods work before they begin their first year of teaching (e.g., Johnson & Dabney, 2018). Once again, placing PSTs with departmentalized teachers may allow them to experience this. Teacher education programs should also think about how they place PSTs in the early field placements, before full-time clinical/student teaching. Typically, PSTs stay in one

classroom for an entire semester, but perhaps they should rotate through several classrooms in the same grade level, and be asked to teach the same lesson multiple times.

A final area of the BTEW framework identified as contributing to efficacy development was the opportunity to collaborate with the other PST co-teachers. Most studies on collaboration have focused on the mentor-student relationship (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011) or team teaching between in-service teacher colleagues (e.g., DelliCarpini, 2011). Few have sought to examine how team teaching between PSTs might contribute to their teaching growth and efficacy. Likewise, most PSTs are assigned to field placements alone, thus only experience the classroom through their own eyes and that of their mentor teachers. Teacher education programs may want to consider how placing PSTs together in the field would help their efficacy development. Likewise, team teaching may introduce PSTs to the reality of the classroom, where they will have to collaborate with coaches, special education inclusion teachers, ESL teachers, and other specialists. In-service teachers are so accustomed to their individual contexts that they seldom take advantage of all the opportunities for collaboration available to them (Tilley-Lubbs & Kreye, 2013), despite the fact that more and more schools are requiring team-teaching and collaborating in elementary school (e.g., Kuehl, 2018). Asking PSTs to team teach before they begin their careers may diminish the current isolationist culture that exists in the teaching profession today, and better prepare them for the expectations of collaboration moving forward.

3.9. Research Question Four

3.9.1. Results

Research question four asks, *how is the PSTs' stated pedagogical efficacy reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves?* Based on the interview, PT-SWI, and journal data from the end of BTEW, the PSTs had increased their efficacy for teaching writing, working with ELLs, and for general teaching pedagogy. Research question four seeks to understand if the PSTs' reported efficacy was reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves throughout the program. To determine this, video recordings of their classroom instruction were analyzed to determine the quality of pedagogical moves used by PSTs in Fall 2018 and Spring 2019. Data from the analyzed video recordings showed that overall, the quality of the pedagogical moves used by the PSTs was higher in Spring 2019 than in Fall 2018. Table 3.9 shows the average of their scores for each semester.

Table 3.9 Quality of Pedagogical Moves

	Semester	Average	Explanation
Dylan	Fall 2018	2.38	Average quality
	Spring 2019	2.97	Very high quality
Kathleen	Fall 2018	2.63	High quality
	Spring 2019	2.89	Very high quality
Laura	Fall 2018_1	2.53	High quality
	Fall 2018_2	2.80	Very high quality
Maizie	Fall 2018	1.74	Low quality
	Spring 2019	2.48	Average quality
Mandy	Fall 2018	2.41	Average quality
	Spring 2019	2.70	High quality
Sabrina	Fall 2018	2.08	Average quality
	Spring 2019	2.92	Very high quality

From this data, it is evident that Dylan, Maizie, and Sabrina made the most substantial gains in the quality of their pedagogical moves, however all PSTs demonstrated an increase. These findings suggest that as the PSTs' reported teaching efficacy for providing effective ELL writing instruction increased, so did the quality of their pedagogical moves (as seen in Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 Quality of Pedagogical Moves and Self-Reported Efficacy

	PTSWI	Pedagogical Moves	PTSWI	Pedagogical Moves
	September 2018	Fall 2018	May 2019	Spring 2019
Dylan	2	2.38	4	2.97
Kathleen	5	2.63	5	2.89
Laura	3	2.53	5*	2.80*
Maizie	4	1.74	4	2.48
Mandy	1	2.41	4	2.70
Sabrina	2	2.08	5	2.92

**Note:* Laura’s PT-SWI scores are from December 2019 and her pedagogical moves are from two timepoints in Fall 2018.

3.9.1.1. Dylan

During Fall 2018, the quality of Dylan’s pedagogical moves was rated as 2.38 (average quality), whereas it was rated as a 2.97 (very high quality) in Spring 2019. Dylan’s greatest areas of growth were in providing clear explanations of the writing skill and her ability to effectively model the writing process. This corresponds with Dylan’s perceptions of her teaching throughout BTEW. For example, in Fall 2018 Dylan expressed that she was not confident in her ability to teach her center’s lesson until she had done it several times. She stated,

I remember that since we had 3 different rotations, the first one was usually kind of rough, the second one was like eh, and the third one I was like “okay I know what I’m doing”, so... I remember um...telling Kathleen to put the camera on me for the

third time because I felt good at the last...I figured out the first time I would explain it and it would take too long, so I would just take some stuff out because it was pointless, and by the third time I felt like we had more time to do the activity...(Dylan, Post Interview, 00:17:40.04).

In this excerpt, Dylan discusses how it took her several rounds of instruction to finally provide strong instruction with clear explanations and enough time for guided and independent practice. However, when speaking about Spring 2019, Dylan discussed how she could quickly make needed adjustments within her lessons based on her increased knowledge of effective writing and ESL pedagogy:

...a lot of times we would start up our lessons thinking that we would do it one way, and then as we're going on we'd be like, "let's do this instead"... Where they're looking at us like...remember what we talked about last week...so instead of starting out writing now, we're going to review again, (Dylan, Post Interview, 00:29:14.22).

Dylan explains how she and her co-teacher, Kathleen, would make quick modifications to each lesson in order to sufficiently model and explain the writing skill or activity to the students. These quotes demonstrate that Dylan recognized that she initially struggled to provide high quality instruction, but later became more proficient at modifying her lessons to meet the needs of her students. It should be noted that Dylan's beliefs about her preparation for writing instruction and her efficacy for teaching ELL writing, as measured by the PT-SWI, remained the same from the end of Fall 2018 to the end of Spring 2019.

3.9.1.2. Kathleen

Likely due to her prior experiences in BTEW during 2017-2018, Kathleen's quality of instruction was judged to be of high quality throughout the program. In Fall 2018,

Kathleen averaged 2.63, indicating that her instruction was of high quality. This increased to 2.9 (very high quality) in Spring 2019. The pedagogical moves in which Kathleen showed the most improvement were providing students multiple opportunities to practice the writing skill, effective pacing of instruction, and designing lessons that were sensitive to students' diverse needs.

Kathleen's improvement in the quality of her instructional pacing matches her own perceptions of herself during this time. For example, in Fall 2018 Kathleen routinely reflected on how her long-winded explanations left little time for students to work independently, "As usual, my introductions are so long. I spend too much time reviewing what we learned last time instead of jumping into the new lesson," (Kathleen, Journal, October 23), and "I spent a good chunk of time re-explaining that to them and losing some of their attention before I even introduced the new material," (Kathleen, Journal, October 25). However, by the end of BTEW Kathleen discussed how she had learned to present smaller chunks of information to make her lessons more digestible and effective for the ELLs in her class. Thus, it is evident that Kathleen was aware of the instructional challenges she was facing, and took steps to overcome it, as reflected in the video data. Despite these issues, PT-SWI data show that Kathleen remained highly efficacious throughout the entirety of BTEW.

In the final focus group, Kathleen mentioned how much she had learned about working with ELLs, specifically about how to incorporate their culture and differentiate instruction. The video data reflects her stated improvements, showing that she was more proficient in designing lessons that were sensitive to the diverse needs of ELLs in Spring 2019 than she was in Fall 2018.

3.9.1.3. Laura

Like Kathleen, Laura worked as an Assistant Teacher for BTEW in 2017-2018, which is perhaps why her use of pedagogical moves was judged to be of high quality right from the beginning. However, Laura only worked as a Lead Teacher for BTEW during Fall 2018, so unlike the other PSTs in the present study, the analysis of her pedagogical moves comes from two time-points within the same semester. During her first observed lesson, Laura received a score of 2.53 (high quality), and for the second her score was 2.8 (very high quality). While not quite as high as Kathleen, Laura still showed tremendous growth in the quality of her pedagogical moves, especially considering that she was judged on just one semester of teaching. Her areas of greatest improvement were in providing a clear explanation of the writing skill or strategy, treating the stages of writing as nonlinear and recursive, effective pacing of instruction, and designing lessons that were sensitive to students' diverse needs.

In her initial reflections during Fall 2018, Laura lamented her poor modeling abilities, and worried about her ability to effectively teach writing to ELLs. She stated, "I also want to work on my modeling skills because I still feel I am not getting 100% of the class to understand the expectations completely," (Laura, Journal, November 14). A few weeks later she reflected,

I see that the more specific and direct you are with your modeling, the better. Even if you think the students should know how to do something, they probably don't and you have to explicitly walk them through each step (Laura, Journal, November 24).

Thus, it seems as though Laura came to some realizations about how to clearly and effectively model writing for ELLs, and this improvement was reflected in her ability to provide high quality explanations of the writing skills and strategies.

3.9.1.4. Maizie

Maizie was both one of the youngest PSTs in BTEW and one of the most initially confident in her ability to teach writing, which she attributed to her personal enjoyment of writing. This confidence, however, did not translate to high quality teaching. During Fall 2018, Maizie's instruction received a score of 1.74, indicating that most of her pedagogical moves were judged to be of low quality. This changed dramatically in Spring 2019, improving to a 2.48 (average quality), which was the largest margin of improvement amongst all the PSTs. More specifically, Maizie demonstrated notable improvement in talking about what good writers do, sharing examples of high quality writing, providing direct instruction on writing skills and strategies, clear explanations about the nature of the writing skill and/or strategy, and modeling of the writing process.

What is interesting about Maizie's pedagogical improvements is that her efficacy for writing instruction remained the same throughout BTEW, reiterating from the beginning of BTEW to the end that she felt "prepared" to teach writing. There were several times that Maizie believed her writing instruction could have been improved, such as when she reflected, "I could have had clearer definitions for the words pleased, please, excited and ecstatic, as well as example sentences using this words in order to better clarify the differences between them," (Maizie, Reflection Form, October 2). These challenges, however, did not seem to impact her efficacy, but instead she used them as learning opportunities. She reflected,

I should not have done so many words in one day. I should have split the words evenly over the two days, so we would only have to learn six each day instead of eight today and four this Thursday. By slowing down, I would have been able to better explain each word to the kids (Maizie, Reflection Form, October 9).

When BTEW concluded, Maizie discussed her high level of efficacy for writing instruction across all genres. In the final focus group she stated,

I'd still feel, like, the most successful in writing in comparison to like other things teaching, just because I know the basics. I mean it'd probably be a little rocky going from narrative to something else, but I'd still feel better doing that than anything else...we know narrative so...like, we'd feel more confident doing something similar, (Maizie, Post Interview, 01:32:56.21).

It is evident that while Maizie may have had some difficulty enacting effective pedagogy for ELL writing, it did not impact her efficacy for writing instruction.

3.9.1.5. Mandy

Mandy began Fall 2018 with a relatively high score of 2.41 (average quality), which increased to 2.7 (high quality) in Spring 2019. Her instructional quality increased the most in providing samples of model writing for the students to reference and clear explanations about the nature of the writing skill and/or strategy. In her teaching reflections during Fall 2018, Mandy discussed the myriad struggles her students faced in grasping concepts and completing assignments. For example, she wrote “Students struggled to grasp the concept of ‘rising action’ - started to grasp it with help, but that was the hardest part for them,” (Mandy, Reflection Form, Oct. 4). At the final focus group after RSW, Mandy reflected on her difficulty providing clear explanations,

I was just honestly surprised by the amount of reteaching...the biggest thing that stands out is I taught them a story mountain day two. And we worked so much with, like, your beginning, your middle, your end, your rising action, your fixing the problem, what happened after you fixed the problem. We focused SO much on that throughout the sample, and then for the second sample I stood up to fix the story mountain and none of those remembered it at all, and I was just, like, shocked that we could have worked and used those charts with them so often, and then they were staring at it and couldn't even be like "oh this is the introduction, so who and what". So it was having to go back, and honestly not get so frustrated with them, was like...I was just surprised that they remembered literally nothing," (Mandy, Post Interview, 00:17:19.09).

Throughout the entirety of BTEW, Mandy struggled tremendously with student understanding, but rarely attributed it to the quality of her own pedagogical moves, such as providing clear explanations. While she demonstrated some improvement in instructional quality across the two semesters, her score in Spring 2019 was lower than that of the other PSTs, with the exception of Maizie- who started out much lower and made more substantial gains.

3.9.1.6. Sabrina

Sabrina was the youngest PST in BTEW, and began with some of the lowest efficacy for both preparation for writing and teaching ELL writing. However, her pedagogical moves were scored as 2.08 during Fall 2018, indicating that they were of average quality. She made a tremendous increase in Spring 2019 to 2.92, making her pedagogical moves some of the highest quality amongst all the PSTs in the present study.

Her areas of the most substantial improvement were sharing a common language to discuss writing, direct instruction on writing skills and strategies, clear explanation about the nature and/or skill of writing, modeling the use of the skill and/or strategy, and scaffolding students' independent use of the skill.

At the outset of BTEW, Sabrina discussed the challenges she faced trying to provide clear explanations for the ELLs in her class. She stated,

However, there are two students who do not listen even when we repeat ourselves. I would like to know if they speak Spanish or they doubt their English which is why they do not pay attention or participate. I would also like to know if there is anything I could do to help them fully understand what we are doing, (Sabrina, Journal, October 12).

At this time, Sabrina did not appear to understand how to scaffold, model, or clearly explain the writing skill. At the conclusion of BTEW, however, she discussed some strategies she used to facilitate her students' understanding, explaining "It was interesting to see the students explain things to each other in Spanish. I allowed the students to give me examples of the vocabulary words in Spanglish which helped them learn the words since these examples helped other students," (Sabrina, Journal, April 24). Her reflections about the steps she took to improve the quality of her ELL instruction match the video data, and they are also reflected in her efficacy ratings from the beginning to the end of BTEW. On the PT-SWI, she scored herself as feeling "very prepared" to teach writing at the end of BTEW, and "confident" to teach ELL writing.

3.9.2. Discussion

Results of the video observations showed that all PSTs increased the quality of their pedagogical moves from Fall 2018 to Spring 2019. For many, the improvement in pedagogical quality aligns with their increased pedagogical efficacy. This suggests a potential bidirectional relationship, in which: a) the experience of successfully teaching writing lessons increased their efficacy for writing instruction (e.g., Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) and b) their increased efficacy led to a willingness to try new pedagogy that ultimately improved the quality of their instruction (e.g., Putnam, 2012). Thus, it appears that the structure of BTEW, in which the PSTs had multiple opportunities to experiment with effective instruction while receiving support from an experienced mentor, was effective in producing efficacious and high-quality teachers of writing.

One area in which all PSTs improved was the ability to provide clear explanations about the writing skill/strategy. This is a particularly important skill within the context of ELL writing, as the ability to provide comprehensible input to students of varying linguistic proficiencies is critical. Providing clear explanations has been identified as a common challenge for new teachers, who often either over-explain (Johnson & Dabney, 2018) or struggle to differentiate their explanations for learners at various levels (Gourneau, 2014). The findings from the present study highlight the necessity of extended practice on providing clear explanations, and suggest that the best way to cultivate this may be through extended practice in an authentic setting with students of varying ability and proficiency levels. Unfortunately, most clinical and/or student teaching experiences are insufficient in this regard (González, 2016; Kelly, 2018), and ESL methods courses are

often too theoretical to translate into effective classroom practice (McGlynn-Stewart, 2015).

It is interesting to note that both Kathleen and Laura delivered higher quality instruction in Fall 2018 than the other PSTs. This is likely the result of their prior experiences as Assistant Teachers in BTEW during 2017-18, where they worked alongside a highly skilled veteran teacher for an entire school year. Establishing a positive, supportive relationship with a mentor teacher has been repeatedly noted as one of the most important elements for professional growth (Liu & Fischer, 2006) and future success as a classroom teacher (He, 2009). Thus, it is likely that the year Laura and Kathleen spent observing and collaborating with a knowledgeable mentor facilitated their ability to provide high-quality instruction, despite the fact that they had never previously taught a writing lesson. The opportunity to observe a mentor teacher is also consistently identified as a significant contributor to efficacy (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008), but this interestingly did not have as much of an impact on Laura as it did on Kathleen. For the most part, Laura's efficacy at the beginning of Fall 2018 was comparable to the other PSTs', whereas Kathleen's was much higher. There are several likely explanations for this. First, Laura's efficacy may have been more influenced by the opportunity to have autonomy over her own teaching practices (Yoon & Larkin, 2018), and to experience success in delivering instruction (e.g., Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Since Laura's efficacy increased, as well as the quality of her pedagogical moves, over the course of Fall 2018 when she worked as a Lead Teacher, it is likely that "doing it on her own" without the constant presence of a mentor teacher was helpful for her professional growth. Second, unlike Kathleen, Laura indicated a strong dislike for the subject of writing in the beginning

of Fall 2018. Perhaps her efficacy was influenced by a persistent doubt in her own writing abilities, which were only overcome by successful teaching experiences. Considering that most PSTs in the U.S. are more like Laura in regards to their beliefs about writing (e.g., Morgan & Pytash, 2014), these findings have several important implications for teacher education programs. To begin, Writing Intensive courses (or the equivalent) should ensure that they are fostering efficacy and passion for writing, and not just rote going through the writing process. Without cultivating an enjoyment of writing, PSTs may never believe that they can be good writing teachers, which may impact the writing opportunities that they provide for their future students. Additionally, the addition of a writing methods course may not be enough unless it is purposefully coupled with plentiful opportunities for PSTs to independently enact writing instruction. Finally, teacher education programs must acknowledge the individualized nature of PSTs' journeys, and consider how different PSTs may benefit from varying educational experiences.

On the other hand, Dylan, Maizie, and Sabrina began BTEW with no prior experience with teaching ELLs or writing, which was reflected in the quality of their pedagogical moves during Fall 2018. However, all three made substantial gains in instructional quality during Spring 2019. This is likely due to a combination of factors, the biggest of which was likely the opportunity to work as a Lead Teacher in a realistic setting, scaffolded by an experienced mentor (Grisham & Wosley, 2011). What is interesting, however, is the definition of "mentor" for these three PSTs. All BTEW participants received the same amount of support from the mentor, an experienced and highly successful elementary teacher, before and after they taught each lesson. However, while Kathleen, Laura, and Mandy had all had other experiences observing this mentor in the

classroom (Kathleen and Laura during 2017-18, and Mandy during a summer study abroad), Dylan, Maizie, and Sabrina did not. Thus, it is likely that they also considered their co-teachers in BTEW to be “mentors”, and that their instruction was heavily influenced by their observations of these slightly more experienced PSTs. Some research has suggested that collaborative teamwork is an important component of developing highly qualified teachers (e.g., Yoon & Larkin, 2018). When PSTs are given the opportunity to co-teach with each other in field placements, they are able to work together to examine the complexities of the classroom, and figure out ways to support student’s learning (Siry, 2011). Unfortunately, most teacher education programs do not provide such opportunities, and little research exists on this subject (Siry, 2011). Dylan, Maizie, and Sabrina’s tremendous growth in pedagogical quality suggests the significant potential of co-teaching, and the need for more research on how co-teaching impacts PST instructional quality, pedagogical efficacy, and perhaps even teacher retention.

