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Developing and Validating the Elementary Literacy Self-Efficacy Survey

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DEVELOPING AND VALIDATING THE ELEMENTARY LITERACY COACH
SELF-EFFICACY SURVEY

by

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this study was to develop and validate an instrument to measure the

task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches. In order for this to

happen, a synthesis of literature regarding literacy coaching tasks including the

International Literacy Association's standards for literacy coaches were used to write

several items on the survey. In addition, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale and the

researcher's experiences as an elementary literacy coach were used to write other items

on the survey. Experts in the field of literacy coaching and self-efficacy provided content

validity. Construct validity was established through correlation statistics with other

established instruments that were previously determined as valid. Exploratory factor

analysis was performed on the Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy (ELCSE) survey

to determine the underlying constructs the instrument was intended to measure.

Data analysis indicated that the ELCSE has a high level of internal reliability and

correlated with areas it was intended to correlate with and with areas it was not intended

to correlate with, it did not. Data from factor analysis confirmed that the ELCSE

measures one construct as intended. Thus, construct validity was established.

The results from this study provide opportunities to assess and understand the

beliefs of elementary literacy coaches regarding tasks specific to their roles.

Additionally, the ELCSE survey offers opportunities to provide training or professional

development specific to the needs of elementary literacy coaches. The use of the ELCSE

in a practical K-12 educational setting offers school districts and administrators the

opportunity to identify tasks the elementary literacy coach feels they would need more

support in performing.

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Also, my family has been my source of pride and honor in completing this program. My father taught me at an early age to work hard and let your work speak for who you are. My mother taught me that with passion comes learning and success. She explained that is why we should do what we are passionate about. It is through both that I found my way to stay focused and driven in this program. I am forever grateful to my committee, Ty, and my family.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

The role of the literacy coach in elementary schools today has little, if any, resemblance to the literacy coaching standards issued by the International Literacy Association (ILA) (2010). Walpole and Blamey (2008) reported that only 28 percent of a literacy coach's time is actually spent coaching teachers in small group settings, or individually. However, this is exactly the purpose of the literacy coach position. Numerous studies have emphasized the discrepant use of literacy coaches across the United States (Blachowiz, Buhle, Ogle, Frost, Correa, & Kinner, 2010; Dean, Dyal, Wright, Carpenter, & Austin, 2010; DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Kissel, Mraz, Algozzine, & Stover, 2011; Hanson, 2011; Matsumura, Garnier, & Spybrook, 2012; Poglinco, Bach, Hovde, Rosenblum, Saunders, & Supovitz, 2003; Rainville & Jones, 2008; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). This is not a single state, school district, or elementary school problem. The crisis that the nation faces in raising literacy, learning and achievement is underscored by the misuse of literacy coaches at the elementary level.

Much research has been devoted to how other educational personnel perceive the role of the literacy coach (Dean, Dyal, Wright, Carpenter, & Austin, 2010; DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Kissel, et al., 2011; Rainville & Jones, 2008; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). For example, the perceptions that teachers, administrators, and other faculty have of literacy coaches have been identified as one of the causes for the varying roles the literacy coach has identified with in their position. In addition, other studies have

elaborated that literacy coaches take on a variety of identities, and this has led to role confusion among coaches (Rainville & Jones, 2008; van Leent & Exley, 2013). There is a significant amount of research on the roles and identities of a literacy coach, however there is a lack of research and literature about the internal decisions the literacy coach makes in regards to the tasks they choose to perform.

Self-efficacy, the innate belief about how well someone thinks they can perform a task (Bandura, 2006), is an important area to explore for elementary literacy coaches, in order to understand the thinking behind why they choose to perform certain tasks over others. Studying the self-efficacy of elementary literacy coaches may tell us more about why literacy coaches decided to choose to do certain tasks or align with certain identities that do not resemble that of a literacy coach. Learning about the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches would contribute to the conversation of why literacy coaches perform certain tasks and hold certain identities by exploring their belief systems about their capabilities to perform tasks related to their roles.

There is a scarce amount of research and literature about why literacy coaches choose to perform tasks that are unrelated to their roles. In addition, there is even less research exploring their self-efficacy. The only study that began to explore the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches used a teacher instrument for their study (Cantrell, Madden, Rintamaa, Almasi, & Carter, 2015). However, literacy coaches do not perform the same tasks as classroom teachers, thus this measure is not valid for use with literacy coaches. The ILA standards (2010) specifically state the unique tasks and job functions

of a literacy coach, and these were not reflected in the self-efficacy teacher instrument used by Cantrell and colleagues (2015) in their study. It is difficult to know the beliefs that a literacy coach has by using an instrument that is designed specifically for a different subgroup of the teaching profession.

To summarize, there is an abundance of research that has explored the role of the literacy coach. There is a general understanding that literacy coaches perform a wide range of tasks that are unique within the context that they operate. There is even a stronger consensus that literacy coaches are not performing tasks that are related to their roles and instead perform tasks that mirror those of an administrator, classroom teacher, or remedial reading teacher. There is a lack of understanding of (a) why literacy coaches choose to do tasks unrelated to their roles more often than tasks that are related, (b) the beliefs that literacy coaches have about their ability to perform true literacy coaching tasks, and (c) a self-efficacy instrument for literacy coaches and how it can be used to understand their beliefs about the roles of literacy coaching. In this dissertation, I address the areas of weakness in research and literature by designing an elementary literacy coach self-efficacy survey that is reflective of the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches in order to understand their beliefs about their ability to perform specific literacy coaching tasks. To further enhance our understanding of the role of an elementary literacy coach, I designed a self-efficacy survey specific to this sub-group of teachers to understand their beliefs about how well they can perform literacy coaching tasks related to their roles.

Significance of the Problem

Previously stated, it is well known that literacy coaches across schools, districts, and various states in the United States are spending an abundance of time on tasks unrelated to their roles. If the purpose of a literacy coach is to support classroom teachers and attend to roles as outlined by the International Literacy Association, and it is known that they are not, then we must explore why they are not taking on the tasks of literacy coaching. In order to understand why many elementary literacy coaches choose to perform tasks that are not related to their roles, we must understand their beliefs and their thinking that goes into choosing tasks that they do perform. Bandura (1977) explained that a person's behavior is influenced by their beliefs about their capabilities and their beliefs about potential outcomes from their actions (as cited by Usher & Pajares, 2008). Close analysis of a literacy coach's beliefs about tasks that are related to the roles of a literacy coach through a well-developed self-efficacy survey designed for literacy coaches would provide insight into why they choose the tasks that they do on a regular basis.

Cantrell and colleagues (2015) measured literacy coaches' beliefs about their ability to perform tasks with survey items that are typical of a classroom teacher, not a literacy coach. The validity of the results in the Cantrell and colleagues study could be questioned because the instrument they used with literacy coaches should be used with classroom teachers. This has added to the problem of not clearly understanding why literacy coaches choose to do tasks that are not related to their roles. In order to understand the behavior of literacy coaches, such as choosing the tasks they perform

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while on the job, a self-efficacy instrument for literacy coaches should be designed using the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches.

Definitions of Terms

Administrator: a school-based principal. For this study, the reference to administrators is directed to school-based principals.

Concurrent validity: the determination of how well a new survey correlates with another survey that has previously been determined as valid (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Construct validity: the determination of scores on a survey that represents a theoretical construct (Messick, 1980).

Content validity: the judgment given by an expert in a particular field on the items of a survey (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Discriminant validity: the determination how well a new survey does not correlate with another survey that has previously been determined as valid (Messick, 1995).

Exploratory factor analysis: examines the variance among a group of variables in an instrument to determine if there are underlying factors that could describe that group of variables in a specific way.

Literacy coach: an educator at the elementary level intended to provide training and professional development to other educational colleagues (ILA, 2010).

Paraprofessionals: staff members in an elementary school that do not hold a certified teaching position, but work with students to support their learning.

Predictive validity: demonstrate a relationship between certain variables (Messick, 1995).

Self-efficacy: the beliefs a person has about their capabilities to perform a specific task (Bandura, 1977).

Social Cognitive Theory: a triadic model developed by Bandura to explain the relationships between the environment, personal factors, and their behavior (Bandura, 1997).

Reliability: a statistical calculation that determines how stable a survey is over time and administrations to different populations (Colosi, 1997).

Validity: an interpretation of scores in order to provide a judgment on a test (Messick, 1995).

Research Questions

- Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* valid for use with literacy coaches?

- Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* reliable?

- What beliefs do literacy coaches have about their ability to perform specific tasks related to their roles?

Limitations

It is difficult to determine the one factor that may influence the choice of tasks that an elementary literacy coach selected to perform. Literacy coaches work in an environment with many other educational professionals such as teachers, paraprofessionals, and administrators. It is known that in settings like the workplace

there is a culture that influences what we do and how we do it. In this study, it would be

an insurmountable task to remove these influences of culture. Thus, the culture of a

school setting is a limitation within this study.

Gallimore and Goldenburg's (2001) cultural model theory stated that the cultural

norms that exist in that organization influence the values, policies, and practices of an

organization. The cultural model's theory provides a lens to evaluate the values,

practices, and policies that exist in the elementary schools and their influence on the

literacy coach. Many districts have a job description for the role of the literacy coach and

this sets policy for that position. Administrators used their district's job description to

direct and manage their literacy coach. The ways in which administrators utilize their

literacy coach can give us insight to the culture that has existed for literacy coaches.

While this is acknowledged it would be difficult to remove the influence of

administration on literacy coaches for this study.

Another limitation to this study is my personal connection with elementary

literacy coaches in the School District of Flower County, FL. I am keenly aware that

literacy coaches may respond to items on the survey differently than if I was a person that

they did not know. In order to address this issue, I frequently reminded participants that

their answers were anonymous and to respond to items on the survey as best as they

could without any worry of judgment from the researcher, a colleague.

Organizational Context

Three school districts in central Florida were selected to participate in the study, The School District of Flower County, Middleburg County Public Schools and South Falls County Public Schools. Pseudonyms were used to protect the identities of the school districts.

The School District of Flower County, Florida has elementary literacy coaches in each of its 24 elementary schools. Elementary literacy coaches in this county had to go through a district interview and were selected for a literacy coach pool before a school-based administrator could hire them. For the purpose of this study, an elementary school was identified as serving grades pre-k/kindergarten through fifth. Schools that serve kindergarten through eighth grade were not included in the study because the literacy coaches in those schools also supported the middle school grade levels. Although the literacy coach position was designed to support classroom teachers in providing high quality literacy instruction and these positions have been in elementary schools for over the last decade, little progress has been made in terms of student performance on the state literacy assessment, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT/ FCAT 2.0) or the newly implemented Florida Standards Assessment (FSA). The percentage of students passing the reading FCAT 2.0 increased in Flower County from 2011 to 2014 in grades three through five collectively by two percent. Recent data from the Florida Department of Education shows the percentage of students at proficiency on the literacy Florida State Assessment in grades three through five has increased by two percent.

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Middleburg County Public Schools has 155 elementary schools, as listed on their school district website. There are literacy coaches in many of their schools, but some schools have an instructional coach that at times act as a literacy coach. Elementary literacy coaches in this county were hired based on an interview with a school-based administrator. Middleburg County Public Schools does not have a literacy coach pool. Middleburg County Public Schools faced similar stagnation in student achievement on the state literacy assessments. Middleburg County Public Schools increased the percentage of students proficient on the reading FCAT 2.0 in grades three through five by three percent from 2011 to 2014. More recently, on the Florida State Assessments in literacy, the percentage of elementary students achieving proficiency decreased by three percent from 2015 to 2016, as reported by the Florida Department of Education.

South Falls County Public Schools has a literacy coach in a majority of their 137 pre-k/ kindergarten through fifth grade elementary schools. In each elementary school there is either a part-time or full-time literacy coach. Schools that could afford a full-time literacy coach were hired. Elementary schools that have a part-time literacy coach share their literacy coach with another school. Elementary literacy coaches in this district had to attend a year of training before applying for a position as a coach. South Falls County Public Schools recently faced challenges in increasing student performance on state literacy assessments. From 2011 to 2014 the percentage of students proficient in South Falls County Public Schools in grade three through five on state literacy assessments increased by three percent from 57 to 60. Most recently, the district has taken the Florida

State Assessments in literacy and in 2015 only 51 percent of students in third through fifth grade were proficient and in 2016, it remained the same.