One of the most interesting findings from the video data relates to Maizie. Throughout BTEW, Maizie’s efficacy for writing instruction was consistently high, even at the outset of the program, which she attributed to her personal writing competence and enjoyment of personal writing. However, results of the video observation and analysis from Fall 2018 show that her pedagogical moves were of relatively low quality, suggesting that high efficacy does not necessarily lead to high quality instruction (Hodges, 2015). While much of the research suggests that developing a love of writing is critical for teachers (e.g., Myers et al., 2016), Maizie’s story highlights that developing skilled teachers of writing takes more than just a personal enjoyment of writing. Skilled writers may still need targeted instruction on writing pedagogy, and extensive opportunities for

practice enacting pedagogy. That being said, the role of efficacy should not be underscored, even though research warns us that self-reported efficacy data is often falsely high or falsely low (e.g., Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). Despite facing some major instructional challenges, Maizie never wavered in her belief that she could effectively teach writing, and ultimately her instructional quality increased more than that of any other PST. Thus, these findings support the contention that teacher education programs must incorporate opportunities for PSTs to engage in personal writing and reflection, in order to develop positive attitudes towards writing (e.g., Barnes, 2018), as this may be critical to ensure that teachers pursue writing instruction, even if it may take some time for them to become highly skilled at the task. These findings also suggest that being a proficient writer, and enjoying the task of writing, does not necessarily transfer into being a high quality teacher of writing. Instead, PSTs must be given direct instruction on the writing process, as well as opportunities to practice teaching writing and give feedback on student writing (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Pytash, 2017) through targeted writing methods courses with field experiences. Writing Intensive courses, where PSTs develop their own writing skills, may not be enough to make an impact on pedagogical quality, likely because PSTs cannot make the connection between what they are doing with their own writing, and the pedagogical moves they should use for teaching students (Hodges, 2015).

Another interesting finding relates to Mandy, whose pedagogical efficacy was highly impacted by the success of her students. Mandy finished BTEW with the lowest quality of instruction of all the PSTs, other than Maizie, despite the fact that she was initially one of the most experienced and efficacious. In her reflection forms and journals,

Mandy consistently discussed the struggles she faced with the students, never acknowledging that these challenges may have been the result of her pedagogical moves. Research has long recognized that student outcomes play a significant role in teacher's self-efficacy (e.g., Pajares, 1997), meaning that when teachers see evidence of student learning resulting from their instruction, their self-efficacy raises (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011) and they become more willing to try new pedagogical approaches, and ultimately deliver a higher quality of instruction (Graham et al., 2001). It is possible that Mandy's quality of instruction did not improve as substantially as the other PSTs because her perceptions about the impact her instruction had on the students led to lower efficacy, which then resulted in an unwillingness to try new techniques. Prior literature makes it clear that Mandy's challenges are not unique; PSTs are generally unprepared to work with struggling learners, particularly those who face substantial challenges in literacy (Washburn, Joshi, & Cantrell, 2011), as was the case with the students in BTEW. Oftentimes when teachers believe that their students are "needy" or too low level, they are reluctant to engage the students in higher-level activities, like writing, where they have to release control (Collins, Lee, Fox, & Madigan, 2017). It is possible that the experience working with struggling learners was too much for Mandy, who faced a lot of challenges not only with student outcomes, but with student motivation and engagement. Teacher education programs should make sure that they provide PSTs with the tools to not only intervene academically with struggling learners, but also to ensure that they are engaged and invested in their learning. The BTEW program focused primarily on developing proficient and efficacious teachers of writing through direct instruction on the writing process for ELLs, without spending much time on the motivational aspects of teaching.

While some of the PSTs persisted and ultimately succeeded despite facing numerous challenges, some tended to give up easily. Perhaps Mandy, and future PSTs, would benefit from instruction on teacher persistence, building student motivation, and targeted techniques for working with struggling learners, so that efficacy does not decline as a result of student factors.

3.10. Conclusion

Results of the present study show that the PST participants began the program with low efficacy for writing instruction, which they attributed to bad or inadequate prior writing experiences, both in K-12 education and university coursework. After participation in BTEW, the PSTs demonstrated a substantial growth in multiple areas of teaching efficacy. Their content efficacy grew through an enhanced understanding of the writing process and a belief that they became more effective peer editors. Their pedagogical efficacy grew not only for writing instruction across multiple genres, but also for ELL writing instruction and general pedagogy, such as classroom management. The PSTs credited several aspects of BTEW to this growth, including the ability to implement authentic writing lessons to ELLs, the opportunity to establish autonomy over their classrooms, instruction on the writing process and pedagogy, mentor feedback and modeling, multiple opportunities to teach the same lesson, and team teaching experiences. Observational classroom data showed that the PSTs' teaching quality also increased, particularly in the area of providing clear explanations about the writing process.

This study has several implications that may be particularly salient for teacher educators, and teacher education programs as a whole. First, it is not enough to provide Writing Intensive courses that target the development of PSTs' personal writing abilities,

as it is likely that they will not be able to translate their own practices into pedagogy (Hodges, 2015). Instead, teacher education programs must provide direct instruction on writing pedagogy, preferably through writing methods courses (e.g., Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). Such courses should target the content of writing and seek to develop positive attitudes towards writing (e.g., Kohnen et al., 2019), while also focusing on how to teach writing for all learners and the stages of writing development (e.g., Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016). By the same token, writing methods courses should prepare teachers for authentic writing pedagogy that is not centered around standardized tests (e.g., Kohnen et al., 2019). Built into writing methods courses should be explicit instruction on how to provide effective writing feedback to students from different linguistic backgrounds (e.g., Barnes & Chandler, 2019). This can be done through watching videos of effective conferencing, discussions about what “good” feedback and conferencing looks like, the use of authentic writing samples from students of varying levels, and instruction on how to provide constructive feedback that focuses on one stage of the writing process at a time.

The results of this study also suggest that self-reported efficacy for writing instruction is not sufficient enough to ensure that PSTs are prepared to enact high quality pedagogical moves. For the PSTs in the present study, the BTEW framework was designed to provide extensive practice delivering writing lessons to actual students. Teacher education programs should provide PSTs with purposeful field placements in which they can practice enacting writing instruction, and particularly field placements that allow them to work with ELLs. That being said, it is not enough to simply place PSTs in classrooms and assume that they will get the opportunity to observe and teach writing; teacher educators must collaborate with school administration to ensure that PSTs are being placed

with highly effective teachers of writing. They must commit to working closely with mentor teachers to ensure that everyone is “on the same page” about writing instruction, and to make sure that PSTs receive ample opportunities to teach writing lessons (e.g., Myers et al., 2019).

Traditional field experiences usually take place over only one semester, however the results of the present study suggest that more longitudinal placements with multiple opportunities to teach the same lesson may be more beneficial, so that PSTs are not only able to practice effective pedagogies, but also to experience success in classroom management and dealing with struggling students. One way to do this is to place PSTs in departmentalized classrooms, or classrooms in which teachers are responsible for teaching one to two subjects to multiple groups of students a day. In such classrooms, PSTs would be able to teach the same writing lesson several times to different groups of students.

One of the most important implications of the present study is the necessity of a high-quality mentor for writing instruction. This means that teacher education programs must endeavor to connect PSTs to highly skilled teachers of writing who are able to provide high-quality modeling of writing instruction for students of varying ability levels and linguistic and cultural backgrounds (e.g., Grisham & Wosley, 2011). However, there are many reasons why this may not be plausible, including a lack of elementary teachers who enact writing instruction (e.g., Troia & Graham, 2016). One way to solve this is for teacher educators to videotape themselves teaching writing to students, and particularly to ELLs (Myers et al., 2019). Also helpful would be videos of highly skilled teachers of writing, and in-class demonstrations of effective ELL writing techniques (Myers et al., 2019). However, results from the present study suggest that just as salient as having a

skilled mentor might be the opportunity to team teach writing lessons with other PSTs. When PSTs are able to team teach, it enhances their understanding of ELL writing and providing feedback (e.g., Kuehl, 2018), and provides them with a space for negotiating innovative ways to expand students' learning (Siry, 2011). Teacher education programs should consider team teaching positions for field placements, so that PSTs have the opportunity to learn from their teacher educators, mentor teachers, and peers about best ELL writing pedagogy.

This study has several limitations that are present in most qualitative research. First, qualitative methodology may not be sufficient to completely understand the efficacy development of PSTs, and should be complemented through the use of quantitative methods with a larger sample of participants. Future research should seek to understand how a program like BTEW would impact the teaching efficacy of larger groups of PSTs. Another limitation of the present study includes its context; BTEW was situated within a specialized after school program designed specifically to target writing instruction for ELLs, meaning that the PSTs in the present study had substantially more time to practice writing instruction than would be present in a typical field placement. It is unlikely that most teacher education programs would be able to emulate a widespread after school program, however future research could attempt to understand the impact on teaching efficacy between participants in an after-school writing program like BTEW, versus those in a traditional field experience with opportunities for writing instruction.

Currently, there are almost no writing methods courses in teacher education programs across the U.S. (Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). More research is needed to understand how writing methods courses might impact teaching efficacy, and the

longitudinal impact of these courses on writing instruction. Additionally, the impact of placing PSTs in departmentalized classrooms with team teaching placements is worthy of examination, as this is an understudied area that seemed to have a notable impact on the PSTs in the present study. Future researchers hoping to study teaching efficacy should acknowledge the importance of observational data, and not just self-reported data. The present study was substantially enhanced by evaluations of PSTs' actual teaching, which coupled with the self-reported data provided a clear picture into the experiences and efficacy development of the PSTs.

Langeberg (2019) noted that teacher education programs have long subscribed to the idea that "we are all teachers of reading". It is now time for teacher educators to flip the narrative, and endorse the mantra "we are all teachers of writing". Then, perhaps, PSTs would enter the classrooms more efficacious for ELL writing instruction, and students would graduate with the necessary skills to succeed in their future schooling and careers.

3.11. References

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4. BECOMING TEACHERS OF ELL WRITING: THE LONGITUDINAL IMPACT OF A PREPARATION PROGRAM

Prior literature has highlighted the critical role that teacher education programs play in building the foundational skills that new teachers need to affect positive student outcomes (e.g., Sumrall, Scott-Little, La Paro, Pianta, Burchinal, Hamre, ... & Howes, 2017). When teacher education programs include scaffolded learning activities with hands-on practice, the teaching efficacy of preservice teachers (PSTs) is increased. Teaching efficacy, or a teachers' beliefs about their own teaching competence (Graham, Harris, Fink, & MacArthur, 2001), has been repeatedly identified as the biggest contributor to student success (e.g., Pajares, 1997). However, recent research has argued that the value of teacher education programs is unclear (Goldhaber, 2019); the lack of longitudinal studies investigating the connections between the taught content and pedagogy, and the implementation of these in the classroom, means that researchers cannot know how teacher education programs are impacting classroom practices (Martin & Dismuke, 2018). Cochran-Smith, Villegas, Abrams, Chavez-Moreno, Mills, and Stern (2015) argue for more longitudinal studies that investigate classroom actions, to determine how these align with what is found in teacher education programs.

Studies focusing on the impact of teacher preparation programs may be particularly salient in the context of writing instruction. Researchers have bemoaned the paucity of writing methods courses provided within teacher education programs (Martin & Dismuke, 2018; McKeown, Brindle, Harris, Sandmel, Steinbrecher, Graham, ... & Oakes, 2018), arguing that such courses are needed to counteract the low writing achievement nationwide

(National Center for Education Statistics, 2012). However, before this can be done more research is needed on how writing methods courses would impact classroom instruction (Grossman, Valencia, S. W., Evans, Thompson, Martin, & Place, 2000; Martin & Dismuke, 2018).

The present study seeks to add to the literature on both teacher education programs and writing instruction through a qualitative case-study investigation. Participants will include four PSTs who completed an extracurricular writing preparation program called *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW). These four will be followed into their clinical or beginning teaching experiences to explore the longitudinal impact of BTEW on their classroom writing instruction.

4.1. Literature Review

4.1.1. Writing Methods: Why and How?

The current emphasis on standardized assessments means that teacher education programs require methods courses for reading and math instruction, but not writing (Batchelor, Morgan, Kidder-Brown, & Zimmerman, 2014). Few teacher education programs include a writing methods course within their curriculum (e.g., Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). Instruction on writing pedagogy is often embedded within reading methods and confined to one course period (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). This means that most PSTs are not exposed to the aspects of writing considered essential for effective instruction, such as evaluating authentic student writing and genre studies (Ballock, McQuitty, & McNary, 2018). Also problematic is the fact that PSTs rarely witness writing instruction within their field placements (Durgunoglu & Hughes, 2010; Grisham &

Wolsey, 2011), meaning that they enter the teaching profession with little knowledge of writing pedagogy.

The paltry preparation of PSTs for writing instruction has had a direct impact on nationwide writing achievement. In 2011, only 54% of eighth grade students and 52% of 12th grade students performed at or above the basic level in writing on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NCES, 2012). These numbers were even lower for ELLs, with only 35% of eighth grade and 20% of 12th grade ELLs scoring at the basic level (NCES, 2012). Researchers have attributed these scores to the low quality of writing instruction present in most US schools (NCES, 2012; McKeown et al., 2018; Troia, Lin, Cohen, & Monroe, 2011), which is unsurprising considering the inadequate preparation provided by most teacher education programs (Brindle, Harris, Graham, & Hebert, 2016; Drew, Olinghouse, Faggella-Luby, & Welsh, 2017).

Student achievement has also been directly tied to high teaching efficacy; when teachers feel confident in their ability to teach a subject, students experience greater success in that subject (McKeown et al., 2018; Martin & Dismuke, 2018; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Teaching efficacy is subject-specific, so it will not develop for subjects in which there was no direct instruction (Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011), and teachers will avoid subjects for which they have low efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). The implementation of writing methods courses is necessary to raise teaching efficacy for the subject of writing, and therefore increase student achievement in writing. Researchers have suggested several critical elements that must be included within every writing methods course to strengthen teaching efficacy: a) explicit instruction on the specific genres of writing (Ballock et al., 2018; Batchelor et al., 2014; Cook & Sams,

2018; Daisey, 2008; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Pytash, 2012; Zimmerman, Morgan, & Kidder-Brown, 2014), b) process-writing instruction (Batchelor et al., 2014; Dilidüzgün, 2013; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Moore & Seeger, 2009), c) practice providing feedback on authentic student writing samples (Ballock et al., 2018; Dempsey, PytlikZillig, & Bruning, 2009; Fry & Griffin, 2010; Hall, 2016; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Pytash, 2012), d) self-reflection and opportunities to write (Barnes, 2018; Byrd, 2010; Garcia & O'Donnell-Allen, 2016; Gerla, 2010; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Martin & Dismuke, 2015; Morgan, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2014), and e) field experiences with writing (Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Pytash, 2017; Roser, Hoffman, Wetzel, Price-Dennis, Peterson, & Chamberlain, 2014). Particular attention has been given to field experiences, which have been widely identified as the most influential component of teacher education programs (Brown, Lee, & Collins, 2015; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Lee, Tice, Collins, Brown, Smith, & Fox, 2012), because they provide PSTs with the opportunity to transform the conceptual tools learned within their coursework into actual practice (Grossman et al., 2000).

4.1.2. Impact of Teacher Education Programs

The above suggestions align with the essential elements of practice-changing professional development for in-service teachers (Darling-Hammond, Hyler, & Gardner, 2017). However, unlike studies on in-service teachers, very few studies with PSTs seek to understand how the knowledge gained in teacher education programs manifests within practice (Martin & Dismuke, 2018). Goldhaber (2019) contends,

...despite the commonsense notion that preparation for classroom responsibilities should improve the readiness of teacher candidates, the value of formalized

preservice teacher education is unclear- at least in terms of judging teacher education based on the inservice outcomes of those teacher candidates who eventually become teachers, (p. 90).

McKeown et al. (2018) suggest that while the practices taught in teacher education programs may be rooted in theories and based on research, we still lack the requisite evidence base to know how they are utilized. Even though many longitudinal studies on the influence of teacher education programs over teacher attitudes, beliefs, and understandings exist, very few illustrate a link to their influence over classroom practice (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015).

Some researchers have suggested that certain teacher education programs are more effective than others (e.g., Sumrall et al., 2017), however Goldhaber (2019) argues that the variation lies not in the teaching programs themselves, but in the individuals who are part of each program; there is tremendous variation in PST quality in all teacher education programs. This is important because it indicates that the implementation of a uniform teacher education program, or writing methods course, would not resolve inconsistencies in teacher quality; just because it is taught does not mean it will be utilized once PSTs become in-service teachers (Thomas, Tuytens, Moolenaar, Devos, Kelchtermans, & Vanderlinde, 2017). Thus, to increase the quality of writing instruction and improve nationwide writing achievement, we first need to understand how elements of teacher education programs differentially impact individual PSTs.

How to best prepare PSTs for the classroom is an understudied area (Goldhaber, 2019), particularly as it relates to writing instruction (Grossman et al., 2000). A recent review of the research on PST preparation for writing instruction found that most studies

took place over the course of one semester, and none followed PSTs as they entered their clinical teaching period or their first year of teaching (Moody, 2020). However, there have been two longitudinal studies on the impact of writing professional development on in-service teacher practice (Grossman et al., 2000; Martin & Dismuke, 2018), which will be reviewed below.

4.1.3. Prior Studies on Writing Professional Development

Grossman et al. (2000) conducted a case study of 10 in-service elementary and middle school teachers in their first three years of teaching, all of whom had participated in a masters-level writing course focused on Lucy Calkins' Writing Workshop. Data sources for the study included interviews and classroom observations. The researchers found that: a) the writing course provided the teachers with a set of conceptual tools for teaching writing, which the teachers consistently referred to when planning their lessons; b) instruction on scaffolding and the writing process had the greatest influence over teacher practice; c) the classroom context did not always support the use of what they had learned in their coursework; d) during the first year of teaching, the teachers gravitated towards boxed curricular materials for writing because they were overwhelmed, but by the second year they began to critique and repair some of the materials that did not align with the concepts they had learned in the writing program; e) the teachers used their understandings of the concepts learned in the program to gauge the effectiveness of their instruction; and f) they continued to reflect on their teaching practice, as they had done within the course, throughout their first three years.

These findings provide several insights about preparation for writing instruction. First, direct instruction on writing pedagogy will permeate how teachers prepare lessons,

how they view pre-made curriculum, and how they judge their own practices. Teacher education programs need to explicitly link conceptual tools to practical applications to increase their influence on practice. Second, when teacher preparation programs embed reflection into learning activities, it will cultivate a habit of reflection that will assist in creating higher quality educators. Finally, even when circumstances prevent the concepts learned in teacher education programs from being implemented, teachers will retain them and use them later in their careers, when their teaching efficacy is higher.

Another study was conducted by Martin and Dismuke (2018), who also investigated in-service elementary and middle grades teachers. In this study, none of the 23 participants had previously received any writing training in either their undergraduate coursework or professional development. The participants were split into two groups, one which engaged in 45 hours of writing professional development, and another that did not. Afterwards, participants from both groups were observed several times. Findings showed strong differences between the two groups; those who participated in professional development were more likely to engage their students in the writing process every day, write across genres, utilize Writing Workshop practices (Calkins, 2005), and scaffold and model the writing process. However, those in the comparison group usually only provided isolated instruction over one genre, and focused more on grammar than the writing process. Results from this study indicate the importance of direct instruction on writing pedagogy for all teachers, and provides evidence that teachers will retain and utilize the techniques learned in authentic professional development experiences.

The present study seeks to add to the literature on the value of teacher education programs by investigating the impact of one program focused on ELL writing on the

writing positioning of clinical and beginning teachers. The study purpose and rationale, research questions, and methodology will be discussed further in the following sections.

4.2. Study Purpose and Rationale

Morgan and Pytash (2014) contend that the field of education would benefit greatly from effective teacher education models that bridge the gap between university coursework and public school teaching, particularly in the area of writing. However, the reviewed literature indicates that there are still many gaps before this can be accomplished. First, there is a paucity of research on both the value of teacher education programs (Goldhaber, 2019), and how they impact classroom practice (e.g., Martin & Dismuke, 2018). This means that, despite the plethora of research that exists on teacher education programs, we remain unclear about the specific aspects of these programs that make a difference on classroom teaching (Goldhaber, 2019). Second, most teacher education programs do not include writing methods courses, and those that do often fail to align their curriculum with what is required in US public schools (e.g., Morgan & Pytash, 2014). This causes PSTs to struggle with implementing techniques learned in their teacher education programs once they move into clinical teaching and beyond (Fry & Griffin, 2010). Finally, most existing studies on teacher education programs, particularly those related to writing, are not longitudinal or focus only on attitudes and perceptions (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015).