As a literacy coach at an elementary school in the School District of Flower County, Florida, the investigator developed an increasing interest in the way that literacy coaches have decided which tasks to perform on a regular basis and those that they choose to avoid. Having worked with other literacy coaches and most recently offering workshops to in-service literacy coaches, the investigator has experienced that literacy coaches are spending a significant number of hours performing tasks that are unrelated to their roles.

<div align="center">History and Conceptualization</div>

Local/ organizational. The School District of Flower County, Middleburg County Public Schools, and South Falls County Public Schools in central Florida, have formal written job descriptions for the role of an elementary literacy coach. However, despite having this written document their elementary literacy coaches continue to perform tasks unrelated to their roles. In fact, many literacy coaches have reported a significantly large amount of their time at school performing tasks unrelated to their roles (DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Kissel et al., 2011; Marsh et al., 2008; Walpole & Blamey, 2008).

This is evident in a survey that 10 literacy coaches participated in during the summer of 2015 in the School District of Flower County, FL. The results of the survey indicated that between 60 to 80 percent of a literacy coach's time was spent on tasks not related to the roles of a literacy coach as outlined by the ILA standards (Ulenski, Unpublished Manuscript). In addition, in the same survey, 100 percent of the

respondents felt somewhat certain or very certain they knew how to divide their time among the tasks required of their job, 90 percent felt somewhat certain or very certain about how to schedule their workday, and 90 percent felt somewhat or very certain about what aspects of their work will lead to a positive evaluation (Ulenski, Unpublished Manuscript). These results suggest that the literacy coaches felt very confident about how to divide their time among the tasks that they performed and how to schedule their workday, but of those tasks only a few were actual literacy coaching tasks. Additionally, the majority of respondents felt confident in understanding what aspects of their job would lead to a positive evaluation, but many aspects of the job they were performing as reported by their hours were not actually literacy coaching tasks.

After the study was concluded with the School District of Flower County, the results were released to the director of elementary curriculum. The department of elementary curriculum reached out to the researcher for support for developing training sessions for elementary literacy coaches. The director of elementary curriculum in the School District of Flower County, FL placed an emphasis on literacy coaches spending time in the classroom and coaching teachers. However, the elementary literacy coaches may not be spending time actually coaching.

The information that is missing and will be addressed in this dissertation is the confidence level of elementary literacy coaches in performing actual literacy coaching tasks. This will be accomplished through the creation of a valid self-efficacy survey specific to the roles of an elementary literacy coach.

National/ international. Literacy coaches are lacking a clear idea of who they are and what they do, which has resulted in many of them wearing a variety of hats in their roles (Marsh et al., 2008). This lack of clarity and support from the administration has led to many literacy coaches performing a wide variety of tasks and many of these tasks resemble that of an administrator.

In order to address this problem in the literacy-coaching world, researchers began exploring administrators, teachers, and even literacy coaches' perceptions of the roles of the literacy coach. Others researched the specific tasks that literacy coaches perform and a single study explored literacy coaches' beliefs about how well they can perform certain tasks. However, research has not fully explored the reasons why literacy coaches choose the tasks that they do in their roles by looking at the actual beliefs that literacy coaches have about being able to perform tasks related to their roles. The researcher identified only one study, conducted by Cantrell and colleagues (2015), that attempted to do this, but their instrument was flawed because the items on their self-efficacy instrument reflected the tasks that a classroom teacher may perform, rather than that of a literacy coach.

Causes and Factors

Research has offered some insight into why literacy coaches perform tasks unrelated to their roles. Theoretical frameworks such as the social cognitive theory may explain the reasons why literacy coaches are taking on tasks not related to their roles and avoiding those that are related to their roles.

Social cognitive theory. Literacy coaches assume many responsibilities and identities because of their interaction with a range of individuals in their school setting. In addition, the roles, identities, and tasks a literacy coach performs while in another teacher's classroom are influenced by their own self-efficacy beliefs.

Social cognitive theory holds that self-efficacy beliefs determine the decisions that people make, how long they will continue to make an effort, and the degree to which they put forth an effort (Bandura, 1977). A literacy coach's perception of their own weaknesses and strengths affect their roles and tasks they are or are not willing to take on. For example, if a literacy coach believes they are not strong at modeling a lesson for a teacher, then the literacy coach will avoid performing this task. Conversely, if a literacy coach believes that they are good at running meetings and setting up schedules, then the literacy coach would be more willing to take on those tasks.

Mastery experience, verbal persuasion, physiological states, and vicarious experience are four sources that influence a person's self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Numerous studies have shown that mastery experience is the strongest influence on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986; Cantrell et al., 2015; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Mastery experience is defined as having a successful experience. Due to the variety of tasks that literacy coaches perform, they struggle with experiencing success in specific coaching tasks because they do not spend much time performing true coaching tasks (Cantrell et al., 2015). The lack of mastery experience among literacy coaches may be a result of having to pick and choose tasks needed to perform and the need for ongoing

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professional development for literacy coaches (Kissel et al., 2011). Professional development in the areas of specific coaching tasks may help literacy coaches achieve mastery experience and affect their coaching self-efficacy. Literacy coaches perform tasks as a result of pervious mastery experience and this increases their sense of efficacy for these tasks. Literacy coaches can develop their self-efficacy of performing coaching tasks through a successful experience. For example, increasing a literacy coach's self-efficacy in being able to lead professional development has resulted in the literacy coach being willing to perform this task more often in the future (Cantrell et al., 2015). This means that as literacy coaches increase their self-efficacy on specific coaching tasks, they may perform that task regularly later on in their career.

Literacy coaches are not spending the majority of their time in the classroom performing coaching tasks (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Many new or veteran literacy coaches typically are not the recipients of training in how to coach a classroom teacher. Thus, low self-efficacy among literacy coaches for coaching and modeling a lesson in another teacher's classroom would not be a surprise. Usher and Pajares (2008) explained that as a person develops their skills their self-efficacy changes. Until literacy coaches receive adequate training and experience success in certain coaching tasks their self-efficacy will never increase and it is highly unlikely of them performing actual coaching tasks.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this dissertation was to create a survey to measure the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary school literacy coaches. Currently, no survey exists to

understand the self-efficacy beliefs of this subpopulation of the teaching profession. In order to accomplish this task a survey must be both valid for a specific population and reliable. There are multiple ways to determine the validity of a survey. For the purpose of this study, content, construct, substantive, concurrent, and discriminant validity were examined in order to determine if the survey measures what it is intended to measure (Messick, 1995). A professor with expertise in self-efficacy research reviewed the survey to ensure the items measure self-efficacy. Another professor with expertise in literacy coaching reviewed the survey to ensure the items reflect the role of an elementary literacy coach. Comparing the new survey to other measures and determining how well it does and does not correlate to these measures, as intended provided evidence of concurrent and discriminant validity. Reliability was determined by analyzing the results of the survey. Cronbach's Alpha was used as a measure of reliability. If a high Cronbach's Alpha exists then the measure would be considered reliable (Colosi, 1997). Factor analysis was performed on the survey to identify the cluster of correlated variables, called a factor. This helped determining the underlying construct that the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE) measures.

Elementary literacy coaches in Middleburg County Public Schools, the School District of Flower County, FL, and South Falls County Public Schools were contacted to participate in the study. The directors in all three districts have already agreed to work with the investigator in compiling a list of potential participants.

As stated earlier, literacy coaches are spending a vast amount of time on tasks unrelated to their roles. In order to begin to understand the thinking that literacy coaches do when choosing to do a task or not, their belief systems must be explored. The beliefs that a person has of their ability to accomplish a task will influence their behavior (Pajares, 2002). Designing a survey that measures the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches within task-specific items would help provide insight and reasons for why literacy coaches perform certain tasks more often than others. The results from participating elementary literacy coaches would indicate coaching tasks they feel confident and not confident in performing. Thus, elementary literacy coaches with a low self-efficacy on a specific coaching task would be expected to spend little to no hours performing those tasks. The opposite would be true for tasks they feel highly confident performing. Designing a reliable self-efficacy survey for elementary literacy coaches may provide the data needed to explain the tasks they avoid and the tasks they perform regularly.

This study was conducted from July 2016 through February 2017. During this time frame, there were several milestones that needed to be completed. Before the end of July 2016, the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* was reviewed by experts in the fields of self-efficacy and literacy coaching for content validity. Additionally, a request was made to the Institutional Review Board to conduct the study before the end of July 2016. During the month of August, literacy coaches were identified through collaboration with the directors for elementary curriculum in Middleburg County Public

Schools and the School District of Flower County, FL. In the month of December 2016, South Falls County Public Schools was included in the study in order to gather further data. Also, a pilot group tested the survey in August. From October 2016 through January 2017, elementary literacy coaches that were identified by the directors in all three counties were able to participate in the survey through Qualtrics. Starting at the end of January 2017, data was analyzed and interpreted to determine the validity and reliability of the survey. November through April were months to revise and rewrite any areas of the dissertation that needed to be addressed. Defense of the dissertation was in May of 2017.

Evaluation Plan

The design for this dissertation was quantitative. The goals of this dissertation were to (a) design a literacy coach self-efficacy instrument with evidence as to its validity and reliability for use with elementary school literacy coaches and (b) develop an understanding of the beliefs literacy coaches have of their ability to perform tasks that are related to their roles as outlined by the ILA standards.

Before disseminating the survey to elementary literacy coaches in three counties, a smaller convenient sample of five literacy coaches were selected for a pilot test of the survey. The purpose of the pilot test was to determine evidence of validity. After analysis of the pilot data, elementary literacy coaches identified through a list-serve complied by the director of elementary curriculum in all three school districts were given the survey to determine validity and reliability. The school districts supported the

development of this dissertation by working with the researcher to disseminate the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* to their elementary literacy coaches.

The study used a quantitative approach to collecting and analyzing data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The sampling method for collecting data was purposive (Creswell, 2014). A survey (using Qualtrics) was used to collect information from elementary literacy coaches about their task-specific self-efficacy beliefs. Previous classroom teacher self-efficacy instruments were used to evaluate the self-efficacy of literacy coaches. The new survey is a modification of previous teacher self-efficacy instruments in order to reflect the roles of a literacy coach and new items were written based on prior experiences as an elementary literacy coach and the use of the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Determining the validity of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* was taken in several steps. First, a reputable professor in the field of self-efficacy and a reputable professor in the field of literacy coaching provided feedback and determined content validity (Messick, 1995). Construct validity was determined by analyzing concurrent validity. Concurrent validity was determined by how well the new self-efficacy survey correlates with other surveys that have been validated previously with similar constructs (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). The surveys selected to support concurrent validity is a modified Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) Scale (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000) and the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two- Week Period Survey (Marsh et al., 2008). Construct validity was determined by analyzing discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is used to determine

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if the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* is not correlated to dissimilar constructs (Messick, 1980). The survey selected to support discriminant validity of the ELCSE survey is the last five items of the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two- Week Period Survey (Marsh et al., 2008). The survey Marsh and colleagues used in their study was selected because it is expected to draw a relationship between the self-efficacy level of the literacy coach and the number of hours they spend performing coaching-specific tasks. Factor analysis was performed on the ELCSE survey to determine the number of factors in the survey. Hair et al. (2006) suggested the following tests should be performed in order to determine the number of factors; Bartlett test of sphericity, Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, Variable communality, and factor loading. In addition, eigenvalues were calculated to determine the number of factors in the ELCSE survey.

Survey data was analyzed to determine reliability. Reliability is the consistency of measurement when the assessment is given repeatedly on a population (Creswell, 2014). Cronbach's Alpha is the statistical coefficient used to indicate reliability. In order to guarantee that the interpretation of the instrument data can be trusted to remain the same across time and administration, there must be a high Cronbach's alpha. One specific type of reliability is internal consistency. Internal consistency means that the items in a survey intend to measure the same concept in a consistent manner (Colosi, 1997).

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Summary

The purpose of this study was to create and validate an elementary literacy coach self-efficacy survey. As Bandura (1977) stated that self-efficacy is the belief one has about their capabilities to perform certain tasks. Past research has provided two main self-efficacy instruments that have been used with teachers, but to date there are no surveys developed for the position of an elementary literacy coach. Additionally, a well-developed and valid self-efficacy instrument measures a person's sense of efficacy within a particular context for a particular task (Bandura, 2006; Pajares & Barich, 2005). Based on the work of Bandura, using teacher self-efficacy surveys with elementary literacy coaches would compromise the validity of the data.