In the present study, I attempt to lessen these gaps by following three PSTs and one BT (beginning teacher) who had participated in one extracurricular teacher preparation program called *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW). The study will answer the following questions:

1. How is writing and ELL writing positioned in the classrooms of PST and BT participants?
2. How did BTEW influence the classroom teaching practices of PST and BT participants?
3. What tensions and/or unexpected challenges are PST and BT participants experiencing between how writing instruction was enacted and positioned in BTEW, and what is expected in schools?

4.3. Theoretical Framework

The present study is guided by sociocultural theory and its offshoot, activity theory (Cole, 1996; Engestrom, 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; Wertsch, 1981). Sociocultural theory posits that learning is social in nature, and is situated within particular settings (Cole, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). When learners enter new settings, their actions and understandings are guided by their prior knowledge (Weade, 1992). In the proposed study, sociocultural theory is used to understand how, within a new setting, the participants are guided by the prior knowledge that they learned in BTEW, and how it shapes their classroom actions.

Activity theory assumes that the problem-solving actions undertaken in specific settings develop an individuals' framework for thinking (Grossman et al., 2000). Within this theory there are *activity settings*, or the social contexts where learners participate and acquire knowledge. Each setting has its own goals and motives, which may be conflicting. In this study, activity settings encompass both BTEW and the classroom teaching setting. Activity theory is used to understand how the participants balance what was learned in BTEW with the demands of the school context. Activity theory also emphasizes the

importance of tools, both conceptual and practical. In education, conceptual tools are considered theories, instructional scaffolding, and even specific concepts like process-writing (Grossman et al., 2000). Practical tools are curricular materials and frameworks such as the Writing Workshop (Calkins, 2005). Activity theory provides an understanding of how the participants applied the conceptual and pedagogical tools learned in BTEW to their classroom practice.

4.4. Terminology

Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW). A uniquely designed preparation program for preservice teachers focused on writing instruction for English language learners will be referred to as *BTEW*. This is an extracurricular program that was not associated with mandatory university coursework.

Preservice teacher (PST). Any future teacher who has not yet graduated from a university teacher program will be called a *PST*.

Beginning teacher (BT). Any teacher who has graduated from a university teacher education program and is in their first year of classroom teaching will be called a *BT*.

English language learner (ELL). The term *English language learner (ELL)* will be used for students whose first language is not English, but are in the process of learning English.

Mentor teacher. *Mentor teacher* will refer to a veteran teacher who serves as a role model for aspiring teachers, including PSTs and BTs.

In-service teacher. To indicate a teacher who is already practicing, but is not specifically discussed in the role of a mentor, the term *in-service teacher* will be applied.

Teacher education programs. In this study, university programs designed to prepare PSTs for teacher certification are referred to as *teacher education programs*.

Teacher preparation program. The term *teacher preparation program* will be used to refer to a professional development program, Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW), that is designed specifically to prepare preservice teachers for classroom instruction.

Clinical teaching. When PSTs engage in a full-time teaching placement during their last semester of a teacher education program, under the supervision of a mentor teacher, this will be called *clinical teaching*. This is sometimes referred to as “student teaching”, but will be exclusively called *clinical teaching* within the proposed study.

Field experiences. The opportunity to engage in hands-on teaching practice in the classroom for short periods of time will be called a *field experience*. This is distinguished from clinical teaching because it is not full time.

4.5. Researcher Positionality

Qualitative studies must include an acknowledgement of the research positionality, to indicate that the findings cannot be understood without understanding the lens of the author (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In this study, it is essential for readers to understand my role in BTEW, my relationships with the participants, and how this shaped my interpretation of their teaching experiences.

At the time of the study, I was in my fourth year of a doctorate program in Literacy and ESL education at a large research university. My journey towards a Ph.D. started after a decade of teaching at a public, Title I elementary school comprised almost entirely of Spanish-speaking ELLs. During this time, I became extensively involved in new teacher

mentoring, working with student teachers, and conducting professional development on writing instruction and literacy centers. Through these experiences, I began to realize my passion for teacher preparation, particularly in the area of literacy, and so I began to pursue my doctorate. In the second year of my studies I became the project manager of a research project called Ready, Set, Write! (RSW), which sought to investigate the impact of a technology-enhanced writing intervention on the writing development of struggling learners. For this project, I was tasked with recruiting, training, monitoring, and mentoring PSTs to be teachers for the program. At first, there were only four PSTs working as assistant teachers in RSW. During the second year more were hired, and placed in teaching roles with more responsibility. Because of this, I created the framework of BTEW, which began in Fall 2018. Thus, all the participants in the proposed study are graduates from BTEW, meaning that their teaching was extensively mentored by me over the course of one year. Two of the participants, Laura and Kathleen, not only participated in BTEW but had worked as my assistants in RSW the year before.

Within this study I am positioned as a mentor, an individual who helped shape the teaching development of all four participants. I also designed the BTEW framework, so I have a clear understanding of the scope of the program, and an in-depth knowledge of each participant, along with their teaching characteristics. Thus, I look at this study through the lens of someone who has seen the participants' growth as teachers from its inception, and will seek to understand how each has evolved as their teaching environment has changed (Dewey, 1938).

4.6. Research Methodology

The present study uses a qualitative case study methodology with rich data to understand how real-life cases develop over time (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Case study methodology was selected for use in this study because it allows for a careful, detailed analysis of how and BTEW impacted its participants (Desimone & Stuckey, 2014). Additionally, case study methodology facilitates an examination of individual differences between the participants (McKeown et al., 2018), to see the various ways their teaching was influenced by the program (Goldhaber, 2019).

In the present study, the cases investigated include former participants of BTEW, three of whom remain PSTs and one in her first year of teaching, or a beginning teacher (BT). Teaching journals and interviews were used to examine the long-term impact of BTEW on the teaching practices of participants.

4.6.1. Setting

The present study follows four participants after their completion of a teacher preparation program called *Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing* (BTEW). Instead of investigating their time in the program, this study seeks to understand how it did or did not influence the participants in their full-time teaching positions. Below, a brief description of BTEW will be provided, followed by a description of the setting.

4.6.1.1. Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW)

BTEW is a unique program designed to prepare PSTs to teach ELL writing, rooted in literature regarding best practices for professional development (e.g., Bates & Morgan, 2018) and recommendations for PST preparation for ELL writing instruction (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018; Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016). The framework of BTEW includes a cycle with

six stages, designed to develop teachers' skills for ELL writing instruction, the Writing Workshop, classroom management, planning, and problem-solving. It involves an introductory stage that occurs only once, plus six other stages that exist within the cycle, and are repeated weekly throughout BTEW. The framework can be seen in Figure 4.1 below.

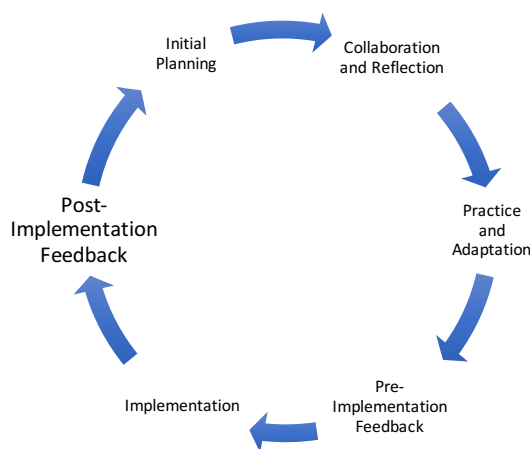


Figure 4.1 BTEW Framework

In the *Program Introduction* stage, which occurred only once at the beginning of BTEW, PST participants were provided with an overview of the program, as well as specific instruction on the Writing Workshop (Calkins, 2005), strategies for working with ELLs, and how to give feedback on student writing. Following this introductory training came a weekly repetition of the other six stages of the cycle, all centered around preparation to teach the weekly lesson within an after-school writing program. Specific information about each stage of the cycle can be seen in Figure 4.2.

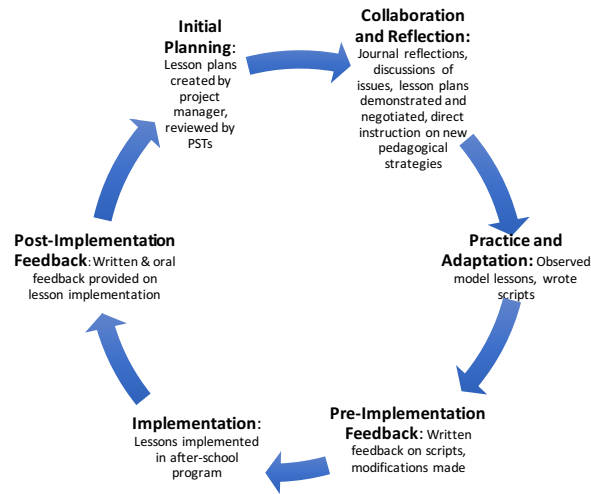


Figure 4.2 Stages of BTEW

In general, the purpose of BTEW was to provide PSTs with the opportunity to enact ELL writing instruction in an actual elementary classroom, while being carefully scaffolded by an expert mentor teacher. While many researchers have pointed out the necessity of direct content and pedagogical instruction on writing (e.g., Batchelor et al., 2014; Morgan, 2010), mentor scaffolding and feedback (e.g., Bates & Morgan, 2018; Brown et al., 2015), and authentic field experiences teaching ELL writing (e.g., Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Jimenez-Silva, Olson, & Hernandez, 2011; Pytash, 2017; Rodriguez, 2013; Roser et al., 2014), however few teacher preparation programs include such opportunities within their curriculum (Morgan & Pytash, 2014). Thus, BTEW existed as a voluntary extracurricular preparation program for PSTs who sought to gain experience in ELL writing instruction that they otherwise would not have received through their coursework.

The participants in the present study completed the BTEW program in Spring 2019, results of which are reported separately. However, recent literature has stressed the need for longitudinal research that examines the impact that teacher preparation programs, such as BTEW, have on postgraduate teaching practices (Goldhaber, 2019; Martin & Dismuke, 2018). The present study is situated outside of the BTEW program, and seeks to lessen the gap in literature by investigating its effects on full time teaching. This context will be described below.

4.6.1.2. Teaching Context

Clinical teaching, often referred to as student teaching, is a key component of most teacher education programs (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005; Zeichner, 2010). It allows PSTs to “practice and apply what one has learned in a classroom setting under the supervision of an experienced classroom teacher,” (Sumrall et al., 2017, p. 822). During Fall 2019, three participants and graduates of BTEW were full-time clinical teachers at various schools throughout one state in the southwestern US. Grade level, school (all names are pseudonyms), and demographics are provided in Table 1 below. In their particular teacher education program, the PSTs were able to select their preferred district from a list of partner districts across the state. This, however, did not guarantee a placement in that district. Regardless of the district of their clinical teaching assignment, the PSTs had no say in the grade level and/or teacher to whom they were assigned.

The semester of clinical teaching is the last university-related work before the PSTs graduate from their teacher education program. During clinical teaching, PSTs are assigned to one mentor teacher that they are expected to shadow throughout the year. They are

required to be present at the school five days a week during normal school hours, as well as attend any before or after school events, including meetings, that their mentor teacher is present for. Throughout the semester, PSTs are expected to teach many lessons, and take the lead on implementing classroom routines and procedures. This high level of involvement provides PSTs with the opportunity to act as real classroom teachers, which is why most cite it as the most influential experience of their teacher education program (Sumrall et al., 2017). It should be noted that the level of PST engagement in the classroom is largely dependent upon what the mentor teacher allows, meaning that no two PSTs have the same clinical teaching experience (Summernall et al., 2017).

Table 4.1 Participants and Teaching Contexts

Participant	# of Phases in BTEW	Grade level	Position during fall 2019	Subjects of instruction in fall 2019	School demographics
Dylan	2	KG	Clinical teacher	All	13% ELLs 35.3% Ec.D.
Kathleen	4	1st	Clinical teacher	All	19.1% ELLs 87.3% Ec.D.
Mandy	2	3rd	Clinical teacher	All	3.2% ELLs 12.4% Ec.D.
Laura	3	5th	Beginning teacher	Grammar Social Studies	10.4% ELLs 76.4% Ec.D.

The final participant of the study, Laura, graduated from the teacher education program in Spring 2019 and was employed as a BT during Fall 2019. Demographics about

Laura's school of employment and grade level can be seen in Table 4.1. The first year of teaching is a particularly sensitive time in which teaching efficacy has been shown to drop significantly (Brown et al., 2015; Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011; Putnam, 2012). At this time, BTs are expected to tackle the same challenges and responsibilities as their more experienced colleagues (Tynjälä & Heikkinen, 2011), with little opportunity to adapt to the demands of the job (Kessels, 2010). Unlike clinical teaching, the responsibility for the classroom lies squarely on the shoulders of BTs. Because of this, BTs often struggle with transferring their knowledge into pedagogical practice and have low confidence and anxiety related to the act of teaching (Shoval, Erlich, & Fejgin, 2010).

4.6.1.3. Participants

As mentioned above, all four participants of the present study had formerly participated in BTEW. At the time of the study, they had all either graduated, or would graduate, within one semester, from the education department of a large, public university. These four consented to participate in the proposed study because they felt that BTEW had been the most impactful part of their teacher education program, and were interested in seeing its influence on their teaching practices. The characteristics of each participant are presented in Table 1 above. All participants were between the ages of 21 and 23, White, and female. At the time of this study, each would receive, or had already received, a Bachelor of Science degree in Interdisciplinary Sciences, and all four had already passed their state teaching licensure exam, meaning that upon graduation they would be certified to teach early childhood through sixth grade, with an emphasis in English as a Second Language (ESL).

4.6.2. Procedures

4.6.2.1. Data Collection

As is critical in all qualitative studies, multiple sources of data were collected (Creswell & Poth, 2018): teaching journals and interviews. Triangulation of these sources provides a more comprehensive and trustworthy understanding of the experiences of the participants, and how these differ based on time, place, and milieu (Dewey, 1938). A summary of the data collected is presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2 Summary of Data Collected

	Timepoints	Amount	Type	Population
Teaching journals	Sept./Oct. 2019 Nov. 2019 Dec. 2019	3	Qualitative	PSTs/BTs
Interviews	Sept./Oct. 2019 Nov. 2019 Dec. 2019	3	Qualitative	PSTs/BTs

4.6.2.1.1. Teaching Journals

Teaching journals are defined as written reflections maintained by clinical teachers or in-service teachers about their classroom experiences (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). During Fall 2019, the participants were asked to complete three teaching journal entries (see Appendix E). The first journal entry was completed at the outset of the semester, around September-October, followed by another one in November, and a third entry at the end of the semester, in December. These entries provide an understanding of how the

participants' experiences vary throughout the course of the semester, and how their views change based on circumstances (Dewey, 1938).

Teaching journals have been found to be beneficial for PSTs and BTs in many ways. First, reflective skills have been hailed as essential for professional growth, however most PSTs and BTs are too preoccupied with the stress of the first years of teaching to consider their own practice (Lee, 2004). Journaling provides a forum for PSTs and BTs to stop and reflect on the effectiveness of their teaching, grapple with the realities of teaching (Daloglu, 2001), and make sense of its complexity (Lee, 2008). Teaching journals also provide a means for PSTs and BTs to actively construct new knowledge (Cole, Raffier, Rogan, & Schleicher, 1998), while also developing a personal teaching philosophy (Byrd, 2010) and professional identity (Lee, 2008). Journals may be of particular importance when examining how PSTs and BTs position writing instruction, as self-reflection has been identified as critical for increasing knowledge of writing pedagogy (Morgan, 2010). Thus, in the present study journal entry data will allow for an investigation into how the developing professional identities of the participants were influenced by BTEW, if at all, and the overall effectiveness of the BTEW program (Lee, 2008).

In this study, each teaching journal entry was guided by several leading questions, with a space for open-ended reflection. Lee (2008) argues that providing PSTs with journal prompts is essential, as many teachers may be initially resistant to journaling, or need assistance before they can engage in deep reflection. Journal entries can be comprised of three levels of depth: a) recall, which is a regurgitation of one's perception of an experience without explanations, b) rationalization, which is when the writer grapples with reason or guiding principles, and c) reflectivity, where the goal is to change/improve, and a

consideration of various viewpoints is taken (Lee, 2008). Prompts for the journals attempted to guide the participants to engage in all three levels of depth, to get a more comprehensive understanding of their experience.

4.6.2.1.2. Individual Interviews

Following procedures by Morgan (2010), each participant was individually interviewed three times throughout Fall 2019 via Zoom video conferencing to better understand their experiences teaching ELL writing, and to elaborate and clarify the reflections presented in their teaching journals. Interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, and lasted between 30-60 minutes. Questions (see Appendix F) centered around their teaching journals reflections, their recent experiences teaching ELL writing, tensions and challenges experienced in enacting ELL writing instruction, and how BTEW could be improved to align more with what is found in public schools (McKeown et al., 2018).

4.6.3. Data Analysis

The present study seeks to answer the following qualitative research questions:

1. How is writing and ELL writing positioned in the classrooms of PST and BT participants?
2. How did BTEW influence the classroom teaching practices of PST and BT participants?
3. What tensions and/or unexpected challenges are PST and BT participants experiencing between how writing instruction was enacted and positioned in BTEW, and what is expected in schools?

First, following procedures by Krueger and Casey (2015), all interview data were transcribed using Inqscribe software, with exact words typed, speakers identified, and

comments time stamped. Transcriptions were double-checked by a second research assistant for accuracy (Freebody, 2004).

Journal and interview data were analyzed following procedures by Saldaña (2015). In the First Cycle of coding, two trained raters engaged in Structural Coding of the data, in which key terms representing each research question were applied to specific segments of data. A segment did not indicate margined entries or idea units, but could include part or all of a participants' response, guiding questions, probes, and follow ups (Saldaña, 2015). It should be noted that coding was not mutually exclusive, so segments could be coded under multiple key terms. All coding was completed using NVivo data analysis software. First, the two raters engaged in a pilot coding of 20% of the data. During pilot coding, an Analytic Memo was developed to document and reflect the coding process and choices (Saldaña, 2015). Inter-rater agreement was established for pilot coding, after which each rater coded a random 40% of the remaining data. To establish inter-rater agreement, 12.5% of the coding completed by each rater was double coded, and 96% agreement was reached. First Cycle codes can be seen in Appendix G.

In the Second Cycle, Focused coding techniques were applied. Both raters read through the initial coding several times to discuss and condense the themes identified in the Analytic Memo, and define specific subcodes (Kuehl, 2018; McKeown et al., 2018), after which all data were completed and examined for consistency in rating following the same procedures as in the First Cycle. Themes and Subcodes can be seen in Appendix H. Triangulation across each source of data was used to cross-check each source of data against the others, provide corroborating evidence (Creswell & Poth, 2018), and to minimize misinterpretation and researcher bias (Stake, 2005).

4.7. Research Question One

4.7.1. Results

The first research question asks, *how is writing and ELL writing positioned in the classrooms of PST and BT participants?* This question focuses on both general and ELL writing instruction due to the fact that most of the participants were placed in classrooms with less than five ELLs. Thus, we will first examine the positioning of general writing instruction, then consider what, if any, modifications were made to accommodate and scaffold writing instruction for ELLs.

4.7.1.1. Writing Positioning in the Clinical Teaching Classroom

First, we will investigate how writing was positioned in the classrooms of the three clinical teachers, Dylan, Kathleen, and Mandy. While the context and grade level differed for each, their experiences were similar in one important way; each was required to mimic the role of a teacher while not actually holding any real responsibility or authority over the classroom. Traditionally, clinical teachers have had little say in their level of engagement in classroom activities, the types of learning experiences provided to the students, or the structure of the classroom, all of which is left to the mentor teacher (e.g., Sumrall et al., 2017). Thus, we will examine the positioning of the writing in the classrooms of the three PSTs, acknowledging that their level of responsibility and influence over each context depended heavily on the relationship with their mentor teacher.

4.7.1.1.1. Dylan's Classroom

Dylan had participated in BTEW for two semesters prior to beginning clinical teaching in Fall 2019. During clinical teaching, Dylan was placed in a kindergarten classroom in a suburban district with a low number of ELLs and economically

disadvantaged students. Dylan's mentor had been teaching for several years, however Dylan was the first clinical teacher she had the opportunity to supervise. By the same token, this placement was the first time that Dylan had been assigned to work with kindergarten students.

In Dylan's clinical teaching classroom, 30 minutes per day was dedicated exclusively to interactive writing. Interactive writing is a type of shared writing experience in which the teachers and students work together to generate ideas, and the teacher engages in a "think aloud" as she models transcribing the ideas (e.g., Williams, 2018). In Dylan's clinical teaching classroom, interactive writing focused on the development of skills such as phonetic spelling, word families, creating lists, and drawing figures with details. Dylan explained that their writing lessons were supposed to be guided by the Writing Workshop (Calkins, 2005), however she believed that this structure was not reflected in the student's independent writing. She explained that the students primarily engaged in "free writes" about any topic of their choosing, which consisted mostly of coloring, scribbling, labeling pictures, and writing sight words with little attention to the writing process. Dylan also pointed out that they rarely engaged in either formal or informal writing conferences with the students (an essential component of the Writing Workshop), and instead spent the majority of their time monitoring student progress and behavior,

...it's kind of like let them write whatever they want...we don't even really tell them to write about anything...whenever they get their time to go write in their books, they just go and scribble and color, which my teacher says that's what they're supposed to be doing, (Dylan, September-October Interview, 00:18:49.09).

In this excerpt, Dylan elaborates on the lack of structure within the independent writing of the students, and explains that this is intentional on the part of her mentor teacher.

In Dylan’s class, the writing time was scheduled for the end of the school day, right before “free centers” and dismissal. Dylan explained that this meant writing was often skipped for other things:

...there's so many components, but really there's not time for everything they have planned, so most days...we don't ever get to every single thing that's on our schedule, so a lot of times it's interactive writing and writing that gets skipped...and because it's at the very end of the day, so what're you going to do if you don't have time for it? There's no skipping anything else because we've already done everything else, it's the last thing we do, (Dylan, Interview, November, 00:07:30.15).

Dylan explained how the positioning of writing at the end of the day naturally caused it to get replaced, or taken up, by other lessons. She pointed out that this caused a scheduling imbalance, in which writing instructional time was routinely devoted to other subjects, but not vice versa.

While writing instruction generally took a back seat to other subjects, Dylan did explain that writing was occasionally integrated into different content areas, such as math. She said the students were often required to write addition sentences using the sight words “and” and “is”, such as “two AND three IS five” (Dylan, Journal, September-October). The purpose of this writing was mainly to develop lower-level skills, like sight word recognition, spelling, and sentence structure.

Dylan believed that ELL writing had “very low priority” in her clinical teaching classroom, explaining “as of now, I do not notice a difference for students in developing kindergarten writing strategies,” (Dylan, Journal, September-October). This quote denotes that both Dylan and her mentor teacher believe early writing development is the same for ELLs and non-ELLs, so modifications are not needed. This is compounded by the fact that Dylan was unable to name or count the number of ELLs in her class. She stated,

We have some kids that were in Pre-K because they were ESL, but none that I have noticed...I know some I kids are considered ESL...I haven't noticed any that speak Spanish in class...so I don't think...so we have a kid that's supposedly, he was in Pre-K because he speaks Russian, but I've never heard him say a Russian word, (Dylan, Interview, Sept- Oct 2019, 00:15:08.01).

In her district, students who are ELLs automatically qualify for free Pre-K, which Dylan points to as evidence that some of her students are ELLs. However, she admits that she does not know which students they are. Dylan also seems to believe that because the ELLs have only spoken English in the classroom, they do not require linguistic support.

4.7.1.1.2. Kathleen's Classroom

Kathleen is the most experienced veteran of BTEW in the present study, having spent four semesters in the program. For clinical teaching, Kathleen was placed in a first grade classroom in a Title I school. The district of her clinical teaching school was on the border of one of the largest cities in the nation and contained a high population of economically disadvantaged students, but a low population of ELLs. The school was designated as part of the ACE program, which meant that its teachers were specially hired to raise the low school achievement scores. As an ACE school, the teachers worked longer

hours, were heavily monitored by supervisors, and were required to use data to make all instructional decisions. Kathleen was placed with a mentor teacher who had been teaching for 14 years, and had mentored a handful of other PSTs.

When discussing the positioning of writing in her clinical teaching classroom, Kathleen expressed that she felt reading was heavily prioritized over writing. She explained that approximately 100 minutes per day were officially allotted to reading instruction, whereas only 30 minutes per day were provided for writing. Compounding this was the fact that the writing instruction block was often either sacrificed for a whole-class bathroom break or to finish a reading lesson. Kathleen attributed this lack of time for writing to several things. First, she believed that the district as a whole did not really care about writing instruction, evidenced by the fact that the teachers in her school had yet to receive any training on writing, or even a writing curriculum. She felt that this negative attitude towards writing trickled down to the teachers in her building, whom she found to be as uninterested in writing as the district:

...the coach is like, oh it's not a big deal because we haven't gotten any of the resources from the district yet...it's just shocking that it's not there, and nobody seems concerned that it's not being taught, (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:21:51.02).

Kathleen explains that no one, not even the literacy coach, cares that there is no curriculum or resources for writing instruction. Having participated in a program focused entirely on writing for four semesters, Kathleen was astounded at the low priority it was given by the leadership in her school.

Kathleen also found that her mentor teacher, who was the first grade team leader, was particularly unconcerned about writing. When Kathleen first began working as a clinical teacher at the school, her mentor teacher had expressed that she did not know how to teach writing, and did not care about its instruction. As the team leader, this attitude had an influential effect on the other first grade teachers, none of whom provided any consistent instruction on the writing process.

Like Dylan, Kathleen expressed that writing instruction in her class was supposed to be guided by the Writing Workshop model (Calkins, 2005), however very little writing was actually done. In her September-October interview, Kathleen explained that her initial attempts to teach the writing process had gone awry due to her gross overestimation of the students' writing capabilities. Her attempts to teach the writing process left her feeling overwhelmed and defeated by the amount of individual instruction and conferencing required for first graders to be successful. Kathleen's lack of success combined with her mentor teacher's overall disdain for the subject caused Kathleen to set aside instruction on the writing process. However, in her November interview Kathleen explained that she had at least been successful in convincing her mentor teacher to implement writing centers targeting lower level skills. She explained,

We haven't done any composition writing, but we have done writing stations every single day. I have taught open/closed vowels, magic E, and long a spelling patterns (a_e, ai, ay) at the spelling stations. Also, I have taught capitalization, punctuation and subject/verb at the grammar station. For the low low achieving students, I have worked with them on basic phonics, (Kathleen, Journal, November).

Kathleen, having been defeated by the writing process, still managed to incorporate strategies for lower-level skill instruction that she learned in BTEW. In this way, Kathleen had struck a “writing compromise” with her mentor teacher.

The only other writing that was done in Kathleen’s class was during science and social studies, which Kathleen described as involving a lot of copying. She explained that her mentor teacher would write sentences related to the science or social studies lesson, and the students would copy it in their journals. Kathleen believed that this activity was a direct result of the heavy focus on accountability in her clinical teaching school, as teachers were continually required to present evidence of student learning.

Kathleen’s clinical teaching classroom had six ELL students, however Kathleen believed that instruction on ELL writing was an “extremely low priority” for her mentor teacher (Kathleen, Journal, September-October). In her first journal entry, Kathleen stated, “my mentor teacher and I have never talked about ELLs for any subject or lesson,” (Kathleen, Journal, September-October), which she attributed to several causes: first, she believed that her ELLs were not struggling with content any more than the other low-achieving students in her class,

Several monolingual students are lower achieving than our ELLs so I wouldn't say that a priority is only given to ELLs. The ELLs are NOT treated very differently besides any extra check in that they understand the vocabulary being used during an activity, (Kathleen, Journal, November).

She also expressed that she felt that the ELLs in her class faced more of a cultural barrier than a linguistic barrier,

...I mean culturally there's some differences, because a lot of our ELLs are Nigerian refugees. And so, like Hispanic culture is pretty common and integrated into American culture in Texas, there's a lot of Hispanic students, that's not anything new. But Nigerian students have a very different culture, especially like the African American students will make fun of the Nigerian students because they're the same skin color but they look different, talk different, act different, so...they're the ones who stick out as ELLs. But more cause culturally, not because of any language issues, (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:20:28.25).

In this quote, Kathleen explains how she believes that Hispanic culture is already heavily embedded into the culture of the school, whereas the Nigerian culture presents a significant learning barrier. Interestingly, Kathleen seems to subscribe to a similar philosophy as Dylan, in that if ELLs are able to hold a conversation in English, then they do not require any linguistic support.

In December, after Kathleen had graduated from her teacher education program and fulfilled her clinical teaching requirements, Kathleen shared that she had accepted a position as a kindergarten teacher at that same school, to begin Spring 2020. At the time of the interview, she had already begun to meet with her future teammates to plan for the following semester. She noted a huge difference in the positioning of writing between her former first grade team and her new kindergarten team, which she attributed to the difference between the lead teachers. She explained that the kindergarten lead teacher had just received professional development on the writing process, and was highly enthusiastic about the prospect of teaching writing. Kathleen, because of her experience as a BTEW teacher, was equally enthusiastic and had volunteered to be in charge of the writing lesson

plans for the team during Spring 2020. She explained, "...And I'm in charge of writing plans, so I've been making like super amazing writing plans in kindergarten now...they're so awesome and they're age-appropriate for kindergarteners, but they're still going through the whole writing process and everything," (Kathleen, Interview, December, 00:01:44.27). For Kathleen, the chance to focus on writing was what she had been waiting for to showcase the skills she cultivated in BTEW, and she was pleased to be on a team with other teachers who shared her passion.

4.7.1.1.3. Mandy's Classroom

Mandy had participated in BTEW for two semesters prior to beginning her clinical teaching, for which she was placed in a third grade classroom in a wealthy suburban district with a low number of ELLs and economically disadvantaged students. Mandy's mentor teacher had been teaching for more than a decade, and had mentored one other clinical teacher. Mandy explained that most of the students in her class were considered to be Gifted and Talented (GT), meaning that they performed at very academically high levels. She had no ELLs in her class, and only two students with learning disabilities.

Of all the PSTs, Mandy's classroom had the most robust writing instruction. Each day, her class spent 45 minutes engaging in the writing process, with an additional 20 minutes devoted to lower-level skills instruction, a schedule which was maintained faithfully. Despite being a veteran teacher, Mandy shared that her mentor teacher did not feel confident teaching writing, and was happy to release the task to Mandy: "...my teacher hates teaching writing, and doesn't like it, so I'm pretty much teaching it indefinitely until I leave," (Mandy, Interview, September-October, 00:00:15.24). For the entirety of her clinical teaching placement, Mandy was in charge of teaching both the writing process and

lower-level skills to her third grade students. Over the course of the semester, Mandy took her students through the writing cycle several times and across multiple different genres, including personal narratives (the focus of BTEW).

Mandy's writing instruction was guided by the Writing Workshop model (Calkins, 2005), meaning that it was centered around mini-lessons for each stage of the writing process, and involved daily opportunities for independent writing practice and student-teacher conferencing. Mandy explained that her students did not respond to specific prompts, but were instead provided with instruction over a specific genre, and the tools to select an appropriate topic of interest within that genre to write about. To manage the overwhelming task of writing conferencing, Mandy came up with a schedule that allowed her to meet with five students each day. She explained, "I just focus on their whole writing piece, because each kid is at such a different place, especially with having GT where we have a pretty wide range of ability levels," (Mandy, Interview, November, 00:04:09.20). Instruction was also driven by rubrics for writing that were provided by the district, and the completion of writing samples was marked by author celebrations.

Mandy explained that writing was also integrated into other content areas in her classroom, particularly in science. She explained,

I like to have them write in science, because I've taught science since like week one or week two, I like to have them write in science and have them follow sentence stems, and reflections, and compare contrast, and short answer questions in science, (Mandy, Interview, September-October, 00:13:47.20).

During her time as a clinical teacher, Mandy took a lot of ownership over integrating writing into various areas of the curriculum. She felt very supported by not only her

mentor teacher, but the school as a whole. However, she explained that no modifications were made for ELL writing because there were no ELL students in her class.

4.7.1.2. Writing Positioning in the Classroom of a Beginning Teacher- Laura's Classroom

Laura, a three-semester veteran of BTEW, is the only participant of the present study who was a Beginning Teacher in Fall 2019, meaning that she had already graduated from her teacher education program and was experiencing her first semester as an in-service teacher. Laura had accepted a job at a Title I school in a suburban district just outside of a large metropolitan area, with a high number of economically disadvantaged students. Laura indicated that she had purposefully targeted this district for employment because of her experiences working with ELLs and economically disadvantaged students in BTEW. Laura was hired as a departmentalized fifth grade teacher, meaning that she was responsible for teaching social studies and writing conventions, and three other fifth grade teachers were assigned to teach the other subjects. Laura taught four different groups of fifth grade students the same lesson(s) each day.

Because of the limitations of her departmentalization structure, Laura explained that she was only able to spend around 20 minutes per day on grammar, phonics, and spelling instruction, and then would try to incorporate writing into her social studies instruction. She said,

The week progresses from more teacher led to more student led, giving them more time to practice the skills as the week goes on. I also use writing during social studies lessons and focus on the fundamentals of writing (organization, conventions, etc.), (Laura, Journal, September-October).

In addition to this, Laura explained that she was required by the district to do weekly dictation activities with her students. These dictation activities consisted of audio recorded sentences that her students would have to transcribe word for word with correct punctuation. Afterwards, Laura was required to grade each student's transcription for punctuation, their capitalization of sentences, proper nouns, and the weekly spelling pattern.

Aside from these highly scripted lower-level skills activities, Laura explained that she tried several different strategies to incorporate writing into her social studies instruction:

...the students have completed various writing assignments to show their understanding of different social studies concepts. Exit tickets are used to quickly see where they stand on a topic- they had to write complete sentences answering the various prompts in order to leave my room. They have also had to write from the perspective of a colonist traveling to specific colonies (based on their assigned role) explaining the hardships and successes they face as a colonist. They have also written about a voyager answering specific prompts regarding the voyage and its outcome,” (Laura, Journal, September-October).

Although she was restricted to teaching only social studies and writing conventions, Laura tried to provide opportunities for her students to engage in writing activities in her classroom.

In her journals, Laura expressed that she believed her district placed “very low priority” on writing instruction (Laura, Journal, September-October). However, she did note that the social studies curriculum provided by the district required her students to

write several research papers over the course of the year. Laura expressed that she had received no guidance on how to enact this,

...there's just no consistency- like we have to do it [the research paper], but there's no real guidelines for what they want in the end... so I think that's why some people are freaking out, and I don't think they even realize that there's like conferencing and stuff involved, I'm sure they've never done that, (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:13:11.07).

Laura explained that the lack of guidance provided by the district was causing a significant amount of trepidation amongst other teachers who had little knowledge of the writing process. Laura believed that this was symptomatic of a larger issue, in which the teachers in her district received no training about writing. When discussing a professional development for new teachers, Laura explained “...the writing workshop was covered 30 minutes of the day, probably. So...still the back, the bottom of the barrel, I guess,” (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:09:20.19). In talking to other teachers in her grade level, she found that many had not done any writing in their classroom all year. Laura also suspected that her fifth grade students had never previously received writing instruction, stating

I’m going to have to really break it down, and show them exactly what they need to do, because I don't think they've ever really gone through the writing process. I think that most teachers, from what I can tell, have handed them a writing prompt and they just go and write. It's never like...I've never seen any of them planning, or going back and revising, which is crazy. So I think I'm going to have to break it

down pretty much exactly to what we would do with our kids, (Laura, Interview, December, 00:10:00.00).

Laura believes that her students have never gone through the writing process, but instead have only written in preparation for standardized exams.

Things had changed dramatically for Laura when she was interviewed in November. She explained that recently administered district assessments found her students substantially behind other district fifth graders in math performance. Because of this, Laura became designated as the mathematics-review teacher, meaning that she was now required to teach math, social studies, and writing conventions to four groups of students each day. This placed a lot of strain on Laura, who already felt that she was pressed for time with just social studies and writing conventions. Because of this, she decided to push back the first required social studies research paper until later in the year, meaning that her students would likely not receive any writing process instruction for the entirety of Fall 2019.

Laura had five students who were categorized as ELLs in her class, and a handful of others that had been exited out of the ESL program based on proficient language evaluations. She explained,

...I think there's only 5 that go to ESL during the day. But not many. It's all Spanish...and I know that we've had...I think six of them tested out last year. So...I don't even know who they are, (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:04:44.20).

Laura's school used an ESL pull-out model, in which the students designated as ELLs worked with a specifically designated ESL teacher each day. Laura explained that she also

attempted to modify her writing conventions instruction for the ELLs in her class by using pictures to go along with spelling words, and creating modified spelling word lists.

4.7.2. Discussion

While the four participants were at varying stages in their careers as teachers and located in extremely different teaching contexts, there were some shared commonalities in the positioning of writing at their respective schools, which will be discussed below.

4.7.2.1. Prioritization of Writing

First and foremost, all participants aside from Mandy felt that writing was not a high priority at their school, and was often pushed aside for other subjects deemed more important, including play time or bathroom breaks. While disheartening, this finding is not surprising and corresponds with other research that has suggested PSTs rarely see writing instruction in field placements (e.g., Fry & Griffin, 2010; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Morgan & Pytash, 2014) and that limited attention is paid to writing instruction in elementary schools (e.g., Brenner & McQuirk, 2019; Graham & Harris, 2016; Myers, Sanders, Ikpeze, Yoder, Scales, Tracy, ... & Grisham, 2019; Troia & Graham, 2016). The findings of this study expands those of existing research, as they provide an in-depth look at exactly *why* writing instruction is being pushed aside: curricular pressures make all other subjects “more important”. This is a particularly salient finding for teacher educators, as it suggests that new teachers must have a solid theoretical understanding of the importance of developing strong writers if we hope for them to prioritize writing instruction.

One interesting finding is that all participants claimed their schools’ writing curriculum was guided by the Writing Workshop model (Calkins, 2005), however only at Mandy’s school was this model enacted. The Writing Workshop is often touted as an

exemplary writing program for elementary students in practitioner articles (e.g., Bogard & McMackin, 2012; Ciampa, 2016; Kim, 2015), but to our knowledge little research has sought to investigate the comfort-level of in-service teachers with its instruction. Likewise, findings from Moody (2020) suggested that only 9% of studies on PST preparation for writing instruction were guided by the Writing Workshop framework. The findings of the present study expand our understanding of teacher knowledge, and highlights the urgent need to prepare teachers, both in-service and PSTs, for this commonly used model. Future research should further investigate teachers' understanding of the Writing Workshop model, and how this impacts their positioning of writing instruction in their classroom.