Thus, in order to measure the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches a survey must be task and context specific to their roles. Items from a previous teacher self-efficacy survey were modified to the roles of the literacy coach for the new survey in this study. Also, the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches provided tasks for the creation of other items, and the researcher's personal experiences as an elementary literacy coach offered other items for a new survey titled: *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey.* This survey was created in the summer of 2016.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents the rationale for conducting this study on validating a self-efficacy instrument specific to the roles of an elementary literacy coach. Educational researchers have examined the constructs of teacher efficacy for years (Dellinger, Bobett, Olivier, Ellett, 2007; Gibson and Dembo, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Literacy coach self-efficacy has recently been examined using a classroom teacher self-efficacy instrument (Cantrell et al., 2015), but no current measure exists to study the efficacy beliefs specific to literacy coaches. This study sought to build upon this body of research through the creation of a self-efficacy survey specific to the roles and tasks of an elementary literacy coach. The standards for literacy coaches as outlined by the International Literacy Association (ILA) (2010), along with the vast body of research that has sought to explain the roles and responsibilities of a literacy coach were used by the researcher of this study as he developed the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE).

Research shows there are a variety of roles and tasks the literacy coach performs (Blachowicz, Buhle, Ogle, Frost, Correa, & Kinner, 2010; Poglinco, Bach, Hovde, Rosenblum, Saunders, & Supovitz, 2003). Additional research shows that literacy coaches spent little time performing actual tasks of literacy coaching (Marsh et al., 2008; Walplole & blamey, 2008). In numerous school-sites, various subgroups of the education profession perceive the roles of the literacy coach differently which leads to literacy

coaches having multiple identities (Stets & Burke, 2000), thus causing them to spend a vast amount of time trying to form a single identity (van Leent & Exley 2013). Self-efficacy, as explored through teacher self-efficacy research and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) will be discussed in this chapter. The measurement of elementary literacy coaches' self-efficacy will be explained through the roles and tasks as outlined by the ILA (2010) standards. An explanation of how the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran, WoolFolk Hoy, Hoy, 1998) was created and validated will also be provided since it was used to help word items on the ELCSE survey. Finally, this chapter will discuss the need for the ELCSE survey to measure elementary literacy coaches' task-specific self-efficacy due to gaps in current literacy coach self-efficacy studies, and how evidence of validity was obtained and measured in this study.

The following review of the literature represents prior research important to this study: specifically, the roles and tasks of a literacy coach; how literacy coaches spend their time; the identities of a literacy coach; teacher and literacy coach self-efficacy; validating an instrument; and determining the reliability of an instrument. Specifically, Chapter II is organized into eight sections: (a) the history of literacy coaches, (b) tasks and roles of a literacy coach, (b) literacy coaches' identities, (c) literacy coaches' time spent, (d) Social Cognitive Theory (e) educator efficacy beliefs, (f) gaps in literacy coaching self-efficacy studies, and (g) instrument validation.

The History of Literacy Coaches

In the early 2000s, the United States Congress passed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), which resulted in a renewed emphasis on high quality literacy instruction and

the emergence of the literacy coach position in numerous schools (Dean, Dyal, Wright, Carpenter, & Austin, 2010). President Bush, the United States' 43rd President, signed the No Child Left Behind Act into law as a response to the underperformance of fourth and eighth grade students in the United States on international literacy assessments when compared to students from other developed nations (Dean et al., 2010). As a result of this underperformance, the literacy coach position was originally designed to help support classroom teachers in the delivery of effective literacy instruction (ILA, 2010). In addition, NCLB outlined the need for classroom teacher professional development in literacy instruction and further emphasized the need for the literacy coach position (Dean et al., 2010). Other legislation such as Reading First, Reading Next, and Early Reading First helped provide funding for the position of a literacy coach in underperforming schools (Blamey, Meyer, & Walpole, 2008).

The roles of a literacy coach are intended to provide the following services to schools: conduct professional development for classroom teachers, administrators, and support staff at the school-site; model lessons and best literacy instructional practices for classroom teachers and administrators; and finally provide on-going support for classroom teachers with the goal of improving literacy instruction (ILA, 2010). In 2010, the International Literacy Association established standards that described the roles of the literacy coach as:

"Their responsibilities may include teaching, coaching, and leading school

reading programs. Reading Specialists/Literacy Coaches may also serve as a

resource in reading and writing for educational support personnel, administrators,

teachers, and the community, provide professional development based on

historical and current literature and research, work collaboratively with other

professionals to build and implement reading programs for individuals and groups

of students, and serve as advocates for students who struggle with reading. Many

of these professionals have a specific focus that further defines their duties, such

as serving as a teacher for students' experiencing reading difficulties, as a reading

or literacy coach, as a coordinator of reading and writing programs at the school

or district level, or in several combinations of these roles" (ILA, 2010, "Standards

2010: Reading Specialist/ Literacy Coach", para. 1).

One issue that many literacy coaches battle with is forming an identity even

though the ILA (2010) standards for reading professionals clearly defines the roles of the

literacy coach; additionally, NCLB emphasized high quality reading instruction and the

need for literacy coaches in supporting effective classroom literacy instruction.   Several

barriers were identified for example, administrators, school cultures, and federal policies,

that prevent literacy coaches from performing tasks that are aligned with the ILA

standards. Walpole and Blamey (2008) reported in a five state survey (n = 203) that 45

percent of a literacy coach's work week was spent on tasks unrelated to the roles of a

literacy coach as identified by the ILA (2010) standards. Numerous reasons for this

mismatch exist, including a lack of a specific job description enumerating the roles of the

coach; a lack of understanding that surrounds the most efficient way of utilizing the

services of the literacy coach to promote teacher and student success; various and

changing perspectives on the roles of the literacy coach; the newness of the literacy coach

position; a lack of prior role models in the position; administrative assignments for the

coach that fell outside of coaching duties; a coach's lack of training or understanding in

certain literacy content areas, over emphasis on student performance on state

assessments; data collection and analyses; and the administration of assessments all

contribute to a literacy coach spending time on duties outside the purview of a literacy

coach (Dean et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 2008; van Leent & Exley, 2013; Walpole &

Blamey, 2008). However, more research is needed to determine if the self-efficacy

beliefs of elementary literacy coaches impacts the tasks that they choose to perform daily.

Roles and Tasks of a Literacy Coach

International literacy association standards for literacy coaches. The roles of the

literacy coach have been described in a wide variety of ways. This inconsistency has led

to role confusion (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Past research resulted in adding many

different roles that defined the position of the literacy coach (Blachowicz et al., 2010;

DiMeglio & Mangin, 2010; Kissel, Mraz, Algozzine, & Stover, 2011; Poglinco et al.,

2003; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). However, the International Literacy Association is

seeking to address and resolve this issue through the creation and dissemination of

standards for the roles of the literacy coach (ILA, 2010), which clearly identifies the roles

of a literacy coach in six different domains. These domains include: foundational

knowledge; curriculum and instruction; assessment and evaluation; diversity; literate environment; and professional learning and leadership (ILA, 2010).

The International Literacy Association's standards for literacy coaches help define what was once an ambiguous role. The standards state that literacy coaches lead school literacy programs, support teachers and administrators by providing resources in literacy, provide professional development, serve as advocates for struggling readers and writers, and serve as a coordinator of literacy at a school or district level (ILA, 2010). These roles are reinforced in the six domains stated prior with explicit tasks that literacy coaches should aim to address in their positions at their schools.

In the first domain, foundational knowledge, the literacy coach should have extensive knowledge of current and past learning theories of reading and writing processes and be able to support teachers in the application of these theories during instruction in the classroom (ILA, 2010). The standards in the first domain recommend that literacy coaches study the instructional environment and provide suggestions for ways to motivate and encourage students to become readers and writers (ILA, 2010).

The second domain, curriculum and instruction, shifts the role of the literacy coach into scaffolding teachers in the implementation of a literacy curriculum (ILA, 2010). Additionally, in this domain, literacy coaches provide insight into instructional and assessment tools to support struggling readers and writers. The standards in this domain also suggest that literacy coaches should be working with classroom teachers

across grade levels in order to align literacy curriculum across the entire school (ILA, 2010).

Assessment and evaluation is the third domain in the ILA standards. According to ILA (2010), literacy coaches will be able to understand the purpose and the research for a variety of literacy assessments. Also, the standards state that literacy coaches will be able to explain the technical aspects of various assessments (ILA, 2010). In addition, they should explain the expectations for student proficiency and benchmarks across the various grade levels they support. In the fourth domain, diversity, literacy coaches provide support for lesson planning with respect to diverse learners; help teachers understand the development of learning a new language; and provide opportunities for professional development regarding how diversity influences reading and writing processes for students, especially those that struggle (ILA, 2010).

Literate environment, the fifth ILA (2010) domain, explains that literacy coaches will model in classroom environments that are supportive of growing readers and writers with special attention to those that struggle. In addition, the ILA standards (2010) call for literacy coaches to support teachers in establishing routines within literacy instruction that includes how to support struggling readers and writers, the use of digital literacies, and data-based grouping for instruction. The last domain, professional learning and leadership, requires literacy coaches to use research for a variety of purposes that includes how best to grow adult learners and implement effective professional development practices (ILA, 2010). In this domain, literacy coaches engage in

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professional organizations and support a love for literacy among teachers, parents, and administrators (ILA, 2010).

The ILA standards for literacy coaches are a synthesis of the current and past research provided for this position. Prior research has explored the position of literacy coaches and the roles they take on at the school-site. Much of this research shows the inconsistencies of the roles of the literacy coach which is explained throughout the rest of this section. This is one of the primary reasons the ILA organization has developed these standards focusing on clarifying the roles of the literacy coach.

Prior research on literacy coaches can be organized into two categories; (a) research that identifies specific roles of a literacy coach and, (b) research that identifies specific tasks of a literacy coach. This prior research will be discussed at length to give a historical background as to why the ILA developed the standards for reading professionals such as the literacy coach.

Roles. Kissel et al. (2011) interviewed literacy coaches to understand their perceptions of their roles and concluded that literacy coaches identified themselves in roles as content experts, promoters of self-reflection, a professional development facilitator, and a facilitator of a school-wide literacy community. In each of these roles, literacy coaches perceive themselves differently. As content experts, literacy coaches perceive themselves as having vast amounts of knowledge and skills within teaching theories and pedagogy (Kissel et al., 2011). Kissel and colleagues (2011) explained that literacy coaches in the role of being a promoter of reflective instruction help teachers

reflect on lessons and support the analysis of student data to make instructional decisions. In addition, the literacy coach is perceived to be a professional development facilitator and is expected to provide whole and small group professional learning opportunities in and outside of the classroom. The literacy coach is one that helps to set the vision for literacy instruction in their school (Kissel et al., 2011). Kissel et al. (2011) noted that literacy coaches perform administrative tasks in addition to their other roles. This one study demonstrates the wide range of roles literacy coaches perform as perceived by literacy coaches themselves. Several of these roles overlap with the ILA standards, including providing professional development and supporting school literacy programs and communities. However, many literacy coaches do not view themselves as supporters of struggling readers and writers (Kissel et al., 2011). This finding demonstrates a gap between what a literacy coach perceives of themselves and the standards set forth by the International Literacy Association.

In a study conducted by Walpole and Blamey (2008), they explained that administrators view coaches in the roles of being mentors and directors, while literacy coaches view themselves in the roles of an assessor, curriculum manager, formative observer, modeler, teacher, and trainer. In the eyes of the administrator, literacy coaches should act as a mentor when they model lessons in teachers' classrooms (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). As viewed by an administrator, the role of the mentor meant that the literacy coach would observe the teacher and provide specific feedback to support the teacher's instructional delivery (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). In addition, the administrator

views the literacy coach as a director and this means that the literacy coach will oversee literacy programs and their alignment with state directives, develop a plan for professional development for their entire staff, and implement school wide literacy initiatives (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Literacy coaches have a different perspective of their own roles. Literacy coaches view themselves as an assessor (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). In this role, literacy coaches believe that they oversee the assessment plan at their school-site through training, scheduling, and reporting of results. Walpole and Blamey (2008) explained that literacy coaches view themselves as a curriculum manager. This role means that the literacy coach evaluates the materials and provides support for the adoption of a new core curriculum for their teachers. Another role the literacy coach believes that they undertake is that of an observer (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). In this role, the literacy coach observes teachers implementing professional development in their classrooms and provides feedback. Also, literacy coaches think of themselves as a modeler to show teachers how to implement professional development in their classrooms (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Additionally, literacy coaches view their role to be that of a teacher that continues to grow and learn about literacy content and instructional best practices. Finally, literacy coaches view their role as a trainer by instructing teachers on how to use a core curriculum (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Literacy coaches in this study view themselves as serving in more roles than their administrative colleagues.