4.7.2.2. Inequities in Writing Instruction

It cannot be ignored that only Mandy's school both prioritized writing and allocated an adequate amount of time for its instruction (about 65 minutes a day). Mandy's school and district were the most affluent of all the participants- it was not a Title I school- and she was also the only participant who claimed to have GT students. By contrast, Kathleen and Laura's schools were both Title I, and both were perceived to place very little emphasis on helping the students grow as writers. This suggests a disturbing trend, in which high achieving, affluent students are the most likely to receive writing instruction- an implication that has been largely overlooked in the literature on writing instruction in U.S. schools. While many studies have sought to identify effective writing instruction strategies for low-achieving students (e.g., Collins, Lee, & Fox, 2017; Harris & Graham, 2019), little research has sought to understand a) how writing instruction is positioned in low-income and Title I schools vs. high-income schools, and b) the reasons underlying this positioning. McCarthy (2008) studied how the implementation of No

Child Left Behind (NCLB) impacted the writing instruction of high- and low-income teachers, and found that the low-income teachers were substantially more negatively influenced by the curricular pressures resulting from NCLB than the high-income teachers. While NCLB is no longer the prevailing educational law in the U.S., the results of McCarthy combined with those of the present study suggest that teachers in low-income schools may still be facing these same types of pressures. Researchers need to investigate how current educational policies impact writing instruction in various types of schools, particularly if we hope to alter the achievement gap in writing (NCES, 2015).

4.7.2.3. A Focus on Conventions

Another shared experience between all participants was the prioritization of lower-level writing skills (grammatical conventions) over teaching the writing process. In each classroom, students engaged in some form of spelling and grammar practice, although the techniques used to provide this instruction varied. In Kathleen's class, small group instruction was implemented in centers, Mandy's class completed pre-made workbooks, and Laura's class participated in a variety of whole-group activities plus dictation sentences. Only Dylan's class used interactive writing, where lower and higher level writing skills were demonstrated simultaneously; all other participants taught the writing conventions as a separate skill, meaning that it was not embedded within authentic writing. This finding corroborates the literature on teachers' beliefs about writing, namely that it is primarily about the development of lower-level skills (e.g., Hall, 2016), and that grammar is a separate subject from the content of writing (e.g., Kohnen, Caprino, Crane, & Townsend, 2019). It extends existing research by suggesting that this belief may be perpetuated by districts, such as was evidenced by Laura's departmentalization structure.

Thus, district policies surrounding writing, and writing curriculum, must be examined to determine how teachers are deriving these beliefs, and how it can be counteracted.

4.7.2.4. Placement with ELLs

The PSTs in the present study were all placed in schools for clinical teaching with a low number of ELLs. While all three had previously experienced teaching ELLs in BTEW, this was an extracurricular program that was not taken into consideration by their teacher education program when making decisions on clinical teaching placements. This suggests that without BTEW, the participants would have had very little prior hands-on experience with ELLs before beginning their teaching careers. It also implies that exposure to diverse populations was not a priority of the teacher education program when considering clinical teaching placements. The findings of the present study confirm those of Baecher and Jewkes (2014), who found that PSTs often graduate without being prepared for ELL instruction due to a paucity of exposure. However, little research has sought to understand how decisions about clinical teaching placements are made- and how *not* being placed in diverse classrooms influences PSTs teaching moving forward. The present study showed that Laura, the only BT, had purposefully chosen to work at a school with a large number of ELLs and economically disadvantaged students based on her experiences in BTEW. This adds to the literature by suggesting that diverse field experiences have a substantial impact on where PSTs choose to teach, but more research is needed with a larger number of participants before any conclusions can be made.

While most participants had very few (if any) ELLs in their classrooms, it is problematic that almost no priority was given to instructional modifications. Dylan and Kathleen both attributed their lack of modifications to their belief that the ELLs were on

the same level as the other struggling students. While it is true that not all ELLs require special modifications, research has shown that teachers often perceive fluency in conversational English as an indication that ELLs no longer need scaffolding for academic language (e.g., Villegas, SaizdeLaMora, Martin, & Mills, 2018). Likewise, teachers may believe ELLs are struggling with content, when really they are struggling with language development (Villegas et al., 2018). It is hard to say whether Dylan and Kathleen derived these beliefs about the ELLs in their class independently, or if it was a result of their mentor teacher's beliefs. Regardless, their experience with BTEW appears to not have adequately prepared them for this. Moving forward, BTEW and similar programs need to ensure that PSTs and in-service teachers are aware of when and why ELLs may still need language support, even if they appear to be conversationally fluent (Zainuddin & Moore, 2004).

One interesting finding is that neither Dylan's nor Kathleen's mentor teacher ever discussed ELL-specific instruction or modification for any type of lesson, despite each having a small handful of ELLs in their class. This could be because only 26.8% of teachers nationwide are prepared to teach ELLs (NCES, 2017), and in general, teachers struggle to enact culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogies (Richmond, Bartell, Floden, & Jones, 2020). It becomes evident, then, that teacher education programs interested in preparing PSTs to work with diverse populations should carefully select mentor teachers who exemplify high quality instruction for diverse learners, and require training for mentor teachers to ensure that their practices align to that of the teacher education program. Unfortunately, there is a general lack of guidelines for what "good" clinical teaching mentoring looks like, from both teacher education programs and state

departments (e.g., Clarke, Triggs, & Nielsen, 2014). In perusing the state department of education's website for the present study, we were unable to locate any requirements for mentor teachers of PSTs, despite the fact that specific standards were set for mentors of BTs (TEA, 2019). As for the requirements of the teacher education program, a search of the college's website yielded only one PowerPoint (PPT) "training" for mentors, covering the developmental stages of teaching, qualities of a successful mentor, and how to provide instructional support (CEHD, 2018). No mention is made in the PPT of specific theoretical or pedagogical understandings and values of the college, meaning that mentor teachers are unlikely to know how best to support PSTs developing understandings of teaching. As stated by Darling-Hammond (2014),

It is impractical to expect to prepare teachers for schools as they should be if teachers are constrained to learn in settings that typify the problems of schools as they have been—where isolated teachers provide examples of idiosyncratic, usually atheoretical practice that rarely exhibits a diagnostic, assessment-oriented approach and infrequently offers access to carefully selected strategies designed to teach a wide range of learners well, (p. 553).

Teacher education programs need to carefully consider where PSTs are being placed, and what teachers they are being placed with. The influence of the mentor teacher in clinical teaching is widely recognized as one of the most significant contributors to future teaching; thus, if mentor teachers do not acknowledge or modify for ELLs, it is unlikely that their mentees will do so either (Ferber & Nillas, 2010). Thus, mentor teachers should be carefully selected based on their exemplification of high-quality teaching that aligns with the goals of the university. They should also be provided with training specific to the goals

of the teacher education program. Only in this way will field experiences complement coursework in a way that yields efficacy and proficiency for working with ELLs and other diverse learners (Garver, Eslami, & Tong, 2018).

4.8. Research Question Two

4.8.1. Results

The second research question seeks to answer the question *how did BTEW influence the classroom teaching practices of PST and BT participants?*. For this question, how each participant perceived the impact of BTEW on their clinical and BT experiences are investigated.

4.8.1.1. The Impact of BTEW on the Clinical Teachers

To begin, we will investigate how BTEW influenced the clinical teaching experiences of the PSTs. It is essential to remember that while clinical teaching is designed to imitate the experience of in-service teachers, the structure of the classroom, classroom management, and responsibility for student outcomes lies squarely on the shoulders of the mentor teachers. Thus, the PSTs in the present study, while present and active in the classroom every day of the Fall 2019 semester, were restricted in their instruction in ways that in-service teachers would not be. Below, the stories of each PST will be discussed.

4.8.1.1.1. Dylan's Story

Dylan acknowledged that participation in BTEW impacted her in several ways. Broadly, Dylan believed that she was a lot less nervous at the prospect of teaching whole-group lessons after having two semesters of experience as a teacher in BTEW. She also believed that the opportunity to work with struggling writers and ELLs in BTEW prepared her to face the challenge of working with struggling kindergarten students, and enabled her

to quickly recognize their needs. In regards to writing instruction, Dylan explained that she modeled the structure of her mini-lessons after those she conducted in BTEW. Perhaps the greatest influence of BTEW for Dylan, though, was her ability to evaluate and judge the quality of writing instruction in her kindergarten class. She said,

I think they need, like...we skip around too much from the very beginning of making a story to the very end, so in between they don't know...have no clue what a story is...So they don't know the different parts, that there's a beginning middle end, they just draw random pictures. Which I know is because it's kindergarten, but I feel like that's a concept that they could do," (Dylan, Interview, November, 00:17:47.15).

Dylan's experience in BTEW instilled in her a belief in the process of writing, and caused her to realize that students need instruction on organization and structure if they are to develop as writers.

4.8.1.1.2. Kathleen's Story

As the participant with the most experience in BTEW, it is perhaps unsurprising that Kathleen perceived her clinical teaching to be heavily influenced by her participation in the program. First, she felt that BTEW influenced her confidence for general teaching, such as confidence for materials management, working with ELLs, providing comprehensible input, and helping students achieve learning goals. In terms of classroom management, she stated

I am realizing how much BTEW has influenced my classroom management.

Lately, I have caught myself starting to slip on discipline and letting things go and I am experiencing the repercussions of that. BTEW taught me to NEVER let up and

NEVER let anything slide and it really does matter. I am grateful that I 1) know that it's necessary and 2) know how to accomplish that, (Kathleen, Journal, November).

Kathleen believed that her experience with classroom management in BTEW not only influenced how she enacted classroom management in her clinical teaching, but also caused her to understand its importance.

Aside from this, Kathleen felt that her experiences in BTEW influenced the priority that she placed on writing instruction during clinical teaching. In her journal, Kathleen wrote

I feel like a writing angel compared to the other teachers...LITERALLY no other teachers are teaching writing. Writing lesson plans aren't reviewed and they aren't used. I am the only one in first grade actually preparing and teaching writing lessons, (Kathleen, Journal, September-October).

While Kathleen was only a clinical teacher, she still attempted to exert her influence over writing instruction to the extent that it was possible. To illustrate, Kathleen initially attempted to teach the narrative writing process to her first grade students, but faced many obstacles, such as time and lack of mentor teacher support, that made this unsustainable. Not to be deterred, Kathleen presented her mentor teacher with the idea of doing writing stations for lower-level skills,

So I originally presented it just for our classroom to do lower-level writing stations, because I could tell that my teacher was not on board with the writing process because it was too time-consuming, and she thought that our students weren't ready. So I came up with the idea to do writing stations, and I presented it as we did

it in BTEW where we had grammar, spelling, handwriting, (Kathleen, Interview, November, 00:04:11.18).

Without her influence, Kathleen believed that her mentor teacher would not have provided any instruction on writing. Kathleen used her knowledge of teaching lower-level skills that she acquired in BTEW to design a feasible writing program for her first grade students. She even professed to using materials and strategies that she acquired through BTEW to guide her instruction over those provided by the district, stating, “I literally have only used the lessons and worksheets that I learned for BTEW. I haven't used anything from the state curriculum,” (Kathleen, Journal, September-October).

Kathleen believes that her passion for writing, cultivated through her time in BTEW, had a substantial impact on her mentor teacher and other first grade teammates. When describing her initial encounters with her mentor teacher, Kathleen stated, “...she doesn't teach writing at all so she invites any strategies I have,” (Kathleen, Journal, November). Kathleen also described that her mentor teacher had made comments to the effect of “I’m the one who is supposed to be teaching you,” (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:36:53.07). Thus, Kathleen’s knowledge of writing from BTEW surpassed that of her mentor teacher, to the point where her mentor teacher felt that the learning process had become reciprocal. Kathleen later expressed how her passion for writing transferred to her mentor, explaining

Since I came, writing has become a higher priority for my mentor teacher. I think she felt very overwhelmed at the thought of it, however, when I gave her the idea to start out with stations teaching lower level writing skills, she loved it, (Kathleen, Journal, November).

Kathleen felt that she had a genuine impact on the practice of her mentor teacher, as well as the rest of the first grade teachers, who also began to teach lower-level writing skills after Kathleen's mentor teacher began. In her final interview she explained,

...the first grade team isn't doing writing, they're doing writing skills that I invented for them [laughs]. Which is better than nothing, because they were doing literally nothing before, but it's not like the writing process, it's writing skills," (Kathleen, Interview, December, 00:09:29.08).

In this quote, Kathleen discusses her influence over the practice of the rest of the teachers, while still lamenting the lack of writing process instruction. It is evident that through BTEW, Kathleen was aware of the importance of building both higher and lower-level writing skills, but was willing to settle for just one if it meant that writing was focused on in some small way. While she expressed frustration over the lack of writing instruction across the grade level, she also acknowledged that without BTEW, she would be the same way. She explained,

...I have no idea what my knowledge of writing would be without BTEW. I never even thought about teaching writing ever before BTEW....but I had no idea how equipped or how capable I would feel about teaching writing if I didn't have BTEW. Because it feels like a really big task...at least with lower kids I would feel super overwhelmed with the task of teaching kids how to write...I would've just been like you can't do it let's wait for third grade, which is horrible because I know now you shouldn't, but I think that would be probably be my mindset if I didn't have BTEW," (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:24:19.01).

Kathleen discusses how she understands the complexity of teaching writing, and sympathizes with the idea of waiting to teach writing until students are in the upper elementary grades. She acknowledges that BTEW played a huge role in her understanding of writing instruction, and is the main reason she privileges its instruction.

In Kathleen's final interview, she explained how she believed BTEW contributed to her getting a new position as a kindergarten teacher,

They told me multiple times...after the interview, that they were extremely impressed with my ability to balance...like, discipline and instruction...they were really impressed with my ability to do both those things, which literally all of that I learned from BTEW, and I wouldn't have been able to command a room as quickly if I hadn't practiced that in BTEW, (Kathleen, Interview, December, 00:18:34.22).

Kathleen explains that her experience in BTEW gave her the capability and confidence to juggle instruction and classroom management during her teaching demonstration, something she would have been unable to do without BTEW. Along the same lines, she expressed that her knowledge of writing pedagogy gleaned from her time in BTEW equipped her to plan the writing lessons for her kindergarten team,

[Kindergarten lead teacher] went to the training, and she was talking all about it...So I talked to her for like an hour after school, I was like, *these are the ideas that we have, this is what we could do, we could pull this from what I learned at BTEW, this is what you did at the training*, and so I like...I'm not using any of the curriculum, I'm making up all the writing plans on my own," (Kathleen, Interview, December, 00:03:42.25).

Despite the fact that she was facing her first semester as a full time in-service teacher, Kathleen was full of ideas and felt well equipped to tackle the challenge of planning for writing instruction because of BTEW.

4.8.1.1.3. Mandy's Story

Mandy had participated in the BTEW program for two semesters before she began her clinical teaching in an affluent, suburban elementary school. While her students were neither demographically nor academically similar to the students in BTEW, she still attributed a lot of her instructional successes during clinical teaching to her participation in the program. Much like Kathleen, Mandy felt that BTEW had prepared her for aspects of classroom management such as redirecting misbehaviors and maintaining student engagement. She also felt that her experience delivering whole class lessons in BTEW had fine-tuned her ability to provide clear and coherent explanations, and to model new material for students.

Mandy also attributed BTEW to her successes teaching writing. Mandy's class was the only one, out of all the participants, that consistently engaged the students in process writing instruction using the Writing Workshop model. Mandy felt like she understood the important aspects of the Writing Workshop, such as the use of mentor texts, based on her time in BTEW. Most importantly, she believed, was her knowledge of how to provide explicit instruction on writing:

...I understand how hard it is to teach writing after BTEW, if I hadn't had that...I wouldn't have realized how much modeling you have to do, and how explicitly you have to teach it, and how many skills you have to break up and explicitly teach in the whole process, like GT or ELL, having to explicitly teach different types of

leads, or hooks and write that, like write something interesting,” (Mandy, Interview, September-October, 00:23:35.00).

Mandy believes that BTEW helped her understand the importance of conducting mini lessons on each step of the writing process, and modeling each aspect.

Also like Kathleen, Mandy noted that the teachers in her school engaged in writing instruction reluctantly. She expressed that even though her mentor teacher did teach writing, she never enjoyed it or felt confident about it. Mandy believed that she was a positive role model for her mentor teacher in this regard, explaining

She said she's never been good at it, she's never been comfortable teaching it, and she has a hard time- I think she as a hard time explaining and modeling and thinking out the process and how to explicitly teach it, and I don't think that I would know how to model and explicitly teach it if I hadn't had to break it down so far for BTEW, (Mandy, Interview, September-October, 00:07:10.20).

Later, Mandy proudly proclaimed “My mentor teacher told me she actually learned something from me as a writing teacher, so that was pretty huge, because she's in her 11th year of teaching and is absolutely amazing at what she does,” (Mandy, Interview, November, 00:12:36.24). Thus, the interview data suggests that Mandy’s knowledge of writing instruction from BTEW had a positive influence on her student’s writing development, and her mentor teacher’s knowledge.

In her final interview, Mandy discussed how BTEW had helped her get her new job as an in-service teacher. She had accepted a position at a Title I school as a second grade teacher in a class with a large number of ELLs, a challenge that she was excited for. She explained,

...BTEW made me not terrified of Title I...I didn't picture myself ending up in a high-mobility, high-risk...I didn't picture myself in that setting, at all, as a teacher. And I was kind of scared of it. Because of course, I'm a five foot tall white girl, why would I ever go there? And BTEW kind of changed my mind on that and showed me that like the kids weren't scary, and they were loving, and they needed me more than my old class needed me, and that was really reinforced for me this semester," (Mandy, Interview, December, 00:15:31.14).

In this excerpt, Mandy explains how her experience working with GT students in clinical teaching helped her realize that her passion was actually for teaching Title I students, something that she had not previously imagined she would be capable of. Mandy also attributed her acquisition of the job to BTEW. She explained that her new principal was very impressed with her resume, not only because she had taken the initiative to pursue a teaching experience outside of the bounds of traditional teacher education programs, but because it showed prior experience working with ELLs.

4.8.1.2. The Influence of BTEW on a Beginning Teacher- Laura's Story

Laura previously participated in BTEW for three semesters, so it is no wonder that she believed her teaching was heavily influenced by the program. In her September-October interview, Laura explained how she did not struggle with establishing routines and procedures, a common challenge for most BTs,

I've kind of just copied what we did, where basically everything is, I dictate the times, the timer, it's a set schedule every day they know exactly what they do when they come in, how to leave, so I feel like the way I run my classroom is BTEW...and I've had to go back and re-do some stuff, but overall I haven't had any

days where I'm, like, miserable, or feel like I don't have control, for sure. Which is nice. Because I think that's the biggest problem at first,” (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:22:33.07).

Thus, instead of having to waste instructional time tackling classroom management, Laura was quickly able to get her classroom structured in an efficient way, which she “copied” from her time with BTEW. Laura also believed her experiences in BTEW helped her understand how to capture and maintain student engagement, to make on-the-spot lesson adaptations, and to provide modifications for ELLs.

While not in charge of teaching the writing process, Laura still believed the knowledge she gleaned from BTEW was beneficial in her position as a BT because it caused her to prioritize writing more. In her November journal, Laura explained how she incorporated writing into her social studies instruction, “I just integrate writing into my lessons a lot...I try to pull from what we did in BTEW. I don't have to follow any curriculum because I am choosing to integrate it on my own,” (Laura, Journal, November). Later, when Laura had to begin teaching math, she explained how she applied “creative” techniques to incorporate as much writing as possible into her instruction.

Laura also discussed how her experiences with BTEW made her much more prepared to tackle the challenge of the social studies research papers than the other teachers she encountered at her district training. She explained,

Yeah, I mean, I was looking at it yesterday, because I had one of my new teacher meetings or whatever, and some of them are like freaking out. Um...but it just kind of looked like almost the same set up that we used to do,” (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:04:02.06).

In this excerpt, Laura nonchalantly explains how the assignment that was so intimidating to other teachers felt routine to her.

Like both Kathleen and Mandy, Laura also attributes her job acquisition to her experience in BTEW. She explained,

And I've even asked because I'm definitely the youngest...I think I'm the only first year teacher, and they hired quite a few...and just, from what I gathered, the only reason they pulled my name to interview me was because the resume was, like, so different than a normal first year," (Laura, Interview, December, 00:15:36.07).

Laura explains that, despite the fact that there is a large number of teachers new to the school, she is the only BT, indicating that her BTEW enhanced resume helped her stand out from other new teachers vying for the job.

4.8.2. Discussion

Despite being situated in very different contexts, the participants in the present study all believed that BTEW was highly influential over their classroom management capabilities, knowledge of writing, and prioritization of writing. By the same token, all experienced similar difficulties that provide important implications for the BTEW program, and others like it. The positive and negative influences of BTEW will be discussed below.

4.8.2.1. BTEW Influence Over Classroom Management

Overall, the participants believed that BTEW influenced them in similar ways. First and foremost, their classroom management was highly impacted by BTEW. Classroom management is one of the main challenges faced by BTs (Gourneau, 2014; Johnson & Dabney, 2018), usually because they enter classrooms with already established

management systems in place, or because the mentor teacher is reluctant to turn this incredibly important responsibility over to an inexperienced teacher. When BTs begin teaching, they often experience difficulty in managing student behaviors while delivering instruction, establishing effective routines and procedures, maintaining student engagement, effectively managing time, and juggling student demands vs. school requirements. BTEW, however, provided a unique context for the participants to take agency over their own classroom, as the PSTs were alone in the classroom- without a mentor teacher- from the first day, meaning that the responsibility for all classroom routines, procedures, and student behaviors was theirs. Thus, because they had already successfully managed a classroom by the time they began their clinical and BT experiences, their efficacy was high (e.g., McKeown et al., 2018; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

4.8.2.2. BTEW Influence Over Writing Instruction

Another similarity between all participants was their belief that they were more prepared for writing instruction than other teachers, whether it be their mentor teachers or other BTs. This is not surprising, as few teacher education programs offer courses in writing pedagogy, resulting in serious gaps of knowledge (e.g., Myers et al., 2019). Along the same lines, the participants in the present study all highly prioritized writing instruction. Kathleen developed a writing centers program, Mandy took over all writing instruction to ensure that it was enacted daily, and Laura incorporated writing into both social studies and math. Dylan took little autonomy over her classroom, but still seemed to believe that writing should be privileged. Their prioritization of writing is quite unusual, as research shows that 80% of PSTs believe that daily writing is unimportant (Collier, Foley, Moguel, & Barnard, 2018). Additionally, Kathleen's willingness to confront her mentor

teacher's negative attitudes towards writing and demand writing centers instruction shows her absolute commitment to the subject, as Jensen (2019) reports that PSTs find it quite difficult to challenge school-based norms. This same reason is likely why Dylan did not attempt to initiate new writing procedures in her classroom. This study is among the first to illustrate how a PST program on writing influences actual teaching actions over an entire semester (e.g., Goldhaber, 2019). More longitudinal research is needed to understand the impact of a writing preparation programs on classroom actions, particularly in low-income and Title I schools, in which teachers face significant other curricular demands (McCarthy, 2008).

4.8.2.3. Gaps in BTEW

After the present study had concluded, Dylan reported that she had received a job as a second grade teacher at a Title I school. Thus, all four participants ended up as in-service teachers at Title I schools. This finding supports the literature that claims exposure to working with diverse populations will yield higher efficacy for their instruction, and take away the fear of “the other” (e.g., Jimenez-Silva et al., 2011). That being said, the lack of focus on ELLs in the present study was a bit of surprise and disappointment, given that a heavy focus of BTEW was how to make writing digestible for language learners. While all claimed that BTEW provided them with higher efficacy for ELL instruction, it is disheartening to realize that BTEW did not seem to instill in them a need to modify instruction for ELLs in the same way that it influenced their desire to include writing instruction in the curriculum. On the contrary, aside from small linguistic supports, the participants believed that their ELLs required very little instructional modifications in any area, and certainly not in writing. Cabezas and Rouse (2014) have found this to be a

common issue, postulating that mainstream teachers often believe that English immersion is all ELLs need to become linguistically proficient. This finding has important implications for the BTEW program, and others like it. Namely, BTEW should have focused more heavily on teaching the participants how to recognize conversational English proficiency (often called BICS) versus proficiency in academic language (or CALP) (Cummins, 2008). It is likely that the PSTs in this study believed the ELLs to be no different than other struggling learners, and therefore felt that they did not require modifications. This suggests that BTEW should have taught its participants to recognize when students are struggling with content versus when students are struggling with language (Zainuddin & Moore, 2004). Thus, while all participants purported to be more prepared to work with ELLs because of BTEW, there is little actual evidence of this in their stated actions.

It is also somewhat surprising how little priority was given to writing conferencing. In BTEW, the participants were trained in how to provide effective feedback and were required to conduct writing conferencing each day. However, writing conferencing was not an integral part of teaching writing for most of the participants. For example, Kathleen tried several different approaches to implement conferencing, but ended up giving up due to time constraints and her lack of ability to manage the needs of so many students at once. Laura, despite assigning multiple small writing projects within social studies, did not begin conferencing until December, when the school year was almost halfway over. Dylan admitted that her conferencing mostly involved her wandering around and checking to see if the students were on task. Unsurprisingly, only Mandy implemented a strict writing conferencing schedule that she remained faithful to. This is unfortunate, as writing

conferencing is one of the most important components of the writing process, and a lack of feedback on writing will impede students' ability to make progress as writers (e.g., Ballock et al., 2018). For the most part, it seemed like the participants faced barriers in both time (not enough of it) and classroom management (too many students for one teacher). BTEW may have given the participants unrealistic expectations of what classroom conferencing should look like; in BTEW, students had approximately 20-30 minutes a day for independent writing, with two to four teachers per day conducting conferences. Because neither time nor teacher support was an issue, it is likely that the participants did not learn how to effectively manage conferencing within a traditional school environment. Moving forward, the BTEW program would be enhanced by teaching PSTs how to handle the realities of classroom conferencing, such as how to manage time and make opportunities to meet with all students. Ricks, Morrison, Wilcox, and Cutri (2017) recommend that conferencing follow a predictable structure and pattern, such as having students who require feedback adding their name to a "wait list" for assistance. Calkins and Ehrenworth (2016) stress the importance of making sure that teachers are engaging students in conferencing throughout all stages of the writing process, so that feedback is not withheld until final versions of the paper. Moving forward, BTEW would benefit from explicit exposure to creating conferencing schedules across stages of the writing process and within limited time confines.

Also overlooked by BTEW was the use of writing rubrics, an important tool to help students improve their writing through clear cut tasks and goals (Saddler, Saddler, Befoorhooz, & Cuccio-Slichko, 2014). This oversight was reflected in the fact that neither Dylan nor Kathleen mentioned the use of rubrics, despite struggling to navigate writing

instruction and conferencing. Mandy, on the other hand, had to request assistance from her mentor teacher in learning how to use the required rubric. Laura, the only BT, was tasked with creating her own rubric for the upcoming social studies research project, but did not feel confident in her ability to do so. Thus, participants of BTEW or similar programs would benefit from direct instruction on how to use rubrics, such as the 6+1 Writing Traits, to give feedback, and also how to create their own rubrics to evaluate student writing.

4.9. Research Question Three

4.9.1. Results

The third research question asks, *what tensions and/or unexpected challenges are PST and BT participants experiencing between how writing instruction was enacted and positioned in BTEW, and what is expected in schools?* This question specifically attempts to explore any conflicts between writing instruction in BTEW and in the schools, as little research has discussed exactly what the mismatch between university coursework and school instruction is (e.g., Tigert & Peercy, 2018). In this question we will seek to uncover tensions, or practices in direct contrast to what the participants believe are “best”, as well as unexpected challenges, or things that they were not prepared for based on their prior experiences in BTEW.

4.9.1.1. Tensions and Unexpected Challenges in Clinical Teaching

To begin, the experiences of each PST in clinical teaching will be explored. Literature on clinical teaching acknowledges that PSTs often encounter practices that go against what they have learned in their teacher education programs (e.g., Clarke et al., 2014), thus this section will uncover what Dylan, Kathleen, and Mandy perceive to be tensions and challenges in their clinical teaching experience.

4.9.1.1.1. Dylan's Experience

4.9.1.1.1.1. Tensions

During her time as a clinical teacher in kindergarten, Dylan experienced a handful of tensions between the writing practices of her mentor teacher and those she had learned in BTEW: a lack of focus on the writing process, boring writing assignments, low expectations for students' writing, and mismanagement of class time resulting in insufficient prioritizing of writing. Each of these will be discussed further below.

While working with her mentor teacher, Dylan expressed frustration at how little emphasis was placed on teaching the writing process. She acknowledged that kindergarten writing was inherently different from second grade writing, however still believed that the students could have handled instruction beyond what they were given. She explained,

I thought it would've been a little more structured, because it's kind of like let them write whatever they want...whenever they get their time to go write in their books, they just go and scribble and color, which my teacher says that's what they're supposed to be doing, but I feel like they could do more, (Dylan, Interview, September-October, 00:18:49.09).

Dylan felt that there were many missed opportunities for the students to produce a cohesive piece of writing. Her frustration at the situation compounded when she realized that her teacher would continually forgo already planned mini-lessons on the writing process for other activities, or simply for free writing.

Along the same lines, Dylan believed that her mentor teacher had too low of expectations for the students, and that they deserved to be challenged more "...I feel like they just kind of don't know what to do, which they draw and color, but I feel like they

could do more,” (Dylan, Interview, 00:18:49.09). She believed that the low expectations for writing coupled with uninspired “free writing” time caused her students to believe that writing was boring and unenjoyable. She expressed concern that their instruction was instilling an early sense of dread for the subject of writing by having the students spend day after day scribbling meaninglessly. She explained that many behavior problems manifested during writing time, because the students were not challenged by, or engaged in, the assignment.

A major tension Dylan faced was the mismanagement of class time, resulting in insufficient prioritizing of writing. While she acknowledged that this was partially because of district pressure to squeeze too many subjects into a small amount of time, she also believed that more could be done to ensure that writing instruction occurred regularly. For example, she took umbrage at the placement of writing close to the end of the day, because it naturally resulted in skipped or missed lessons, explaining

“Like maybe move it up in the day so that it...a lot of times we don’t have time for it because we run out of time for the class and some other things, so I would move the schedule around so we did always have time,” (Dylan, Interview, November, 00:16:48.16).

Along the same lines, Dylan shared that her teacher would often unnecessarily skip writing instruction in favor of other activities that Dylan felt were less important. She explained that while they sometimes genuinely needed the extra time for other subjects, like reading, other times writing could have easily been accomplished:

...like probably at least twice a week we run over time for something else, and like...because they have free centers at the end of the day which is just them

playing, because they need that, so if we run over with like math or something, we'll say *I guess we're just going to free centers, we don't have time for writing, even if we have maybe 10 or 15 minutes,*" (Dylan, Interview, September-October, 00:07:46.13).

In this excerpt, Dylan is concerned with the wasted 10-15 minutes that could have been used for a writing mini-lesson or interactive writing, that were instead dedicated to social play time. Along the same lines, Dylan highlighted several times in which writing instruction was skipped to provide students with a second recess period, or to sing songs like the hokey-pokey. Her frustration at the lack of priority given to writing was confounded by her conflicting feelings regarding the socio-emotional needs of kindergartners.

4.9.1.1.1.2. Unexpected Challenges

While working as a clinical teacher in kindergarten, Dylan also experienced some challenges that BTEW did not prepare her for. For one, she did not expect the contrast between kindergarten writing and second grade (the focus of BTEW) writing to be so great. She was surprised that the kindergarten writing curriculum focused primarily on transcribing names, using colors, and forming letters. Because this writing was so totally different from what she had learned in BTEW, she was forced to re-examine her expectations for what writing instruction should look like.

Dylan also faced some student challenges that she did not expect, namely that they were generally not motivated to write, and struggled with generating ideas to write about. She said, "...they need something that they can write about because 1) they're not excited to write, and 2) they don't know what to write about, so they just scribble, so they start

talking and getting up, or whatever else,” (Dylan, Interview, September-October, 00:32:00.09). Because students in BTEW were highly engaged in the writing process, including idea generation and development, the concept of “free writing” proved to be more of a challenge than she had expected.

Finally, Dylan felt unprepared to work with students on such a wide variety of levels. She explained that

...some of them can, especially the ones that went to Pre-K, can write sentences.

They're not all correct, but...and then we have kids that have never been to school, and there's no words on their paper, they'll put random words together if that, or they're still scribbling, (Dylan, Interview, September-October, 00:05:43.27).

This wide variation of ability levels was intimidating for Dylan, and she did not feel that BTEW had prepared her for this classroom reality.

4.9.1.1.2. Kathleen's Experience

4.9.1.1.2.1. Tensions

Kathleen experienced many of the same tensions in her clinical teaching that Dylan faced, from tensions over the general writing curriculum, to the priority placed on writing, and coping with district demands. To begin, Kathleen disagreed strongly with the idea that writing involved worksheets and copying. Because her clinical teaching was at an ACE school, where accountability was paramount, she explained

Everything is a worksheet because everything has to be measurable...So like, every day you have your DOL- demonstration of learning- and that's always on paper.

And that's just like one or two questions to make sure that they understood it, but

it's just like, that's the whole mentality at this school, we need data to prove it,
(Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:13:43.19).

In the context of writing, Kathleen found this to be unacceptable, as writing is much more complex and nuanced than what can be adequately expressed through a worksheet. She also lamented the fact that her mentor teacher required the students to do a lot of copying in science and social studies, instead of authentic journaling or inquiry writing.

One source of tension for Kathleen was her mentor teacher's lack of support for what Kathleen perceived to be "good" writing instruction. In her first interview, Kathleen described one situation that was particularly frustrating for her:

...they [the students] told me a small moment and I wrote it on a paper and I had them sound it out and I just spelled it how they sounded it out because I wanted to model *don't worry about spelling we're writing it how we're sounding it out*, and the teacher came in and was like "what is that?" and I was like "that's what they told me to write, shut up, don't point out that it's bad spelling because they don't need to worry about that right now", (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:30:30.01).

In this incident, Kathleen was adhering to what she believed were best practices for interactive writing, which for her meant ignoring traditional conventions and focusing on modeling developmentally appropriate writing. However, her mentor teacher did not recognize or legitimize this strategy, leaving Kathleen feeling undermined in front of the students. By the same token, Kathleen felt that the writing curriculum provided by the district was "HORRIBLE, HORRIBLE...it's HORRIBLE," (Kathleen, Interview,

December, 00:03:42.25), which likely contributed to the general misunderstanding of the writing process by the teachers around her.

Like Dylan, Kathleen felt that the curricular demands from the district were a major impediment to writing instruction:

...technically our writing time is from 9:50-10:30, but I don't think that 40 minutes is enough for writing, and also we never actually start at 9:50 because we don't have enough time for reading, so then reading runs into writing, and then we end up with 20 minutes and there's nothing you can accomplish in that time so..."

(Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:00:16.24).

In this, Kathleen expresses frustration first at the lack of time dedicated to writing each day, and second laments the fact that writing is continually eaten up for more "important" subjects like reading. She also discusses how their writing time is wasted on ancillary things like whole-class bathroom breaks or testing. She explains,

...anytime there's testing that needs to be done it happens during writing. If there's library, it happens during writing. Like, all of our DRA testing happened during writing. Math testing, math testing...all the testing happens during writing. Because no one wants to sacrifice reading or math, (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:10:47.05).

Writing instruction in Kathleen's class was continually sacrificed for other things, making it almost impossible for her to provide continuous instruction on the writing process. She believed it to be symptomatic of an overall antipathy towards writing in the school. When discussing her mentor teacher's lack of enthusiasm for writing and willingness to sacrifice it for other things, Kathleen explains "Reading seems more important, math seems more

important, your principal is telling you it is, the STAAR test is- like everybody forgets about writing. So I don't blame her...I just don't personally, I don't think it's an excuse,” (Kathleen, Interview, November, 00:32:28.21).

As mentioned earlier, Kathleen and her mentor teacher faced considerable pressure to perform as part of the ACE program. This meant that all learning had to be accountable, causing them to spend a significant portion of each week collecting worksheet-based data. She also bemoaned the “strict” lesson structure that was required:

The lesson plan structure (Warm up, Focus, Model, Guided Practice, Independent Practice, and Closure) is TOO LONG to do for EACH lesson EVERY single day. The only way to get it done is by skipping a part of the lesson cycle OR skipping a whole subject,” (Kathleen, Journal, September-October).

Kathleen believes that the district’s demand for a specific lesson structure made writing instruction unrealistic given the amount of time they were allotted.

4.9.1.1.2.2. Unexpected Challenges

Like Dylan, Kathleen also struggled with the contrast between first and second grade writing,

First grade is HARD. Because they're expected to do SO much but they know SO little...at the beginning I was like *let's write a class story*, and jumped right in, and expected to accomplish this much on each day, and I was like whoa it's going to take us like three days to talk about freaking small moments because they don't know anything, (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:26:08.21).

Kathleen had expected her first grade students to be able to perform similarly to the below-level second grade students that she worked with in BTEW. The frustration of trying

unsuccessfully to teach the writing process like she had done in BTEW caused her to believe that the students needed more foundational knowledge before they would be prepared for the writing process,

So...a lot of them...like can't even read a CVC word. They can't sound out c-a-t...we have like 10 kids, probably, in our first grade class who just sit there and stare at their paper, and there's only two of us...so it's just like...(Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:08:36.27).

In this quote, Kathleen explains that because her students cannot read or sound out words, she believes that they are unable to put their thoughts onto the paper in a way that would allow them to participate in the writing process. By the same token, Kathleen expressed concern that her students spent too much time focusing on spelling instead of putting their ideas on paper, “..spelling bothers them so much...lower kids aren't as confident in what they have to say so they get hung up on spelling,” (Kathleen, Interview, September-October, 00:27:10.08). Kathleen believes that many of her students cannot move past their focus on spelling to begin putting ideas to paper, and she also posits that her lower-achieving students use spelling as an excuse to cover their uncertainty about their writing topic.

Kathleen also echoed Dylan’s concern about idea generation, stating that her students were unable to generate ideas on their own. She explained that it was too difficult for her and her mentor teacher to work with every student individually to generate ideas, which made getting started on the writing process nearly impossible. This was a surprise to Kathleen, who explained “I just assumed that they’d be able to generate ideas as well as

the kids did in BTEW, and that's not the case,” (Kathleen, Interview, November, 00:37:45.14).

Another unexpected challenge that Kathleen faced is related to the enactment of writing instruction; she was surprised by the inconsistent opportunities to teach writing that resulted from the writing instructional period being taken away for other things. She expressed frustration at this, primarily because she would devote hours of her personal time to planning writing lessons, and then never get the opportunity to enact them. When she was able to teach writing, she was surprised at how much more difficult it was without the support of her BTEW co-teachers,

It's so hard to do alone. In BTEW, there were so many teachers so we could divide and conquer writing conferencing. I am realizing that the writing process will have to be a lot slower when I do it on my own because first-graders need individual attention which will slow the process down, (Kathleen, Journal, September-October).

Thus, BTEW had given her unrealistic expectations about the pace that she could enact writing instruction as a solo teacher.

4.9.1.1.3. Mandy's Experience

4.9.1.1.3.1. Tensions

Of all the participants in the present study, Mandy was the one who experienced the least amount of tensions in surrounding writing instruction. Across all journal entries and interviews, Mandy's only tension was an occasional comment about the amount of time required for reading instruction, and that she was not able to conference with each student every day, as she had been in BTEW.

4.9.1.1.3.2. Unexpected Challenges

When Mandy was a teacher in BTEW, her instruction had focused primarily on teaching writing with technological supports, such as applying automatic spelling correction in Google Docs to support editing. Her clinical teaching, however, required a more traditional approach to writing instruction, causing Mandy to believe that her prior experience integrating technology had been a disservice to her development. She explained,

I wish I had been able to teach something other than technology. I gained great experience from the program but tech is not common for writing in the classroom right now so I wish I had more experience with a more traditional writing process, (Mandy, Journal, September-October).