Walpole and Blamey's (2008) study highlights the different viewpoints of literacy coaches and administrators for the roles of the literacy coach. The roles that literacy coaches performed were a curriculum manager, an observer, a modeler, and a trainer (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). These roles are in alignment with the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches.

These studies offer insight into the roles of the literacy coach from multiple perspectives. As a result, numerous terms are used to describe the roles of the literacy coach and in many instances different titles have been used to describe the same role. For example, curriculum manager and a leader of school-wide literacy programs are two terms that describe the same role. Calo (2008) concluded that literacy coaches have multiple responsibilities and roles and that there is not one consistent description of the roles of the literacy coach. The ILA (2010) standards attempt to bring clarity to the overlapping use of terms and variance in terms used to describe the roles of the literacy coach.

Tasks. Additional research seeks to highlight the different tasks that literacy coaches perform in their roles. Researchers offer a variety of tasks literacy coaches perform and many use different terms to describe the same tasks.

Blachowicz et al. (2010) trained literacy coaches to perform specific tasks such as working with teachers and students and collaborating with other educational professionals such as an administrator. In addition, Blachowicz et al. (2010) explained that literacy coaches perform other tasks like attending meetings, performing lunch duty,

and monitoring grants materials which are not reflected in the ILA standards (2010) for literacy coaches. The tasks that literacy coaches were being trained for in the study mirrored the ILA standards. However, Blachowicz et al. (2010) noted that literacy coaches continued to perform tasks that they were not trained for and do not reflect the roles of a literacy coach as outlined by the ILA's (2010) standards. As such, Blachowicz et al. (2010) stated the importance of goal setting among literacy coaches to help ensure the knowledge of their roles are embedded into everyday practice and tasks they complete with teachers. This indicates that despite training, literacy coaches continue to perform tasks unrelated to their roles. In response, literacy coaches need to set goals regarding what they will do to help them perform tasks that support teachers instead of extraneous tasks unrelated to their roles. This notion of goal-setting directly correlates to strong self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 2012) which will be explained later in this chapter.

A study conducted by Poglinco et al. (2003) identified tasks literacy coaches perform through interviewing these literacy coaches that worked in America's Choice Schools. They concluded that literacy coaches believe they should be planning with colleagues, modeling instruction, co-teaching, providing feedback, conducting formal observations, mentoring, and providing informal coaching (Poglinco et al., 2003). Co-teaching is a task that appears only in this study. In a co-teaching model, literacy coaches plan and implement lessons side-by-side with classroom teachers (Poglinco et al., 2003). This means that the literacy coach teaches parts of a lesson and the classroom teacher teaches other parts of the lesson. Informal coaching is another task that only appears in

this study. Poglinco et al. (2003) explained that informal coaching is occurring more than expected, because it is when teachers can speak to the coach and ask questions. According to Poglinco et al. (2003), this informal coaching is random. Several tasks overlap with the ILA (2010) standards including modeling instruction through professional development and providing resources such as lesson planning. However, this study lists that literacy coaches who co-teach and provide informal coaching are providing tasks not included in the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Providing feedback is the one task that overlaps in this study and Blachowicz's (2010) study.

Still, other studies indicate that literacy coaches perform additional tasks not previously mentioned. For example, DiMeglio and Magin (2010) found that literacy coaches conduct grade level meetings, support lesson planning, model literacy lessons for teachers, provide remedial reading for struggling students, assess students' literacy knowledge, and debrief with teachers. Another study concluded that literacy coaches perform these tasks: celebrating success, facilitating conversation, modeling lessons, scaffolding reflections, and building rapport with colleagues (van Leent & Exley, 2013). This study emphasized the need for literacy coaches to build trusting relationships as part of the tasks they perform. Van Leent and Exley (2013) explained that literacy coaches build rapport with their colleagues by establishing trust through conversation and supportive feedback. Meanwhile, Hanson (2011) suggested that literacy coaches perform tasks including walk-throughs, literacy team meetings, conduct professional learning community meetings, engage in formal coaching, and meet with the

administrator weekly. In literacy team meetings, the literacy coach supported

professional conversations about applying literacy practices within a group of teachers'

classrooms (Hanson, 2011). Meeting with a literacy team is a task in Hanson's study that

did not appear in other research. Additionally, Hanson (2011) pointed out that meeting

with the administrator is an expected task of the literacy coach and helps the

administrator be up-to-date on literacy knowledge. Meeting with the administrator

provides insight into how teachers are implementing literacy best practices in their

classrooms.

Literacy coaches take on a variety of tasks in their position at their school. It is

evident from this line of research that there is not one clear view of the tasks that literacy

coaches perform in schools across the United States, or it could be said that literacy

coaches perform a wide variety of tasks that depend on the school's culture and setting.

Poglinco et al. (2003) explained it best; many literacy coaches feel their job is difficult to

do since there is no specific job description including a lack of role definition and

misunderstandings among teachers and administrators.

Past research has focused on the tasks and roles that literacy coaches perform

based on perceptions and interviews with literacy coaches and administrators. Such role

ambiguity may have stemmed from administrators' misunderstandings of the roles of a

literacy coach and a prior lack of training for literacy coaches (Dean et al., 2010).

However, no one source has solely identified the cause for such role ambiguity. Studying

and understanding the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches may offer insight into a

topic that cannot be completely explained, yet. Thus, a survey needs to be created and validated to measure the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches to help explain why elementary literacy coaches may perform a wide variety of roles and tasks that are not outlined by the ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches.

Literacy Coach Identities

Social identity is when a person identifies as belonging to a group that shares common values, beliefs, and norms (Stets and Burke, 2000). Those not directly involved with the group or those who do not identify with the group tend to not share the same beliefs or values. As such, literacy coaches take on tasks unrelated to their roles due to a lack of a clear identity of the roles they play in their school or district. The topic of social identity connects to the position of a literacy coach, because the literacy coach is the only person in the building with roles that changes from being a teacher to that of an administrator (Kissel et al., 2011). Thus, literacy coaches take on various identities based on the situation at hand which causes many of them to take on a wide variety of roles and tasks (Rainville & Jones, 2008; van Leent & Exley, 2013).

Dean et al. (2010) offered a plausible explanation as to why literacy coaches can have a difficult time forming an identity. They concluded that there are discrepancies between job expectations, descriptions, and titles for the roles of the literacy coach. Dean et al. (2010) believed this is why many teachers, administrators, and even literacy coaches do not know exactly what the literacy coach does in their roles. Thus, literacy coaches spend a lot of time and effort in trying to form an identity at or within their job

(van Leent & Exley 2013). Van Leent and Exley (2013) interviewed one literacy coach over the course of the first two years in their position and noted the evolution of the literacy coach's identity from year one to year two. Van Leent and Exley (2013) explained that in the first year the literacy coach took on the identity of being a colleague and friend to teachers to establish trust and a working relationship with peers in the building. Additionally, the literacy coach took on the role of a reflective practitioner in the first year (van Leent & Exley, 2013). This helped the staff reflect on their progress. This reflection allowed the literacy coach to elicit feedback about areas in which the staff felt they needed further support.

In the second year, there was a shift in the identity for the literacy coach. Van Leent and Exley (2013) noted that the literacy coach was more of an inquirer as she asked more questions. Additionally, in the second year the literacy coach assumed the identity of a learner by utilizing resources outside the school to support the faculty at the school, including herself. These same authors added to the professional conversation of literacy coach identities by explaining how the roles and identities shifted over time. This study explained the different tasks the literacy coach performed because of their identity at the time. As explained earlier, literacy coaches perform a wide variety of tasks (DiMeglio & Magin, 2010; Poglinco et al., 2003; van Leent & Exley, 2013), and if van Leent and Exley are correct in their observations, it explains some of the causes for the multiple identities that literacy coaches take on as they perform different tasks.

According to prior research, the vague expectations which define the roles and responsibilities of a literacy coach at the school or district level cause them to spend a large amount of energy trying to create an educational identity (Blamey, Meyer, & Walpole, 2008). Marsh et al. (2008) noted that literacy coaches wear many hats in performing their job, because they do not have a clear idea of who they are and what they should be doing. For example, literacy coaches perform administrative tasks like testing (Marsh et al., 2008). Marsh et al. (2008) reported that more than two-thirds of literacy coaches spend a significant amount of time every two weeks administering state or local assessments. This means the literacy coach takes on the identity of an administrator. In the same study by Marsh et al. (2008), many literacy coaches and classroom teachers explained that they feel the literacy coach is being pulled in a variety of directions. This results in the literacy coach taking on too many tasks (Rainville and Jones, 2008). Marsh et al. (2008) emphasized that literacy coaches and teachers identify the literacy coach as wearing many hats because of the various tasks they perform and how often they are being pulled to do tasks that are not aligned with the roles of literacy coaching.

Literacy coaches take on many identities due to unclear expectations and descriptions of the roles. Situated identities among literacy coaches are due to multiple identities that the literacy coach takes on based on the situation (Rainville & Jones, 2008). Rainville and Jones (2008) studied a literacy coach and noticed how she took on different identities during a conversation with another teacher. At first the literacy coach was eliciting feedback about an observed lesson that she modeled and during this time the

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coach took on the identity of being a peer professional. Then the literacy coach took on

the identity of being a friend when she started joking with the teacher. Rainville and

Jones' (2008) study aptly pointed out that one literacy coach can move from being in the

position of power and suggesting instructional changes in one setting to minutes later not

having power and second guessing herself because of a challenging colleague. In each

situation, the literacy coach had a different identity. As the literacy coach recommended

changes, she had the identity of one that was knowledgeable. Then in a conversation

with a different and resistant teacher, she took on the identity of being more passive and

not as confident in her ability to discuss instructional design or assessments. The

situations that unfolded in the daily life of the literacy coach required the literacy coach

to take on different identities (Rainville & Jones, 2008).

Additionally, Rainville and Jones' (2008) study bridged the tasks and roles that

literacy coaches perform and the various identities they take on. For example, one of the

tasks that a literacy coach performs is providing professional development (Hanson,

2011; ILA, 2010; Kissel et al., 2011). Rainville and Jones (2008) explained that the

identity the literacy coach takes on while providing professional development is that of

being a co-learner with her staff. This information about identities adds on to the

previous research that strictly stated the tasks and roles of literacy coaches. Their study

brought forward the idea that as literacy coaches perform different tasks and roles, they

simultaneously take on different identities.

As literacy coaches perform various tasks and roles they end up taking on many identities based on the situation (van Leent & Exley, 2013). Literacy coaches are neither a classroom teacher nor an administrator. This means that literacy coaches take on roles that are somewhere between an educator-professional and administrator that has been left undefined. The studies listed in this section indicate that literacy coaches perform a wide range of tasks and roles that are unrelated to their position as a literacy coach.

Literacy Coaches' Time Spent

How a literacy coach spends their time during their school day is directly impacted by the various roles, tasks, and numerous identities of that coach (Blamey, Meyer, Walpole, 2008; Marsh et al., 2008). A literacy coach's identity is associated with the social and cultural context that they operate in, because their social interaction with colleagues impacts their norms, beliefs, and values (Stets & Burke, 2000). The roles and tasks valued within that community are reflected in the tasks that the literacy coach spends most of their time performing. This next section reviews literature that explains how past literacy coaches have spent their time.

In a survey of literacy coaches in five different states, Walpole and Blamey (2008) explained that the majority of literacy coaches' time was on tasks unrelated to their roles. The 203 literacy coaches that took the survey indicated, on average, that only 28 percent of their week was spent working with teachers in a group or a one-on-one setting. Walpole and Blamey (2008) expressed surprise at the discovery that almost 50 percent of literacy coaches' week was spent on tasks unrelated to coaching. Literacy

coaches indicated that they spend time at bus duty along with performing other administrative tasks (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). As explained earlier, Kissel et al. (2011) and Blachowicz et al. (2010) noted that literacy coaches take on many administrative tasks despite training for their roles and this is reinforced in surveys conducted by Walpole and Blamey (2008) and Marsh et al. (2008).

According to Walpole and Blamey (2008), attending or conducting meetings are examples of tasks that coaches spend time on that are unrelated to their roles as a coach. This was confirmed by studies conducted by Blachowicz et al. (2010) and Hanson (2011). Most recently, elementary literacy coaches in a central Florida school district participated in a study about the perceptions of the roles of the literacy coach (Ulenski, Unpublished Manuscript, 2015). Through self-reporting of hours, 60 percent of the respondents spent between three and 12 hours a week conducting or attending meetings (Ulenski, Unpublished Manuscript, 2015).

Other studies support the notion that literacy coaches spent more time performing tasks that have nothing to do with the actual position as outlined by the ILA (2010) standards for literacy coaches. For example, Dean et al. (2010) explained in an analysis of Poglinco and colleagues' (2003) survey of literacy coaches' time in American First Schools that less than three hours a week were spent performing coaching tasks. Literacy coaches have repeatedly self-reported spending vast amounts of time performing roles, responsibilities, and tasks unrelated to their job (Blachowicz et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 2008; Poglinco et al., 2003; Walpole & Blamey, 2008) Attending and conducting

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meetings is a theme that appears across much of the research in light of all other tasks and roles performed by the literacy coach. This helps explain why literacy coaches have numerous identities and why they spend a significant amount of time trying to create an identity for themselves (Blamey, Meyer, & Walpole, 2008). Additionally, the numerous hours reported by literacy coaches on tasks unrelated to their roles could have been the result of a lack of identity as noted by van Leent and Exley (2013) or a side effect of national, state, and administrative directives (Walpole & Blamey, 2008).

To get a clearer understanding of why literacy coaches choose the tasks they perform, their self-efficacy beliefs should be explored. As discussed earlier, literacy coaches lack identity, take on various roles, and perform numerous tasks outside their roles as a coach. This section reinforces past research with self-reported hours of literacy coaches doing just that: performing various tasks, especially those unrelated to their roles. By exploring their self-efficacy beliefs, the literacy community can begin to understand if the hours that literacy coaches report for certain tasks are because they have high efficacy for those tasks. In addition, the tasks that are not performed frequently by a literacy coach may be a result of low efficacy for those tasks. Developing a survey to assess the self-efficacy beliefs of tasks related to the roles of an elementary literacy coach would provide insight into the reasons why literacy coaches report spending time performing tasks unrelated to their roles and little time on tasks required by their roles.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory explains a person's psychosocial functioning (Pajares, 2002). Bandura (1997) explained that social cognitive theory assumes a triadic

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reciprocity between a person's behavior, environmental factors, and personal factors.

Usher and Pajares (2009) further stated that how one interprets the results of their choices

and behavior leads to a change in the environment and their self-efficacy beliefs. Then,

their new self-efficacy beliefs impact and determine future behavior (Usher & Pajares,

2009). Pajares (2002) noted that people are producers and products of their own

environment because of their choices, self-efficacy beliefs, and personal factors they

possess. This means that people choose or alter their environment based on their

perceptions, evaluate their own behavior, and regulate their own actions.

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy theory is a subset of social cognitive theory (Pajares,

1997). Perceived self-efficacy is a person's belief in their ability to perform at a certain

level to accomplish a task (Dellinger et al., 2007; Pajares 2002). Thus, a person's self-

efficacy beliefs influence their behavior choices and impact environmental settings as

well as personal factors such as their feelings (Bandura 1977; Fives & Buehl, in press;

Pajares, 1997; Pajares, 2002). This type of judgment that people have about their

capabilities is found across different domains of functioning through different task

demands in a variety of settings (Kitching, Cassidy, Eachus, & Hogg, 2001; Klassen,

Tze, Betts & Gordon, 2011; Pajares 2003). Numerous studies indicate that self-efficacy

beliefs are contextual and task specific (Bandura 2012; Klassen, Tze, Betts, Gordon,

2011; Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003). Self-efficacy is a cognitive process that is

acquired and regulated by four different sources of information: mastery experience;

vicarious experience; social persuasion; and emotional and physiological states (Bandura

1977; Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1997; Pajares, 2002; Usher & Pajares; 2008). Of these four sources, researchers unanimously indicate that mastery experience is the most powerful influence on a person's sense of efficacy (Cantrell et al., 2015; Pajares, 2002; Usher & Pajares; 2008). Even further research indicates that self-efficacy can be predicted by a mastery experience (Britner & Pajares, 2006; Hampton, 1998; Klassen, 2004; Lent, Lopez, & Bieschke, 1991; Lopez & Lent, 1992; Lopez, Lent, Brown, & Gore, 1997). These four sources of information are used to develop a person's self-efficacy beliefs because the results of a person's actions are interpreted and these interpretations inform and change their self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares, 2003; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009; Usher & Pajares, 2009; Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Mastery experience is the most influential source of information on a person's self-efficacy (Cantrell et al., 2015). Mastery experience is defined as achieving success and this raises a person's sense of efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Fives and Buehl (in press) explained that mastery experience occurs through practice sessions. These practice sessions are set up to reinforce success to develop a sense of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1977). During these practice sessions, a more experienced person helps another person achieve a mastery experience when the more experienced person models, guides practice, gradually increases the complexity, and provides aids to help reduce the fear of failure (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 2002). Cantrell and Hughes (2008) explained that literacy coaches provide a mastery experience for teachers through a practice lesson that supports the teacher when trying out new techniques. Mastery experience is most powerful when

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the person sustains their effort to overcome obstacles or tasks that are challenging (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Through support and guidance, a mastery experience increases a person's sense of efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). It has been well documented that a mastery experience in a domain has long lasting effects and can be applied to other domains when applicable (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009) claimed that strong self-efficacy beliefs, positive or negative, are resistant and predictable. However, Usher and Pajares (2008) explained, a person's self-efficacy beliefs change as they develop and improve their skills. Self-efficacy beliefs are learned through multiple experiences and can change based on the context and task difficulty (Cantrell et al., 2015; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke-Spero, 2005).

Vicarious experience is thought to have the second most influence on a person's sense of efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Vicarious experiences occur when other people have modeled success and in whom the observer believes they share common skills and capabilities (Bandura, 1994; Cantrell et al., 2015; Pajares, 2002). Through the observation of others performing challenging tasks without negative consequences, observers persuade themselves that if other people can do that task then they can too (Usher & Pajares, 2009). The observer believes that they can accomplish similar tasks with success. Basically, vicarious experience is the belief that if someone else who is similar to me can do it, then I can do it too. Several research studies indicate that modeling is an effective form of vicarious experience since the observer is taught better

ways to accomplish the same task (Bandura, 1994; Fives & Buehl, in press; Pajares, 2003). As the social model performs the task for the person watching, the context is similar (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). For example, the classroom demographics must be similar for the observing teacher to feel that they can do the same thing with their students. The social models are more persuasive when the context is similar (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Social persuasion is another way to develop a person's sense of efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). As the term states, it is through suggestions and feedback that one persuades another that they can perform the task well (Usher & Pajares, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). However, the believability of the statements is based on the credibility of the person providing suggestions or feedback (Usher & Pajares, 2009). Hattie and Timperley (2007) indicated that the effects of these social judgments are enhanced through instruction and if the task is performed under the right conditions. Fives and Buehl (in press) expressed that in workshops, social persuasion is used to bolster a person's self-efficacy beliefs. Workshops are an example of Hattie and Timperley's notion of a "right condition." Usher and Pajares (2008) described the right conditions as being a safe situation for the person to try the task with minimal support to attribute the success to their own. Social judgments can be used for encouragement or to diminish a person's belief in their capabilities (Usher & Pajares, 2008). As such, prior research indicates that social persuasion is more difficult in strengthening a person's

sense of efficacy than weakening it (Bandura, 1994; Pajares, 1997; Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Somatic and emotional states contribute to the development of self-efficacy in a person (Zeldin & Pajares, 2000). Feeling excited, stressed, nervous, or anxious provides insight into a person's self-efficacy beliefs. These feelings influence a person's thought about their capabilities to perform a task (Usher & Pajares, 2008). This means that if a person is feeling stressed, they tend to see it as a sign of an inability to perform a task. Additionally, a person's mood affects their sense of efficacy (Cantrell et al., 2015; Klassen et al., 2011; Usher & Pajares, 2009). For example, a person with a depressed mood can weaken their self-efficacy beliefs. However, a positive mood can strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs.

It is important to understand the four sources of information that influence self-efficacy since self-efficacy beliefs are a strong predictor of performance (Cantrell et al., 2015). Self-efficacy beliefs are not a strong predictor of knowledge or skill (Cantrell et al., 2015). Cantrell et al. (2015) concluded that there is a need to understand the forces that influence a literacy coach's work. One such force that has affected a literacy coach's work is their self-efficacy beliefs in being able to perform literacy coaching tasks. Self-efficacy is useful in explaining and predicting a person's behavior choices, performance, effort level, and motivation (Cantrell et al., 2015; Kitching et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009).

Prior research indicates that these four sources of information impact a person's sense of efficacy and that self-efficacy is an accurate predictor of performance level for specific tasks (Usher & Pajares, 2009). Performance and persistence are heavily influenced by self-efficacy beliefs (Kitching et al., 2011; Pajares 2003; Usher & Pajares, 2008). A person's self-efficacy beliefs are a direct influence on a person's performance level, such as how long a person is willing to persevere despite obstacles to successfully complete the task (Usher & Pajares 2008; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). The amount of effort that one puts forth is part of their performance level. Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009) explained that a person's self-efficacy beliefs impact the amount of effort a person puts forth to accomplish a task. The amount of effort that one expends on a task is reflective of their self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). This includes their persistence and perseverance in the face of obstacles (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Dellinger et al. (2007) explained that performance level is what one is willing to do to successfully complete a task. Prior research indicates that the interpretation of results from previous attempts at similar tasks informs a person's self-efficacy beliefs which then impacts their performance level for that task again in the future (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009; Usher & Pajares, 2009). Additionally, a person that has a high self-efficacy while performing the task and receives positive feedback on the performance comes to expect the outcome they desire (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). However, a person that has a strong sense of efficacy in their performance and receives negative feedback comes to expect an outcome that was

different than the one they desire (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). Self-efficacy influences performance; students with high self-efficacy maintain effort and persistence to achieve academic success (Britner & Pajares, 2006; Huang & Chang, 1998).

People's motivation is directly influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs (Usher & Pajares, 2008). A person's ability to envision future outcome success can produce motivators for their actions (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015; Usher & Pajares, 2008). A person that is motivated to perform with a high sense of efficacy has a better chance of experiencing success and is much more likely to continue in the face of obstacles toward their desired outcome (Kitching et al., 2011; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Kitching et al. (2011) stated that a person with strong self-efficacy beliefs is more committed to accomplishing their goals. Thus, goal setting facilitates a person's sense of efficacy (Bandura, 2012). Additionally, a higher sense of efficacy facilitates a person's motivation to complete a task by supporting the overall well-being of that person which includes reducing stress and anxiety when challenges arise (Bandura, 1995; Pajares, 2002; Zeldin & Pajares, 2000). However, low self-efficacy beliefs negatively impact a person. If that person believes that their actions will not produce the results they wish, then they have little incentive for acting in the future (Bandura, 2012; Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009).

The choices that people make are influenced by their perceived self-efficacy (Klassen et al., 2011; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009) believed that a change in perceived self-efficacy causes a change in behavior and in turn

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that behavior is regulated by the outcomes of one's actions and their interpretations of the results of their actions. Thus, people choose their activities and settings based on their perceived self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 2002). For example, Pajares (2002) explained that perceived self-efficacy influences a person's choice and behavior because people select activities and settings where they feel more comfortable and can succeed. Also, Pajares (2002) stated that perceived self-efficacy beliefs influence a person's choices and behavior because people tend to avoid activities and settings where they are not comfortable and do not feel they are going to succeed.

Additional research indicates that perceived self-efficacy beliefs profoundly impacts a person's behavior choices and the course of action one selects to pursue in an activity or specific setting (Pajares, 2002). For example, perceived self-efficacy beliefs influence behavior choices, such as how long a person continues to do a task despite challenges, how much effort they put into doing a task, and how they respond to certain challenges (Dellinger et al., 2007; Usher & Pajares, 2008). A person with a high self-efficacy perceives tasks as ones that are meant to be conquered. Additionally, those with a high self-efficacy look at life and life's challenges in different ways than those with low self-efficacy. Another example, those with high self-efficacy set goals, sustain their desire to achieve their goals, and recover from setbacks quickly (Bandura, 2012). Low self-efficacy has undesirable effects regarding how someone looks at life's challenges. For instance, those with low self-efficacy avoid challenges, attribute personal deficiencies to setbacks, and resign quickly when tasks get more challenging (Bandura, 2012).