Mandy believed that the differences between teaching with and without technology had impacted her knowledge of how to teach all stages, such as editing. By the same token, Mandy was tasked with providing writing instruction to GT third grade students, who were the complete opposite of the struggling second grade students she had worked with in BTEW. This presented a unique challenge for her because she had to “...really coach them on elaborating and not just very basic skills,” (Mandy, Journal, November).

Despite working with GT students, Mandy was still surprised by the challenges they faced. Specifically, she mentioned that her students struggled with capitalization and developing “small moments” within their writing. Like Dylan, she commented on their lack of motivation for writing, explaining “It’s hard to make kids write who really don’t want to,” (Mandy, Journal, November).

4.9.1.2. Tensions and Unexpected Challenges in Beginning Teaching- Laura's Experience

As the only BT in the study, it is perhaps surprising that Laura faced very similar tensions and challenges to other participants in the present study. One notable difference, however, was that many of the tensions experienced by Laura came from district mandates, something which she was exposed to much more heavily than the PSTs. Laura's tensions and challenges will be discussed further below.

4.9.1.2.1. Tensions

Similar to the other participants, Laura faced some significant tensions regarding the amount of time allotted to writing. While already confined to teaching basic writing conventions, Laura was appalled when that instruction was basically taken away and replaced with additional math prep, commenting

...now with teaching 3 subjects, and I only have them for an hour...it's hard to fit in everything I'm supposed to be doing...That was something I struggled with once they added math in, was making sure I was effectively covering what I needed to cover in all three subjects, (Laura, Interview, December, 00:00:28.12).

As a beginning teacher, Laura was facing significant demands. First, she had to rotate between four groups of students each day, meaning that each group only got one hour of her time. Within that hour, she had to teach social studies, writing conventions, and math review. This caused her to feel overwhelmed with the idea of even attempting to add in the writing process to her social studies research project, because she could not visualize how she would possibly be able to squeeze it all in. In her final journal, she explained "Given the changes and having to do math multiple times a week, I focus less on writing now,"

(Laura, Journal, December). This was a difficult decision for Laura to make, as she had initially been attempting to engage the students in as much writing as she could.

Along the same lines, Laura was disappointed to see how little priority was given to writing in her district and school. One glaring example of this was in the benchmark testing that occurred every six weeks; Laura explained that all subjects were assessed, meaning reading, math, science, and social studies- but not writing. She found this oversight to be indicative of a pervasive antipathy towards writing that extended outside of her school to the district level. In addition to that, she commented “Teaching writing effectively takes SO LONG so I have learned that most teachers just don't do it or just pick and choose parts to teach,” (Laura, Journal, November). Thus, Laura came face-to-face with the reality that the majority of teachers in her school would not teach writing because it took too much instructional time away from other subjects.

Laura also experienced a lot of tension surrounding the demands of the district. To begin, she was baffled at the requirements of the social studies research project, which required her students to engage in computer-based research. She said,

Most of them [the students] don't even have computers and stuff at home.

Like...these district people are just expecting them to come in and know what to do...I just don't think that it's gonna be as independent as they expect...(Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:15:06.07).

Laura believed that her students lacked the requisite technological skills to be able to engage in a research project independently, meaning that she would have to devote her already inadequate instructional time to teaching digital literacy skills. She was also baffled by the topic of the research project, which was not at all aligned with the social

studies objective for that six weeks. She could not understand why the district curriculum designers had not chosen a topic more closely related to the unit they were covering in social studies during that time.

Aside from the research project, Laura felt that the district in general had unrealistic expectations about how quickly students could learn a concept and complete assignments. She complained that the pace of the district curriculum left no time for mastery or reteaching,

...they'll [the district] put in like...this should take 15 minutes, and it takes like an hour because these kids are just so behind in a lot of stuff. And you have to baby them. Like, I feel like I'm still teaching some of our second graders because I have to lay out every single thing and give examples and modeling and...I don't think the district understands that, (Laura, Interview, December, 00:03:13.24).

Laura believed that her district had unrealistic expectations about her student's knowledge base, and were not aware of the realities of teaching struggling fifth grade students.

4.9.1.2.2. Unexpected Challenges

Laura faced a few unexpected challenges as a BT, most of which were the same as the PSTs encountered. For Laura, the biggest surprise was the proficiency of her fifth grade students, such as their inability to generate ideas for writing, and how slow they were at completing work. She had also anticipated that her students would be more capable at independently writing than the second grade students in BTEW, stating "It still was shocking, I guess, mostly because I was fifth grade so I was like *oh they'll know how to write a little bit*. They don't. At all," (Laura, Interview, November, 00:06:07.28). Laura explained that she believed her students struggled with writing because no other teacher

had taught the subject, “I can already tell that they've gotten no writing instruction. The majority of the kids can't even use a period correctly, and it's fifth grade,” (Laura, Interview, Month, 00:08:33.18).

The majority of Laura’s other challenges lay outside of the subject of writing, and focused more on her general knowledge base for teaching. Specifically, she commented at how overwhelmed she was by all of the modifications that were required for the special education students in her class:

I think the thing I struggle with the most is all the paperwork and random crap that you have to do...all my kids basically have modifications and accommodations, and I have 88 kids and I don't know, I just wish that there was, that I would've had more practice working with kids modifications and accommodations, or just I don't even know how to keep track of who gets what, when...So I think it's like the paperwork, and behind the scenes stuff that [teacher education program] doesn't do anything for. Like half the stuff that I do after school, I'm like having to teach myself or get my mentor to help with, because I'm like...I've never heard of this, I don't know what you're talking about...So I feel like that's what I struggle with the most, making sure that each of my kids, like I'm helping them the way they're supposed to be and should be,” (Laura, Interview, September-October, 00:27:04.01).

This was Laura’s biggest challenge as a BT, and really caused her to question why her teacher education program had not prepared her for this reality.

4.9.2. Discussion

Despite being in very different contexts, the participants of the present study experienced many similar tensions and unexpected challenges surrounding writing instruction, which will be discussed below.

4.9.2.1. Tensions- Curricular Demands

All participants except Mandy noted that there were too many curricular requirements each day, all of which had precedence over writing. Even Mandy admitted that her writing time would occasionally get interrupted by an overly-long reading lesson. Unfortunately, having to “squeeze in” too many subjects is common for teachers nowadays (Johnson & Dabney, 2018), and it is unlikely that clinical teachers or BTs will attempt to challenge these demands by forcing a prioritization of writing (Jensen, 2019). This may be particularly true when the low positioning of writing is reinforced by not including it in district and state assessments, as was experienced by Kathleen and Laura. Given the extreme pressure placed on teachers to be accountable for students’ learning, the lack of formal accountability testing for writing will inevitably lead teachers to forgo its instruction. This finding has incredibly important implications for teacher education programs; namely, the inclusion of more writing methods courses may not be enough to counteract the pressures that teachers face to perform in other subjects. Teacher education programs should also consider providing more instruction on how writing and the writing process can be purposefully integrated into the content areas, so teachers can maximize their time by teaching content and writing side-by-side, while still meeting the demands of accountability testing. This is particularly salient in the current area, as content literacy is heavily emphasized in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS, 2010). To illustrate,

Lammert and Riordan (2013) contend that writing is a natural part of the scientific inquiry process, and provided three examples of how the writing process can be integrated into science instruction: 1) an investigation and creation of authentic science notebooks, wherein learners examine the structure and contents of an authentic science journal, and then document the process of their scientific inquiry using the requisite genre structure, including revising and editing; 2) teaching students how to generate high-quality questions, similar to the generation of “small moment” ideas in the writing process; and 3) allowing students to develop, investigate, and refine their own hypotheses, using student-generated questions and graphic organizers to create a cohesive argument for their position. This type of scientific writing would both teach students about the writing process, while also targeting the needed content objectives. However, teachers are not likely to know how to do this on their own; teacher education programs must begin to integrate content literacy focused on writing into their coursework. Even programs like BTEW, in which the participants were provided with explicit instruction and practice teaching the writing process, could be enhanced by extended opportunities to practice content-area writing.

4.9.2.2. Tensions- Disagreement with Mentor Teacher

In the present study, participants only had a choice of the particular district they preferred to clinical teach in, with the selection of the particular school left to their teacher education program, and the assignment of the particular classroom left to the discretion of the principal. Mentor teachers were not required to have any particular skills or experience level, and were only asked to review a solitary PowerPoint covering characteristics of successful mentors (CEHD, 2018). Thus, it is no wonder that both Dylan and Kathleen experienced frustration and disagreement with the way writing instruction was enacted by

their mentor teacher. In Dylan's case, she felt that the writing instruction was not challenging enough, thought the constant use of "free writing" was pointless, and did not believe that her mentor teacher used writing instructional time wisely. Dylan's concept of "good" writing was heavily influenced by her time in BTEW, in which the process of writing was heavily emphasized, which caused her to judge her mentor teacher's actions. While interactive writing strategies, as were used by Dylan's mentor teacher, have been found to be highly beneficial for students development (e.g., Williams, 2018), the literature does not support the use of free writing, finding that writing without a specific objective is not beneficial for students' development (Lee & Schallert, 2016; Mohr, 2017). Unfortunately, Dylan was not able to enact any change in the writing practices of her mentor teacher, suggesting that her experiences in BTEW were not enough to provide her with the efficacy to challenge practices she disagreed with (Hall, 2016). It is likely that this can be partially attributed to the hierarchical relationship between mentors and PSTs, which naturally positions mentors as experts and limits PSTs' abilities to enact the best practices they have learned in their teacher education program or beyond (Clark et al., 2014). Unfortunately, a study by Canipe and Gunckel (2020) found that it is almost impossible to disrupt this hierarchical relationship, and that even concerted attempts to form an equal partnership are often still subtly controlled by the mentor. For teacher education programs, this has several important implications. First, what is considered a "best practice" for writing is fluid, and often changes from one decade to the next, suggesting that PSTs should be placed with mentor teachers who are open and willing to try new ideas. Mentors should also be encouraged to develop a partnership relationship with their assigned PST, as opposed to a one-directional, hierarchical relationship (e.g.,

Canipe & Gunckel, 2020). Mentor teachers should also be required to attend a professional development workshop covering the goals and “best practices” of the teacher education program through (Tigert & Peercy, 2018) before undertaking the role as mentor. Finally, it is unlikely that leaving the assignment of mentor teachers to individual principals will ever yield consistently high-quality placements, indicating that teacher education programs must undertake this responsibility themselves. One way to do this is to create a database of teachers who collaborate with the university, and thus are actively invested in new pedagogies and PST training.

Another tension for Kathleen was her disappointment that her mentor teacher did not seem to care about the writing process, and would only concede to allowing instruction on basic writing conventions. The belief that spelling, grammar, and mechanics are more important than the writing process is common among teachers (Ballock et al., 2018; Hall & Grisham-Brown, 2011; Helfrich & Clark, 2016; Moore & Seeger, 2009; Morgan, 2010), so it is not surprising that this is what Kathleen’s mentor teacher privileged. However, what is surprising is that Kathleen, the participant who had been part of BTEW for the longest amount of time, actually conceded to her mentor teacher’s belief that the students were not ready for writing process instruction, and gave up on its instruction as the semester progressed. It is likely that this was a result of both the influential nature of the beliefs of her mentor teacher (e.g., Canipe & Gunckel, 2020) and her own unsuccessful experiences engaging the students in the writing process. This finding suggests that BTEW overlooked one important aspect of writing, which is the recognition of all students as “writers”, and the valuing of all their attempts. This is supported by Gillanders (2017), who contends that children have a great deal of knowledge about writing conventions, even if what they

produce does not look conventional. Thus, students can only grow in their literacy development if they are given opportunities to write authentically, and share their writing with others (Cahill & Gregory, 2016). Cahill and Gregory (2016) suggest that honoring and valuing students writing involves: a) encouragement, b) allowing students to use a variety of materials to write, c) supporting invented spelling, d) helping students tell a story, e) designating a consistent sharing time, f) teaching students how to give appropriate feedback, and g) allowing reciprocity to occur. It seems as though BTEW may have over-emphasized correctness and uniformity in writing structure, to the point where Kathleen felt that if her students could not replicate that structure, then they could not write at all. This implies that programs like BTEW need to spend time unpacking how to provide beginning writers with authentic opportunities to develop their skills, and preparing teachers to value all stages of writing.

4.9.2.3. Unexpected Challenge- Differing Proficiency Levels

Along the same lines, all participants faced the unexpected challenge of tackling student's writing at different proficiency levels. Dylan and Kathleen were astonished at how much help their students needed in contrast to the second grade students in BTEW, despite the fact that they were all primary-grade students. It is possible that BTEW, a program designed to target second grade writing, did not focus enough on the early stages of writing development, and would have better prepared its participants for writing instruction in grades three through five. This finding highlights the tremendous difference between early and later writing development, and suggests that explicit instruction over both must be provided for teachers to feel prepared. Interestingly, to our knowledge this idea has not been presented in the literature on PST preparation for writing, most of which

has focused on differentiating writing instruction by genre (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011). PSTs and BTs would benefit from instruction that targets grade level-specific approaches to writing instruction to help them better anticipate what will work, and what won't (Johnson & Dabney, 2018).

4.9.2.4. Unexpected Challenges- Student Motivation and Idea Generation

In general, all participants in the present study faced a number of unexpected challenges with the students, one of which was the student's lack of enjoyment and motivation for writing. Research shows that teachers generally struggle to motivate students to write (Hall, 2016), some of which may be attributed to inconsistent and disconnected opportunities to learn about writing (Brenner & McQuirk, 2019). Still, it is clear that BTEW and writing methods courses should explicitly teach PSTs strategies to address writing motivation. Hale (2018) explained that one way to build both motivation and efficacy is by providing teaching feedback, particularly for struggling learners and ELLs. When students are given highly specific feedback where they are taught to see themselves as strong and capable writers, they will begin to see their writing as a valuable contribution, and their motivation for its task will increase (Hale, 2018). This recommendation may be particularly salient considering the challenges that the participants in the present study faced with enacting writing conferencing. Other research suggests that giving students the opportunity to write for authentic purposes, such as creating a birthday card or participating in a community outreach program (Gillanders, 2017) builds motivation. Assaf, Kaynes, Eickstead, and Woolven (2014) suggested that the use of digital literacy tools such as wikis and blogs provides an authentic platform for students to showcase their writing, and build writing motivation. PSTs need to be taught about

strategies such as these so that they are more able to address the motivation issues that arise in their own classrooms.

A final unexpected challenge shared by all participants was the students' inability to generate their own ideas for writing. Whether it be narrowing a large topic down to a "small moment" or simply planning details, each participant mentioned that this was a substantial barrier to their students' writing progress. Planning and generating ideas is widely considered to be one of the most difficult areas of writing for both ELLs and native speakers (Beck, Llosa, & Frederick, 2013), making it particularly critical for teachers to understand how to facilitate it. Based on the struggles that the participants faced, it is evident that BTEW did not fully equip the participants with the tools they needed to help students develop ideas. To be impactful, writing programs like BTEW and writing methods courses should emphasize strategies like collaborative write alouds, which enable students to recognize the value of their own knowledge base, and become comfortable using their own ideas in writing (Bauler, Kang, Afanador-Vega, & Stevenson, 2019; Linares, 2019). While this type of strategy was used in BTEW, perhaps the participants lacked the theoretical foundation to understand why it was so critical. For example, when Mandy employed collaborative writing strategies in her third grade classroom, she admitted to dictating the topic and writing class stories about her own life experiences. It is likely that this approach "missed the mark" on the theory behind collaborative write alouds, and prevented her students from seeing their own ideas as legitimate. Still, collaborative writing is not the only way to help students generate ideas; other suggestions include having students create "idea notebooks" from artifacts, like photographs, that are meaningful to the students (Bogard & McMackin, 2012), the use of mentor texts with rich

discussions about idea development (e.g., Del Nero, 2017; Moses, Serafini, & Loyd, 2016), and allowing students to audio record their ideas before committing them to paper (Bogard & McMackin, 2012).

4.10. Conclusion

The present study followed the clinical and beginning teaching experiences of four participants who had previously taken part in an extracurricular preparation program for ELL writing, in an effort to uncover how the program impacted their classroom instruction. While the teaching contexts, grade levels, and responsibilities varied between participants, they shared some common experiences and challenges. Namely, the participants all noted that writing instruction took a back seat to other, “more important” subjects. This highlights the harsh reality of writing instruction in our schools today, and has serious implications for teacher education programs; more needs to be done to prepare teachers for writing instruction, particularly before they have already formed definitive opinions about its importance (e.g., Hodges et al., 2019). Along the same lines, the PSTs were placed with mentor teachers who did not prioritize ELL writing or ELL modifications, and most importantly- the PSTs did not challenge this belief. This has heavy implications for teacher education programs; careful consideration must go into where PSTs are placed, and how teachers qualify to become mentors, as the actions of mentor teachers have been found to be the most influential component of teacher education programs (e.g., Ferber & Nillas, 2010). Thus, if the mentor teacher does not place importance on ELL modifications, neither will PSTs.

The participants of the present study believed that BTEW influenced their teaching experiences in many ways, most notably their classroom management and prioritization of

writing instruction. Some, like Kathleen, even challenged the hierarchical structure of the mentor-PST relationship and enacted change in the way writing was taught (e.g., Clarke et al., 2014). Despite this, there are some areas that BTEW did not appear to influence, such as prioritization of ELL instruction and writing conferencing. For the most part, the participants seemed to view writing conferencing as an additional task that could be foregone, and believed that proficiency in conversational English meant that the ELL was no longer in need of content supports. This suggests that BTEW did not adequately support the participants' understanding of language development and the importance of conferencing, two critical components of ELL writing that would need to be addressed moving forward.

Finally, the participants shared some similar tensions and unexpected challenges with the enactment of writing instruction, including time in the day for writing, issues with student motivation and idea generation, and inadequate experience with early writing. While implementing writing methods coursework is crucial to combat these challenges, it is perhaps not enough. Teacher educators should endeavor to teach how the writing process can be naturally integrated into the content areas. Likewise, writing methods should differentiate between early writing development and later writing, and provide PSTs with opportunities to experience both in the field. Building writing motivation is critical (Hall, 2016), so strategies to address this should be cultivated in writing methods courses.

As with any qualitative study, the present study has several limitations. First, the present study may be subject to researcher bias, in that I both directed the BTEW program and collected data regarding its influence from the participants. To combat this bias, extra efforts were made to ensure that a) the relationship between myself and the participants

was one of trust and honesty, in which they believed that their personal experiences and opinions would be valued and accepted; b) participants were aware that criticisms of the BTEW program were welcomed to improve its impact on other PSTs moving forward; and c) data were analyzed and triangulated by multiple impartial researchers, and not just myself. Additionally, the study would have been enhanced by observational data of the classroom instruction, as well as insight from the mentor teachers. By the same token, it would have been beneficial to follow the participants over multiple semesters, to see their transition into BTs and more experienced teachers. Future research should seek to further investigate how writing instruction is enacted in schools, and the support that in-service teachers may require to successfully incorporate writing into their classrooms. By the same token, an examination into the inequalities of writing opportunities (as was evidenced by the participants in Title I schools versus non-Title I) should be conducted. Also important is an examination of the use of accountability measures for writing, at both the district and state level, and how the existence (or lack thereof) influences how teachers position writing. For teacher education programs, it would be beneficial to see the large-scale impact of writing methods courses with field experiences on the positioning of writing in classrooms. They should also seek to understand how mentor teachers influence attitudes towards ELLs, and how targeted mentor training programs impact classroom teaching practices.