Additionally, having low self-efficacy is linked to taking longer to recover when there is a setback and has been known to increase stress (Klassen et al., 2011).

Educator Efficacy Beliefs

Teacher efficacy beliefs. Numerous studies have found that teacher efficacy is related to student achievement (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006; Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012; Klassen et al., 2011; Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Specifically, Guo et al. (2012) noted that the greater the sense of efficacy a teacher has, the better their students perform on reading assessments. Thus, it is worth examining teacher efficacy as it relates to literacy coaching since literacy coaches are teachers, and they impact the self-efficacy of classroom teachers that provide literacy instruction to students at the elementary level.

Teacher efficacy comes from locus of control theory (Rotter, 1954) and later modified to reflect Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory as described by Gibson and Dembo (1984).   Locus of control is the belief that it is within one's control to cause a specific outcome (Rotter, 1954). Two loci of control items are apparent in a survey of teachers by the RAND Corporation (Armor et al., 1976; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauley, & Zellman, 1977) that determined teacher efficacy to be a significant variable in developing change in a school-site.   The two statements included in the RAND study that focused on locus of control were, "When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment" and "If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or

unmotivated students" (Berman et al., 1977 p.137). The responses to these items allowed

for researchers to understand that teachers believe they have the ability to impact student

achievement. This was the first assessment of teacher efficacy. Students' reading

performance is strongly connected with how teachers respond to these two items (Armor

et al., 1976). Additionally, how teachers respond to these two loci of control items is

significantly related to their ability to make changes, their instructional behaviors, and

their success in instigating improvements (Berman et al., 1977; Cantrell & Hughes, 2008;

Guskey 1988).

Later, Ashton and Webb (1982) and Denham and Michael (1981) developed

models of teacher efficacy that were influenced by Bandura's (1977) conceptualization of

self-efficacy. The teacher efficacy model has two dimensions: personal efficacy and

teacher efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1982). Usher and Pajares (2009) described personal

efficacy as the belief that one has of their ability to successfully perform the behavior that

is necessary to obtain the desired outcome; whereas, teaching efficacy is the belief a

teacher has of their ability to affect student achievement (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008).

Teaching efficacy is linked with outcome expectation because outcome expectation is the

belief that a particular behavior causes a particular outcome (Dellinger et al., 2007).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) designed the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) to measure two

dimensions; personal efficacy (efficacy expectations) and teacher efficacy (outcome

expectation) in their relationship with teacher behavior. In order to understand the two

dimensions Gibson and Dembo (1984) applied Bandura's (1986) explanation that

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motivation is controlled by a person's efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. The results indicated that teachers with high self-efficacy demonstrate behaviors that are linked with better student performance (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). This finding indicates that a teacher's behavior is predicted by both their efficacy for teaching and their personal efficacy (Guo et al., 2012). Gibson and Dembo (1984) concluded that teacher and personal efficacy match Bandura's theory of self-efficacy.

As the Teacher Efficacy Scale gained further use in the field of studying teacher efficacy, theoretical and empirical concerns appeared (Tscahannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Guskey and Passaro (1994) concluded that the items for personal efficacy were stated in a positive format and had an internal locus of control. Internal locus of control means that the person believes they control what is happening. Guskey and Passaro (1994) concluded that the items for teaching efficacy were stated in a negative format and have an external locus of control. External locus of control refers to factors that exist outside of a person's control that affect the situation. As a result of their conclusions, Guskey and Passaro (1994) questioned if the positive and negative wording of the items leads to confusion of whether the items on the scale are measuring efficacy or outcome expectation.

The Creation of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy scale. As a result of these concerns, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) developed a model for teachers' sense of efficacy that is grounded in self-efficacy theory and originated from Bandura (1997). This new model "created a cycle through which self-efficacy beliefs are created,

assessed, and utilized" (Fives & Buehl, in press, p 343.) In addition, this model

incorporates the four sources of influence on self-efficacy: mastery experience, somatic

and emotional states, vicarious experience, and verbal persuasions as described by Usher

and Pajares (2008)   Through these four sources of influence on a teacher's sense of

efficacy, a teacher's self-efficacy is assessed through task analysis and self-assessment.

Task analysis is the understanding of the context of which the teaching task occurs

(Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). This is important because teacher efficacy is based on

the context in which the tasks are being performed (Klassen et al., 2011). Self-

assessment, as noted is judging one's own ability to perform a specific task (Fives &

Buehl, in press). A teacher's self-efficacy beliefs are intertwined with their effort, goals,

and dedication to performing specific tasks. This affects their performance on those

tasks. Fives and Buehl (in press) explained the model developed by Tschannen-Moran et

al. (1998) as a cycle where the results of a task are used to judge one's self-efficacy. Then

the interpretation of the results influence future behavior and choices. After completing a

task, the results are evaluated and then people make judgments of their capabilities based

on how they interpret the results (Usher & Pajares, 2008). This new model provides a

new perspective on how teachers develop their self-efficacy beliefs.

The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001)

assesses how teachers judge their capabilities in classroom management, growing student

participation, and instructional practices. These three areas are viewed through two

dimensions of how teachers judge their self-efficacy; personal competence and task

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analysis (Fives & Buehl, in press). These two dimensions are important, because teachers judge their competence within the context that the task is being performed (Klassen et al., 2011). The interaction between perceived competence and situational context influences a person's beliefs about their self-efficacy for the task they are performing (Klassen et al., 2011).

Literacy coach efficacy beliefs. Literacy coaches are teachers that support the professional development of their colleagues in reference to literacy instruction (ILA, 2010). Research has shown that an increase in teacher and collective efficacy in a school results in significant student achievement (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). Thus, it is important for literacy coaches to develop a strong sense of efficacy for tasks they should perform as outlined by the ILA (2010) standards to develop and strengthen their faculties' sense of efficacy for literacy instruction. A stronger the sense of efficacy for the entire faculty should lead to an increase in student success (Cantrell et al., 2015). Literacy coaches do not work in silos and are not isolated teaching professionals. They collaborate with other teachers, staff, and administrators. Through their work with various education professionals in different school settings, literacy coaches assume many responsibilities and identities based on the culture that exists in that school for their roles (Rainville & Jones, 2008). A literacy coach's self-efficacy beliefs influence the tasks they perform and their behavior choices at work (Cantrell et al., 2015). Literacy coaches judge their own capabilities for the tasks and activities they perform (Cantrell et al., 2015). Usher and Pajares (2008) explained that this set of self-efficacy

beliefs influence the tasks a person is or is not willing to perform. Thus, if a literacy coach believes they are not strong at teaching a guided reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) lesson for a teacher, then the literacy coach will avoid doing this in front of another teacher. However, if a literacy coach perceives that they are great at conducting meetings, then the literacy coach is more willing to take on that task. Studying literacy coaches' self-efficacy beliefs allows for a greater understanding of their behavior choices. An abundance of research highlights the significant role of mastery experience on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986; Cantrell et al., 2015; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Literacy coaches struggle because they need to balance the many tasks they perform (Cantrell et al., 2015). This is a result of many literacy coaches not performing all true coaching tasks. They pick and choose which tasks they need to perform (Marsh et al., 2008). Cantrell et al. (2015) emphasized the hesitation of literacy coaches in providing professional development when they initially started coaching because they did not have a strong sense of efficacy for performing this task. Literacy coaches that had a successful experience providing professional development strengthened their self-efficacy for that task, and this resulted in providing further professional development to teachers in upcoming years (Cantrell et al., 2015).

In addition, Walpole and Blamey (2008) stated that literacy coaches are not spending a significant amount of time in the classroom performing coaching duties (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Teachers leaving the classroom and entering the literacy coach job do not receive training in how to coach in another teacher's classroom

(Poglinco et al., 2003). Prior research explains that a person's self-efficacy beliefs change as they develop their skills and receive training (Usher & Pajares 2008). Once literacy coaches receive proper training and experience success accomplishing the tasks set forth by the ILA standards, it strengthens their sense of efficacy and will likely result in an increase of future coaching in the classroom.

Self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches need to be explored to understand the reasons why elementary literacy coaches spend ample time performing tasks unrelated to their roles. Initially, literacy coaches were created with the intention of raising student achievement by supporting teachers in strengthening their instructional practices (Dean et al., 2010). Much research indicates that school improvement is possible when teachers increase their self-efficacy, but the contextual nature in which self-efficacy increases must still be studied (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000). Thus, a measure of a literacy coach's self-efficacy must be context and task specific.

Gaps in Literacy Coaching Self-Efficacy Measurements

Based on the standards set by Pajares and Barich (2005) and Bandura (2006) for measuring self-efficacy, there are problems with using the Teacher Efficacy Scale and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale to measure the self-efficacy of literacy coaches. Theoretical concerns were found with prior surveys used to assess teacher self-efficacy (Haines, McGrath, Pirot, 1980; Henson, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), including

the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984). As stated earlier, there are several issues with the TES (Klassen et al., 2011). First, there is a concern about the wording of the two factors (personal and teacher efficacy) in the TES. Second, the wording of the items on the TES has led to confusion about whether the item was measuring efficacy or outcome expectation. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSES) measures general teacher self-efficacy. The items on the TSES instrument were not written to measure specific tasks within teaching. As such, the authors of the TSES, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) explained that the results of assessing teacher efficacy changes depending on the context.

Swackhammer (2010) explained that current self-efficacy instruments intending to measure a teacher's self-efficacy lack context and task specificity. As Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) explained, instruments must be balanced between being too specific and being too general. Instruments that are not properly balanced decrease their predictive potential (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). It is important for an instrument to have predictive potential because many instruments are often used to predict behavior and student success (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Caprara et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2012; Klassen et al., 2011; Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Thus, as Bandura (2006) and Pajares and Barich (2005) noted, the best instruments intended to measure self-efficacy beliefs have items written with specificity to the tasks that the person is intended to perform. The tasks to be assessed on the self-efficacy survey need to be determined prior to the survey's creation (Bandura, 2006). Cantrell

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and colleagues (2015) attempted to measure the self-efficacy of literacy coaches with surveys that measure general teaching efficacy. The surveys used in the Cantrell et al. (2015) study were developed by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), and Gibson and Dembo (1984). Using these surveys with literacy coaches is a concern because the surveys are not specific to the tasks that a literacy coach performs. Additionally, the items on the instrument used in the Cantrell et al. (2015) study were written for classroom teachers, not literacy coaches. The results of this study should be called into question since Bandura (2006) and Usher and Parajes (2008) stated that to assess a person's self-efficacy the instruments must have items written in such a specific way that they reflect the tasks the person is expected to perform. A major concern of the Cantrell et al. (2015) instrument is that the items on the TES survey are general and designed for a classroom teacher. The authors were not assessing a literacy coach's self-efficacy to perform a literacy coaching task. Instead, they measured a literacy coach's self-efficacy to perform classroom teacher tasks.

Also, construct validity is another area of concern with using the TES and TSES for measuring teacher or a literacy coach's self-efficacy. Henson (2001) explained that the Teacher Efficacy Scale has low factorial validity. Henson (2001) noted that the total variance presented for the two factors (personal and teaching efficacy) was only 28.8%. Also, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the TES and results indicated that the two dimensions within the instrument did not fit the data (Denzine, Cooney, & Mckenzie, 2005). Additionally, the validity of the TSES has been examined a few times

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(Heneman, Kimball, & Milanowski, 2007; Klassen et al., 2009) despite its frequent use in studies to assess teacher self-efficacy (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2005; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). The constructs in the TSES were consistent in repeated administration and in a variety of settings (Heneman, Kimball, & Milanowski, 2007; Klassen et al., 2009). However, this is not always the case when the TSES is modified for content-specific academic domains (Swackhammer, 2010).

<center>Instrument Validation</center>

The purpose of this study was to (a) review the literature on self-efficacy in literacy coaches in order to (b) create and validate a survey to assess the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary school literacy coaches. In order to design a task-specific survey that measures the self-efficacy of elementary literacy coaches, it is imperative to have a strong theoretical and conceptual framework when attempting to design a psychological survey. Next, reliability and validity procedures for validating an instrument will be reviewed to provide the framework for the design of the present study.