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5. CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Summary of Studies

This dissertation presented the results of three studies that investigated preservice teacher (PST) preparation for ELL writing. Chapter two gave the results of a literature review, which showed that there have currently been no publications about preservice teacher preparation for ELL writing. This is a significant gap in the literature that highlights the general lack of priority given to ELL writing instruction in the United States (U.S.). Chapter two also identified several barriers to the development of PST efficacy for writing: prior writing experiences, lack of opportunities to witness ‘real’ writing instruction, pervasive doubt in personal writing abilities (e.g., Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Hall, 2016; Morgan, 2010) and ELL instruction: lack of knowledge about second language acquisition and lack of knowledge about ELL pedagogy (e.g., Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Kelly, 2018). Authors of the reviewed studies presented several implications for PST preparation for writing instruction, including: genre units within methods courses, process writing instruction, practice providing feedback on students’ writing, self-reflection, and field experiences with writing instruction (e.g., Barnes & Chandler, 2019; Grisham & Wolsey, 2011; Martin & Dismuke, 2015). Implications for ELL instruction were: ESL methods courses, field experiences with ELLs, and language shock experiences (e.g., Clark-Goff & Eslami, 2016; Rodriguez, 2013; Wright-Maley & Green, 2016).

Chapter three presented a model for PST preparation for ELL writing instruction called Becoming Teachers of ELL Writing (BTEW), which was designed based on the abovementioned implications for writing and ELL instruction. The findings showed that

the efficacy for ELL writing of the PSTs who participated in BTEW increased over the course of the two semesters, as did the quality of their pedagogical moves. One factor the BTEW program that each PST identified as particularly salient for their development was the opportunity to establish autonomy over the classroom, a feature lacking from traditional field experiences. It should be noted that participants' quality of pedagogical moves did not necessarily correspond to initial efficacy for personal writing, meaning that the ability to write well may not naturally transfer to ability to teach writing.

In the fourth chapter, four PSTs who had graduated from BTEW and were placed in elementary schools around the state discussed the positioning of writing within their school, the influence BTEW had on their writing instruction, and the tensions and unexpected challenges they faced. Results of the study showed that the PSTs received little exposure to ELLs, and were coupled with mentor teachers who did not prioritize ELL modifications. By the same token, the participants found that writing instruction was a very low priority at their respective schools, and their attempts to provide cohesive instruction on the writing process were often thwarted by other curricular demands or negative teachers' attitudes. The participants also struggled with several areas of writing instruction including conferencing and rubrics.

5.2. Implications for Teacher Educators

The research presented in this dissertation has several critical implications for teacher educators, and teacher education programs. First and foremost, while Writing Intensive coursework has been mandated in many programs to increase the quality of PST's personal writing, this may not be enough to build efficacy for writing instruction, or for teachers to provide high-quality writing instruction. Instead, specific writing methods

courses must be incorporated within teacher education programs so that PSTs are provided with opportunities to design and enact writing lessons guided by the writing process, under the supervision of an experienced writing teacher. For these methods courses to be impactful, teacher educators must engage in demonstrations of writing lesson, and consistently provide PSTs with feedback on their teaching practices.

Together with writing methods courses must be field placements, where PSTs are given the opportunity to teach writing lessons to diverse students, and particularly ELLs. These placements should be closely aligned with the writing methods coursework, and allow PSTs to establish autonomy over the classrooms. Also helpful would be for PSTs to be placed in classrooms together, to establish a co-teaching relationship, and in departmentalized classrooms, where they can teach the same lesson multiple times. However, none of this will be possible unless teacher education programs take ownership of mentor teacher selection and professional development; no longer can PSTs be arbitrarily placed in classrooms with mentors who may eschew writing instruction or institute a hierarchical mentor structure.

One of the most salient findings from chapter four illustrated the low priority given to writing instruction at most schools, and particularly schools with a high number of ELLs. This implies that, in order to improve ELL writing scores, teacher educators need to teach PSTs how to creatively integrate instruction on the writing into other content areas such as math, science, and social studies.

5.3. Implications for Future Research

The research presented in this dissertation paves the way for future research on PST preparation for ELL writing. First and foremost, the structure of BTEW can be applied to

larger groups of teachers, in-service and PSTs alike, to gain a broader view of its impact on efficacy development for ELL writing instruction. The field would also benefit from comparisons between teachers exposed to programs like BTEW, and those with no writing instruction preparation, particularly if such studies are coupled with observational data that evaluates the teachers' quality of instruction over time.

Results of chapter two showed that up until this point, no studies have focused on PST preparation for ELL writing instruction. This indicates a serious gap in the literature that deserves to be rectified. More attention needs to be paid to how to best prepare PSTs to identify the different stages of ELL writing, common errors made by ELLs, the difference between conversational and academic language, and how to provide high-quality modeling and comprehensible input within writing instruction.

Another area worthy of future research is the positioning of writing in elementary schools. In chapter four, results showed that the students in Title I or low-income schools received substantially less writing instruction than those in high-income areas. This educational disparity needs to be researched further if we hope to prepare all students to be successful writers in college and beyond.

5.4. Conclusion

While there is much more research to be done, the studies in this dissertation have laid the foundation for how teacher educators can tackle PST preparation for ELL writing moving forward. It is hoped that the research presented here inspires teacher educators to place a higher priority on teaching PSTs how to teach writing, and researchers begin to place more priority on ELL writing methods. Only when all teachers feel efficacious for writing, and ELL writing, instruction will student achievement increase.

5.5. References

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APPENDIX A
REFLECTION FORMS

Email address:

Name:

Date:

Alignment with curriculum- please check the objective you are working on for the week of the intervention that you are reflecting. If the objective is not listed, please select "not listed".

	Small moments brainstorm	Story mountain	Hooks	Rough draft	Revising	Editing	Publishing	Sharin g
Week 1								
Week 2								
Week 3								
Week 4								
Week 5								
Week 6								
Week 7								
Week 8								
Week 9								
Week 10								

What did you teach today? Check all that apply.

- Spelling & grammar center
- Handwriting center
- Vocabulary center
- Writing mini-lesson

Please rate how well you think you taught the lesson today (1= not well, 4= well).

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4

Please rate how well you think the students learned the concept (1= not well, 4= well).

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4

Brief summary of the lesson.

What went well?

What did not go well?

What could have been changed?

Additional reflection.

APPENDIX B

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

Focus Group Interview Questions, Fall 2018

1. Discuss your experiences with writing in your own K-12 schooling.
 - a. Negative experiences?
 - b. Positive experiences?
 - c. Types of writing assignments engaged in?
 - d. What age did you begin writing?
2. How do you feel when you know you will have to write for an assignment?
Describe.
3. Do you write in your personal time? If so, what do you write and for what reasons?
 - a. If so, what medium do you use?
 - b. Do you prefer to write alone or collaboratively?
4. When given a large writing assignment, how do you go about accomplishing it?
5. Discuss how your preservice teacher education courses have prepared you to teach...
 - a. Spelling
 - b. Grammar
 - c. Handwriting
 - d. Writing- idea development, story structure, etc.
 - e. ELLs
 - f. ...prepared to incorporate technology within instruction

6. Discuss what you have learned about the pedagogy of writing through your preservice teacher education courses and writing intensive coursework?
 - a. Have you learned about providing effective feedback? If so, what has been said?
 - b. Have you learned about genre-specific writing? If so, what?
 - c. How have you been told to approach spelling, grammar, etc.?
 - d. Have you discussed mentor texts? If so, what has been said?
 - e. Have you learned about the process-approach to writing?
7. Discuss what you have learned about ELL writing, and how it may differ from writing with monolinguals.
8. Discuss how your preservice teacher education courses and field experiences have prepared you to teach writing, and writing to ELLs.
 - a. Have you seen teacher modeling of writing?
 - b. Have you engaged with reading students writing and providing feedback?
 - c. Are you given extensive opportunities to write?
 - i. Have you ever had to write your own book?
 - d. Have you ever had to prepare writing lesson plans? If so, describe.
 - e. Have you ever been asked to deliver a writing lesson? If so, describe.
 - f. How often have you seen writing done in your field experiences?
 - i. What kind of writing?
9. How do you feel about the prospect of teaching writing to... (and why)?
 - a. ELLs
 - b. Young writers

- c. Upper elementary students
10. What do you think is the most important thing to focus on in elementary writing/ writing for ELLs? Mechanics or form?
 11. Discuss how your teacher preparation program has prepared you to use technology within instruction?
 - a. Anything specifically related to writing instruction?
 - b. Specific to ELLs?
 - c. iPads?
 12. Do you feel confident in using technology in your classroom?
 13. What technology have you seen being used in your field experience or in your own experiences in the classroom?

Focus Group Interview Questions, Spring 2019

1. Rank the importance of each of these as teachers of ELL writing: a) correctness in writing; b) explicit instruction; c) natural learning- student collaboration, sharing texts. Explain your ranking.
2. What do you believe are the most important points of focus within writing instruction? Voice, Organization, Word Choice, Sentence Structure, Conventions, Idea Development, Presentation.
3. What have you learned about teaching writing?
4. What were you surprised by when teaching ELL writing?
5. What have you learned about yourself as a teacher?
 - a. Teacher of writing

b. Teacher of ELLs

6. How has your view of yourself as a teacher shifted?
7. What do you believe about ELLs as writers?
8. Has RSW changed the way you view ELLs? How?
9. What challenges did you face when teaching ELL writing?
10. How did getting feedback and teaching each writing lesson multiple times help you grow as teachers of writing?
11. What did you learn about the contribution of lower level skills?
12. How do you think the structure of RSW (Writers' Workshop) supports ELLs as writers? What parts?
13. What did you learn about providing feedback?
14. What do you still struggle with in writing? In teaching writing?
15. How would you feel if asked to teach another genre of writing?
16. What contributed to your feelings of success during RSW?
17. How did the feedback you received, both written and oral, support/hinder your development as a teacher?
18. In your classroom, what would you consider to be a 'writing activity'?

APPENDIX C

FIRST CYCLE CODES: STUDY TWO

<u>Code</u>	<u>Criteria Used to Assign Code</u>
Positive Pedagogical Efficacy	Comments related to positive experiences with students, expressed confidence or happiness with teaching ability and/or lesson, positive expressions of growth as a teacher, and discussion of increased knowledge of pedagogy.
Negative Pedagogical Efficacy	Comments referencing lessons gone wrong, negative experiences with students, indications of insufficient pedagogical knowledge, or discouragement with the act of teaching.
Positive Content Efficacy	Any comments related to positive feelings about personal writing, positive prior experiences with writing in school, and positive discussions of personal writing habits.
Negative Content Efficacy	Any negative comments about personal writing, or discussions of prior experiences with writing in school that were negative.

APPENDIX D

SECOND CYCLE CODES: STUDY TWO

<u>Theme</u>	<u>Subcode</u>	<u>Description of Subcode</u>
Dislikes writing	DW	Dislikes the act of writing for personal or academic reasons.
	BE	Bad experiences with writing in K-12 schooling.
	IC	Inadequate college coursework on writing.
	NF	Work receives no feedback.
	BW	Believe they are bad writers.
Second language acquisition	SLA	Lack of knowledge about second language acquisition.
Enjoy writing	EW	Enjoys the act of writing for personal or academic reasons.
	GE	Good experiences with writing in K-12 schooling.
	SC	Satisfactory college coursework on writing.
	IKW	Increased knowledge of writing, including knowledge of the process and various genres.
Insufficient knowledge of writing pedagogy.	IWP	Lack of knowledge about how to teach writing and the writing process.
	ITP	Inadequate teacher preparation for writing.
Classroom factors.	CF	Classroom factors impacting efficacy.
	TM- N	Time management (negative issues).
	TM- P	Time management (positive mentions).
	CM- N	Classroom management (negative or unsuccessful).
	CM- P	Classroom management (positive or successful).

CI-ELL- N	Inability to provide comprehensible input for ELLs.
CI-ELL- P	Successful ability to provide comprehensible input for ELLs.
TMC	Too much content.
PI	Pedagogical issues.
SP	Successful pedagogy planned and used.
SU/P- N	Issues with student understanding and/or productivity.
SU/P- P	Positive instances of student understanding and/or productivity.
TI	Technology issues.
GT	Good technology- helpful for lesson and instruction.
F/A- N	Lack of flexibility/adaptability to classroom demands.
F/A- P	Ability to be flexible/adaptable to classroom demands.
LM- N	Inability to identify or execute lesson modifications.
LM- P	Ability to identify and execute lesson modifications.
SA	Student absences.
SE- N	Students' not engaged in lessons.
SE- P	Students' engaged in lessons.
TP- N	Teacher's unprepared for instruction.
TP- P	Teacher's prepared for instruction.

APPENDIX E
TEACHING JOURNALS

Teaching Journals for September-October and November 2019

1. Email address
2. Name
3. Date
4. Grade level of instruction
5. What level of priority do you believe that writing is given in your current teaching assignment?: a) extremely low priority, b) low priority, c) adequate priority, d) high priority, e) extremely high priority
6. Please describe the level of priority given to writing in your current teaching assignment.
7. Since your last journal entry, how many times have you taught (or assisted with teaching) a writing lesson?
8. Please describe EACH of the writing lessons that you have taught (or assisted with teaching). Include the genre, step in the writing process, prompt, as well as your role in teaching the lesson. If you have not taught any, please write N/A.
9. Please check if your writing lesson was guided by any of the following:
10. Did you use any of the strategies that you learned in BTEW to help you teach the lessons?
11. Please describe how you used strategies learned in BTEW within your lesson. If no, please describe why the strategies you learned weren't used. If this doesn't apply to you, write "N/A".

12. Was your lesson(s) modified for ELLs?
13. If yes, please describe the modifications made. If no, please describe why not. If this question does not apply to you, write "N/A".
14. What level of priority do you believe is placed on improving ELL writing in your current field placement?: a) extremely low priority, b) low priority, c) adequate priority, d) high priority, e) extremely high priority
15. Please describe the level of priority given to ELL writing in your current teaching assignment.
16. Since your last journal entry, how many times have the students in your class engaged in a writing activity not related to the process of writing?
17. What subject were the students writing about? Select all that apply.
18. Please describe EACH of the writing activities that your student engaged in. Include the content area and purpose for writing, as well as an overview of how this activity was supported or scaffolded by yourself and/or other teachers. If your students have not done any writing-related activities, please write N/A.
19. How often do you conduct individual writing conferencing with your students?
20. Have you experienced any barriers to individual writing conferencing in your current teaching assignment? If so, please describe.
21. What have you learned about teaching writing through your current teaching assignment?
22. How is teaching writing in your current teaching assignment different than in BTEW?
23. Has anything surprised you about writing in your current teaching assignment?

24. How do you feel about yourself as a teacher of writing based on your current teaching assignment?
25. Have you faced any tensions or challenges surrounding teaching writing in your current teaching assignment? If so, please describe.
26. Have you faced any tensions or challenges surrounding how writing is taught and/or enacted within your current teaching assignment vs. what you learned in RSW? If so, please describe.
27. What could RSW have done differently to better prepare you for classroom writing instruction? ELL instruction?
28. Open-ended reflection. In this space, please write ANYTHING else you want me to know about your current teaching assignment, even if it is not related to writing.

Teaching Journal for December 2019

1. Email address
2. Your name
3. Now that you have completed one semester in the classroom, how do you think you have grown as an overall teacher?
4. How do you think you have changed as a teacher of writing?
5. Were there any challenges you faced in your old journal entries that you feel you would be better equipped to face now? If so, please describe.
6. Were there any scenarios you faced during BTEW that you would handle differently now? If so, please describe.
7. Please write anything else you want me to know about your journey to becoming a teacher, and how BTEW did or did not influence your development.

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview One (September-October 2019)

1. Can you talk about how writing is positioned in your classroom?
 - a. What opportunities have you had to teach writing?
 - b. How frequently is the writing process taught?
 - c. What writing genres are focused on?
 - d. Are students given opportunities to engage in other writing activities? If so, what and how often?
2. How is ELL writing positioned in your classroom?
 - a. Are modifications made for ELL students? If so, what?
 - b. What is emphasized as key for successful ELL writing?
3. Has anything surprised you about teaching writing in your school?
 - a. Frequency it is taught?
 - b. How it is taught? Does it differ from what you learned in BTEW?
 - c. Priority (or lack of) given to it?
 - d. Types of assignments?
 - e. Quality of student work?
 - f. Barriers to writing instruction?
 - g. Student attitudes towards writing?
4. What have you learned about teaching writing from being in the classroom?
 - a. Process?
 - b. Types of activities?

- c. Different stages of writing proficiency?
5. How do you feel that what you learned in BTEW supports your classroom teaching today?
 6. What support do you wish that BTEW or your teacher education program had given you so that you would be better prepared for the classroom today?
 7. Based on this experience, what importance do you now assign to teaching writing?
 - a. Has your attitude changed based on demands from the school or state testing?

Interview Two (November 2019)

1. Since the last time we talked, has anything changed with how writing is positioned in your classroom? If so, please describe.
2. Please describe how writing instruction is conducted in your classroom.
3. Discuss writing conferencing in your classroom.
 - a. Modifications for ELLs?
 - b. Challenges to the act of conferencing?
 - c. Challenges to implementation?
 - d. What do you focus on during conferencing?
 - e. What type of rubric do you use to guide conferencing?
4. Please discuss what you believe to be essential for effective writing instruction.
5. Talk about your perceptions of the importance of writing. Has this changed since the beginning of the year?

6. How could you make more time for writing in your classroom? How would this impact other subjects?
7. Do you believe that writing needs to be taught more in your classroom?
 - a. What are the barriers you face?
8. Talk about the lower-level writing skills. When and how do those get taught in your classroom?
 - a. Is this similar to BTEW?
 - b. Anything you wished BTEW had prepared you for?
9. What do you think that students struggle with the most, in regards to writing?
 - a. Were you prepared for that, based on your experiences in BTEW? Please provide an explanation for why or why not.

Interview Three (December 2019)

1. Now that the semester has concluded, how well do you feel that you taught writing? Please explain.
 - a. Do you wish you had done more or less writing?
 - b. More genre?
 - c. Varied activities?
 - d. More student conferencing?
2. In your next semester of teaching, how will you change the writing instruction in your classroom?
3. How confident are you in your ability to teach writing? Please describe.
 - a. What gave you that impression.

4. Is your confidence a result of BTEW, your current teaching, or a combination of both?
5. Do you feel that what you learned in BTEW can be realistically implemented in a real classroom? Why or why not?
6. How would you change BTEW, and your teacher education program as a whole, to ensure that you are more prepared for writing instruction?
 - a. ELL instruction?
7. What were you most surprised by in this semester?
8. Anything else you want to share about your development as a teacher?

APPENDIX G

FIRST CYCLE CODES: STUDY THREE

Code	Criteria Used to Assign Code
Positioning of Writing	Comments related to how writing instruction is enacted and developed in their school.
BTEW Influence	Comments referencing strategies and knowledge acquired through participation in BTEW.
Tensions and Unexpected Challenges	Comments that express frustration and/or surprise at how writing is positioned or enacted within the school, or that reference an unexpected challenge.

APPENDIX H

SECOND CYCLE CODES: STUDY THREE

Theme	Subcode	Description of Subcode
Positioning of Writing	WA	Writing atmosphere
	WCA	Writing in the content areas
	WL	Writing lessons
	WC	Writing conferencing
	WE	Writing expectations
	WPD	Writing professional development and/or training
	SW	Students perceptions/attitudes about writing
BTEW Influence	CGT	Confidence for general teaching
	PD	Preparation for differentiation
	KWP	Knowledge of effective writing pedagogy
	IOT	Influence over other teachers
	IW	Importance placed on writing
	JA	Job acquisition
Tensions & Unexpected Challenges	WCL	Writing curriculum and lessons
	T	Time for writing
	PW	Priority for writing
	MELL	Modifications for ELLs
	ES	Expectations for students
	DD	Demands of the district
	DEW	Different expectations for writing
	SC	Student challenges

WIC	Writing instruction challenges
KBT	Knowledge base for teaching