Reliability. One example of reliability is internal consistency. Colosi (1997) explained that internal consistency means that the items on an instrument assess the same construct in a similar way. Reliability is determined when there are multiple administrations of a survey, and the results consistently provide the same or similar answer (AERA, 1999; Colosi, 1997; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Cronbach's Alpha is one statistical coefficient used to determine the reliability for an instrument. A Cronbach's Alpha of greater than .80 indicates that the instrument is consistent across repeated administrations to different populations.

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Validity. An instrument is valid when it measures what it was intended to measure (Messick, 1995). As Huck (2008) explained, there are different types of validity because of the various ways to calculate the accuracy of scores. According to Messick (1995), there are six ways to explore validity: content, structural, consequential, external, generalizability, and substantive. As a result of testing, there should be evidence of validity reflected in the content, internal structure, correlations with other surveys, and response processes (AERA, 1999). In order to determine content validity, the researcher should determine what it was that they intend to measure and then create items that cover that content. An expert should judge the items on the survey in that content area to make sure the items reflect the context and task as intended (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Content validity is based on the judgments of how the survey is constructed and how well the items reflect the content area by an expert in that area; no statistical software could produce a quantitative measure to determine content validity (Gay, Mills, Airasian, 2009; Huck, 2008).

Construct validity is determined by using statistical analyses to see if there is evidence that the survey measures what it is meant to measure (Messick, 1995). A set of attributes that a person possesses is considered a construct (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Psychological underpinnings exist in constructs because they are developed to describe an internal process (Messick, 1995). Evidence of construct validity is obtained in a variety of ways, such as by determining the correlations between the new survey and other established surveys that were previously determined valid in the same field (Huck,

2008). One example of construct validity is concurrent validity. Concurrent validity is determined by correlating scores on the new survey with scores on a survey that was already deemed valid and reliable (Huck, 2008). A high correlation between the two would indicate that the instrument has concurrent validity (Huck, 2008). Discriminant validity is another form of construct validity. Discriminant validity demonstrates that there is no relationship between the constructs in the new survey and another survey with different constructs (Huck, 2008). A lack of a correlation is evidence of validation for the new survey (Huck, 2008). Predictive validity is a form of criterion validity (Messick, 1990). Predictive validity indicates that a person's future performance on a criterion is predicted by their past assessment performance (Messick, 1990). Consequential validity examines the positive or negative social consequences of a test and the results are used to make high stakes decisions (Messick, 1995). Generalizability validity examines if the scores can be interpreted across different populations (Messick, 1995). Structural validity evaluates the dependability of how the scores were calculated to the underlying construct(s) in the instrument (Messick, 1995). These six forms of validity provide a collection of evidence that demonstrates the accuracy of the survey, and thus the accuracy of the scores (Messick, 1990). As evidence or a lack of evidence of validity emerges, then changes to the survey, the constructs in the survey, and the framework may be required (AERA, 1999). Messick (1995) noted that the test is not considered valid, but rather, it is the interpretation of the results that is intended to be valid.

Summary

This chapter began with a historical overview of the position of a literacy coach created because of the No Child Left Behind Act (Dean et al., 2010). Previous research on literacy coaches primarily focused on their roles, identities, and the tasks they perform. The International Literacy Association noticed discrepancies in the research and published reading professional standards for literacy coaches (ILA, 2010). Additionally, Marsh et al. (2008) pointed out that many literacy coaches spent a significant portion of their time performing tasks that have nothing to do with literacy coaching. This is evident in several other studies as well (Blachowicz et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 2008; Poglinco et al., 2003; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). To explain this phenomenon, why literacy coaches do not spend time performing "true" literacy coaching tasks, it is a central claim of this author that the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches should be explored through the creation of a self-efficacy survey that is task-specific to the roles of literacy coaches, since no other measure like this currently exists.

Previous studies have attempted to determine the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers and literacy coaches. However, there are issues with past research. Specifically, the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) has wording issues that confuse whether the items on the scale are measuring efficacy or outcome expectation. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) is not written for the specific tasks that a teacher performs. Cantrell and colleagues (2015) used the TES to measure the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches. As explained earlier, Bandura (2006) and Pajares and Barich (2005) emphasized that to measure a person's self-efficacy the items on the instrument need to reflect the specificity

of the tasks that the person was expected to perform. The issue with Cantrell and colleagues' (2015) use of the TES with literacy coaches is that the instrument is for classroom teachers and not literacy coaches. The TES is not task-specific to the literacy-coaching roles and is not intended to capture their self-efficacy beliefs regarding tasks that literacy coaches perform as outlined by ILA (2010) standards for reading professionals. The results of Cantrell and colleagues' (2015) study do not describe the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches for coaching tasks, but rather they explain the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches' capabilities to perform classroom teacher tasks. To understand the task choices of literacy coaches and the hours they spend performing those tasks through self-report surveys, a self-efficacy survey needs to be developed for tasks that are specific to the roles of the literacy coach as identified in the ILA (2010) standards for reading professionals.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The primary goals of this study were to examine evidence of validity and

reliability of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* and to explore the self-

efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches in regards to job-specific tasks as stated in

Chapter One. The research questions this study explored were:

- Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* reliable?

- Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* valid for use with

  elementary literacy coaches?

- What beliefs do elementary literacy coaches have about their ability to perform

  specific tasks related to their roles?

This chapter notes the procedures applied to establish reliability and validity

evidence for the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE).

Correlational descriptive statistics were calculated with two other surveys and expert

critique were used to determine the validity of the instrument. Factor analysis was

performed to identify the cluster of intercorrelated variables in the ELCSE survey and

provide additional evidence of validity. Statistical analysis was utilized to determine the

reliability of the ELCSE survey. This chapter will discuss in detail the methodology

employed to test the research questions. The chapter is organized into eight sections (a)

selection of participants, (b) research design, (c) my role within this inquiry, (d)

procedures, (e) instrumentation, (f) instrument development, (g) data collection, and (h)

data analysis.

Selection of Participants

Purposive sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) was chosen as the form of data collection in order to provide the means to investigate a specialized population of the elementary teaching profession, elementary literacy coaches, in three central Florida school districts. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) explained that purposive sampling means that the participants selected for participation were on purpose. For this study, the exploration of the purposive sample allowed for the examination of reliability and validity evidence of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* by purposely-selecting elementary literacy coaches to answer items on the survey that was distributed via email. The researcher sought and received approval from all school districts to utilize their instructor directory for emailing purposes (Appendices A, B, C, and D). Additional approval was received from each school district to contact their elementary literacy coaches to explain and conduct the study. School District of Flower County, FL provided a list of elementary literacy coaches that worked in a kindergarten through fifth grade elementary school. Middleburg County Public Schools allowed principals to contact the investigator to indicate approval or rejection of their literacy coach's participation in the study. The coordinator of elementary literacy coaches in South Falls County Public Schools helped identify potential participants and distributed the survey link to those potential participants. Literacy coaches that worked in a K-8 school were excluded from the study because part of their job was to work in the middle school grades. Middle school literacy coaches perform different tasks than those at the elementary level (Riddle-Buly et al., 2006; Snow et al., 2006).

Research Design

There were two phases to this study. Phase one used data collected from pilot participants. In this first phase of the study, the participants answered the items on the surveys that were housed on Qualtrics. Qualtrics is a web-based platform that houses the surveys that were emailed out to participants and was used for data collection and analysis. The items the pilot participants answered were based on three surveys. The first survey measured was the newly created survey entitled: *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE, Appendix E). The two other surveys were: the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale (Appendix F) and the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Appendix G). In addition to the two other surveys, demographic questions were asked to understand the background of the participants in the study. Survey links were distributed to five pilot participants via email. In this first phase, data was analzyed to determine validity by determining the correlation of the ELCSE survey with the one other survey, Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey.

After administration of the survey for the pilot group, all five pilot participants provided feedback on the ELCSE survey and the two other surveys. Changes were not made based on the feedback given because all of the feedback was positive. The feedback from pilot participants indicated that the ELCSE survey was ready for dissemination to the purposive sample of elementary literacy coaches selected for this study.

In phase two of the study, a Qualtrics survey link that included each of the two surveys listed above (modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale and the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey) and the ELCSE survey was emailed to the purposive sample of elementary literacy coaches in three central Florida school districts. 167 survey links were distributed. This set of data was used to determine validity by analyzing the correlations between the final version of the ELCSE survey and the two other surveys. Cronback's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated on the final version of the ELCSE survey to determine reliability.

A survey is considered valid based on the analysis of descriptive statistics and if the survey measures what it is intended to measure (Messick, 1995). There are numerous ways to determine validity such as content, external, substantive, construct, or structural validity (Messick, 1995). This study focused on determining construct validity by determine evidence of correlation or lack of correlation with other developed and valid surveys based on Messick's (1995) guidelines for establishing validity. Evidence of correlation with other surveys was determined through concurrent and discriminant validities. In order to determine concurrent validity, descriptive statistics were calculated to determine evidence of correlation between the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* and the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) scale (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). In addition, concurrent validity was examined through descriptive statistics for evidence for a correlation between items 1-4 on the Time Coaches Spend Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Marsh et al.,

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2008). Discriminant validity was determined through descriptive statistics for evidence of a lack of correlation between *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* and items 5-9 on Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Marsh et al., 2008). This analysis was completed in the second phase of the study.

Exploratory factor analysis. Factor analysis was used to identify a single intercorrelated variable, which is also known as a factor. Factor analysis is a tool for analyzing the structure of the correlation among the variables and to help verify the conceptualization of the construct. An understanding of the correlation between the variables in an insturment helps to determine if the measurement is valid (Stapleton, 1997). This analysis provides further evidence of validity. There are two main applications of factor analytical technique:

Data reduction reduces the number of variables in order to reduce the number of factors. This simplifies the data structure by presenting a smaller number of underlying factors, and it identifies items that may need to be removed.

Theory development identifies the structure in the relationship between the variables and helps clarify the variables. Theory development is used to understand the correlation patterns between the variables so that theoreteical models can be tested.

Hair et al. (2006) recommend the following criteria for determining the appropriateness of factor analysis:

The Bartlett test of sphericity should be conducted to understand the correlation among the variables.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) should be calculated to measure the sampling adequacy for the degree of correlation amoing the variables.

A variable's communality should be presented to demonstrate the amount of variance shared with other items on the survey or instrument.

Finally, factor loading should be calculated to determine the correlation between each variable and the degree of the correspondence between the variable and the factor.

My Role Within This Inquiry

As a current elementary literacy coach, the researcher worked with many other elementary literacy coach colleagues in the School District of Flower County, FL. The researcher developed and provided professional development to all academic coaches in the School District of Flower County, FL about coaching techniques for disseminating information to teachers in observance of a lesson. As a doctoral student, the researcher's gap analysis from the summer of 2015 provided insight into the discrepancy of the perceptions that both administrators and literacy coaches had of the roles of the literacy coach in the School District of Flower County, FL. Administrators and elementary literacy coaches were interviewed to gain a deeper understanding of how each sub-group (administrators and elementary literacy coaches) perceived the role of the literacy coach. Additionally, literacy coaches at the elementary level were given a survey to report the number of hours spent on certain coaching and non-coaching tasks. The results of the

study provided recommendations to the School District of Flower County, FL. Several of the recommendations were implemented by the school district.

Given the researcher's situation and relationship with the literacy coaches and administrators in one of the districts (School District of Flower County, FL), the researcher realized that their presence in the district may have influenced the participants of the study to respond to the questions in ways that are different than normal. Therefore, the researcher's role in this study (dissertation) was to only focus on gathering data to determine reliability and validity for the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey.* As such, the researcher communicated that their role was to conduct a study with their literacy coach colleagues. The researcher did this by keeping a distinction between their role as an elementary literacy coach and a researcher by only communciating with participants in the district outside of normal business hours.

Summer 2015 gap analysis. As a researcher that conducted a gap analysis study during the summer of 2015, it was acknowledged how personal relationships influenced the collection of data. As a researcher, a survey was distributed to elementary literacy coaches in the School District of Flower County, FL. This included setting up the survey for distribution through Qualtrics, a web based platform. The survey was a modification of The Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey (Marsh et al., 2008). Contact with participants was through email.   Interviews were conducted in person or via phone conference with elementary literacy coaches and school-based administrators.   The researcher clarified their role in trying to collect data

and their perceptions of the roles of the literacy coach in both the survey and at the start of each interview. Any questions about the study that participants had were emailed and responses were provided only through email.

Survey data analysis occurred through Qualtrics website. The researcher coded the interviews for trends and themes in responses (Creswell, 2014). These interviews and survey data informed the research questions for this dissertation and reflection on the researcher's understanding of how different groups of education professionals view the roles and responsibilities of an elementary literacy coach.

Procedure

A questionnaire containing demographic information was included in the survey distributed to elementary literacy coaches (Appendix H) for this study. A timeline of events for this dissertation are presented in Figure 1.

| Creation of the ELCSE |
| June- July 2016 |

↓

| Expert Feedback on ELCSE |
| July -August 2016 |

↓

| Final Version of ELCSE |
| September 2016 |

↓

| Phase One: Pilot Study Conducted |
| September 2016 |

↓

| Data Analysis of Phase One: Pilot Study Data (Research questions 1 and 2) |
| October 2016 |

↓

| Phase Two: Survey Distributed to Purposive Sample |
| October 2016- January 2017 |

↓

| Data Analysis of Phase Two: Purposive Sample Data (Research questions 1, 2, and 3) |
| December 2016 - February 2017 |

Figure 1. The timeline of events for phase one and two of the study for this dissertation.

Pilot participants. In phase one, a pilot study of the ELCSE survey was sent to a total of five literacy coaches at five elementary schools in the School District of Flower County, FL. Each participant was emailed explaining the purpose of the pilot study and for conducting the survey. Four of the literacy coaches have been in education between 11 to 17 years. One participant in the pilot group has been in education for over 30 years. One of the literacy coaches was just hired for the literacy coach position. Two of the literacy coaches have been in the position for four years, one literacy coach has been in the position for eight years, and the other literacy coach has been in the position for nine years. Each literacy coach participant in the pilot group answered demographic questions about the frequency at which they participated in professional development about the roles and responsibilities of literacy coaching. The mean scores for each participant were calculated. On average, three literacy coaches indicated that they participated in various professional development opportunities on the topic of literacy coaching yearly. Two participants indicated that they participate in various literacy coaching professional development opportunities monthly. Three of the elementary literacy coaches have a bachelor's degree and two have a master's degree. The sex of participants was not collected or analyzed because it is not relevant to this study.

Study participants. Then in phase two of the study, a total of 167 elementary literacy coaches were selected from three school districts' directories. 102 participants completed the survey. The response rate was 61 percent. The three school districts were located in central Florida. Each participant was emailed and explained the purpose of the

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study and invited to participate in the study by accessing the survey through a Qualtrics link. Participation was optional and the survey was accessible at a computer that was convenient for the participant. Two percent of elementary literacy coaches had 0-5 years of experience in education. Seventeen percent of elementary literacy coaches had 6-10 years of experience in education.   Eight-one percent of elementary literacy coaches had over 11 or more years of experience in education. Fifty-five percent of elementary literacy coaches had 0-5 years of experience as a literacy coach. Twenty-seven percent of elementary literacy coaches had 6-9 years of experience as a literacy coach. Eighteen percent of elementary literacy coaches had 10 or more years of experience as a literacy coach. Thirty-three percent of participants had a bachelor's degree. Sixty-one percent of participants had a master's degree. Six percent had a doctorate degree. One percent of the participants indicated that on average they engaged in various professional development for the roles of the literacy coach less than once a year. Three percent participated in various professional development on average yearly for their roles. Fifty-four percent participated in various professional development on average monthly for their roles. Forty-one percent participated in various professional development on average weekly for their roles. One percentage participated in professional development on average daily for their roles. Forty-four percent had never participated in professional development about the International Literacy Association's standards for literacy coaches.

Instrumentation

In the following sub-sections, I describe the surveys I used to determine construct validity.

Collective teacher efficacy scale. The Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) Scale (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000) was used to measure dimensions of group competence and task analysis. It consists of 21 items forming four groups: group competence/positive, group competence/ negative, task analysis/positive, and task analysis/negative. The response format of the scale is a six-point Likert-type format that ranged from strongly agrees to strongly disagree. For the purpose of this study, 18 items were reworded to reflect the position of an elementary literacy coach. The three items not used could not be reworded to reflect the position of an elementary literacy coach and these items did not relate to the literacy coaching in any way.

Internal consistency of the CTE was estimated by Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Published data indicated that the internal reliability for the scale was .96 (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) established criterion- related validity by correlating participant CTE scores with personal teaching efficacy. The result was a moderate and positive correlation. Additionally, as predicted there was a positive relationship between CTE and faculty trust in colleagues. Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) determined discriminant validity by concluding that the CTE had no relationship with environmental press. They used correlations, predictions, and uncorrelated constructs to provide evidence for the validity of the CTE.

The CTE was modified from its original version, as used by Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy (2000), for this study. The CTE was modified to better reflect the position of a literacy coach. Additionally, items were removed for this study because they did not relate to the roles of the literacy coach as explained earlier. For the purpose of this study, this survey was selected in order to provide evidence of concurrent validity. Collective Teacher Efficacy scale was developed and created using the self-efficacy theory and a model of teacher efficacy (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The underlying construct, teacher efficacy, in CTE is similar to the underlying construct in ELCSE survey. However, CTE scale is used to understand the shared capability beliefs of a particular group to carry out certain actions that would result in desired outcomes (Goddard, Hoy, &Woolfolk Hoy, 2000) and the ELCSE survey should be used to understand an individual's beliefs in their capabilities to perform literacy coaching tasks.

Time coaches spend on activities during a typical two-week period. Marsh and colleagues (2008), in a study of middle school literacy coaches, used the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey to measure how much time middle school literacy coaches spent their workday in six major categories. The categories included data analysis, own professional development, non-coaching duties, coaching-related administrative work, informal coaching, and formal instructional work with colleagues (Marsh et al., 2008). The responses were scored in the categories of number of hours; 5 hours or less, 6-16 hours, 17-24 hours, or more than 24 hours. Each item on the survey is a specific task that the literacy coach can perform. Items 1-4 are

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one construct and are tasks literacy coaches should perform at outlined by ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Items 5-9 are a different construct and are tasks that are not outlined by ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Due to the structure of the survey, participants can select a different set of hours for each item; there is no report of reliability or validity data on the survey. For the purpose of this study, items 1-4 on this survey were selected in order to provide evidence of concurrent validity. Items 1-4 on this survey relate to the ELCSE survey because they are tasks that are outlined by the International Literacy Association's (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Additionally, items 5-9 on this survey were selected in order to provide evidence of discriminant validity. Items 5-9 on this survey do not relate to the ELCSE survey because they are not tasks that are outlined by the International Literacy Association's (2010) standards for literacy coach.

Instrument Development

Construction of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* was generated from a review of the literature, suggestions from practicing academic coaches, and experiences of the researcher. Within the literature there are general and context specific instruments that are designed to measure teacher self-efficacy. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) has been found valid and reliable for studying teachers' efficacy beliefs based on empirical research from several studies (Cantrell et al., 2015; Fives & Buehl, in press). Cantrell and colleagues (2015) used the TSES and other personal teaching efficacy items from

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teacher efficacy instruments developed by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), and Gibson and Dembo (1984). An issue with using a teacher efficacy instrument to measure literacy coaches' efficacy is that elementary literacy coaches do not perform the same tasks as classroom teachers. The study by Cantrell and colleagues (2015) asked elementary literacy coaches their self-efficacy beliefs about their ability to perform classroom teacher tasks not literacy coaching tasks. This is problematic because their data is misleading and does not reflect the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches performing actual literacy coaching tasks. An issue related to the TSES is that it measures general self-efficacy rather than job-specific tasks, which are, preferred when measuring self-efficacy within a defined context (Pajares, 1997). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the validity of a newly created instrument that measures the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches.

The *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE) was created by using the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) as the framework for the development of items because it is commonly referred to in the literature as a widely accepted measure of teacher self-efficacy.   Items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 on the ELCSE survey were developed from a modification of items on the TSES long form. The items were modified to be literacy-coaching specific. In addition to using the TSES to create items for the ELCSE survey, practicing school academic coaches provided suggestions for the survey questions. The researcher contributed statements for items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 based on personal experience as an elementary literacy coach and

a review of literature about literacy coaching tasks, specifically using the International Literacy Association (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Academic coaches in the researcher's elementary school provided feedback on particular items, asked for clarification of certain items, and offered word suggestions for other items. Some items were removed from the ELCSE survey as suggested by the academic coaches that worked in the researcher's elementary school. One example of a removed item was, "I can ensure that 80 percent of my day is in classrooms observing or modeling lesson." This item was removed because the academic coaches explained that not every coach kept a log and could accurately answer this item. A matrix between items on the ELCSE survey and the International Literacy Association's (ILA; 2010) standards for literacy coaches was created to demonstrate alignment between the survey items and the standards for literacy coaches (see Table 1). While aligning the standards to the items, the researcher realized the need to add two items to the ELCSE survey. Specifically, items 15 ("I can assist teachers in selecting assessments to measure specific areas of literacy knowledge.") and 16 "(I can assist teachers in making instructional decisions based on data analysis.") were created due to standards relating to data from ILA not being addressed in the ELCSE survey. All items on the ELCSE survey are linked to standards identified by the International Literacy Association (2010) for literacy coaches as recommended by a professor with knowledge of the ILA standards. The responses on the ELCSE survey are a Likert-type scale ranging from 0 ("Not Highly Certain"), to 6

("Highly Certain Can Do"). Participants were only able to select one response for each

item on the ELCSE.

Table 1

ILA Standards and ELCSE Matrix

ILA Standard and Elements	Item Number on Self-Efficacy Survey
Standard 1: Foundational Knowledge	
Element 1.1	Items # 5, 7
Element 1.2	Items # 8, 9, 10
Element 1.3	Items # 12, 13, 14
Standard 2: Curriculum and Instruction	
Element 2.1	Items # 2, 3, 5
Element 2.2	Items # 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Element 2.3	Items # 7, 8, 9, 10
Standard 3: Assessment and Evaluation	
Element 3.1	Item # 15
Element 3.2	Item # 16, 8, 9, 10
Element 3.3	Items # 8, 9, 10
Element 3.4	Item # 16, 8, 9, 10
Standard 4: Diversity	
Element 4.1	Items # 4, 5, 7, 11
Element 4.2	Items # 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11
Element 4.3	Items # 8
Standard 5: Literate Environment	
Element 5.1	Items # 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 15
Element 5.2	Items # 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 13, 14
Element 5.3	Items # 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
Elements 5.4	Items # 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 13, 14
Element 6: Professional Learning and Leadership	
Element 6.1	Items # 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14
Element 6.2	Items # 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14

ILA Standard and Elements	Item Number on Self-Efficacy Survey
Element 6.3	Items # 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14
Element 6.4	Items # 7, 8, 9, 10, 11

To insure content validity, the items were subjected to scrutiny and evaluation of two experts: a professor of psychology and expert in the field of self-efficacy and an expert in the field of literacy coaching. The first expert individually critiqued each item to ensure it measured self-efficacy. The expert in the area of self-efficacy was recommended and was identified as an author that has contributed to the body of research in self-efficacy and was also contacted via email. One recommendation was to separate some items into two because they were double-barreled. For example, the original item number four was written as, "I can do a very good job of engaging teacher colleagues in the instructional decision making process during an observed lesson by (a) freezing the instruction and posing questions and (b) receiving suggestions as to my next steps in the observation lesson being provided." After feedback from the expert in self-efficacy this item number was split into two items, numbers four and five on the final form of the ELCSE survey. The new item four reads, "I can engage teacher-colleagues in the instructional decision making process by posing questions during an observation lesson," and the new item five states, "I can engage teacher-colleagues in the instructional decision making process by receiving suggestions as to my next instructional steps during the observation lesson."

A literacy-coaching expert individually critiqued the items to determine if they reflected the role of an elementary literacy coach and recommended word changes to better reflect the role. The expert in the area of literacy coaching was identified as an author that has contributed to the body of research in literacy coaching and was contacted via email. For example, item one on the initial ELCSE survey stated, "I can model the gradual release of responsibility in a reading or writing lesson in front of students as a teacher watches me." After feedback from this expert, the wording of item number one was changed to now state, "I can provide an observation lesson using the gradual release of responsibility in a literacy lesson in front of students as a teacher-colleague observes." This process resulted in 16 items for the ELCSE survey. Prior to exploratory factor analysis, the ELCSE survey was expected to measure one construct; the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches.

Data Collection

Once the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* was completed and piloted, it was presented to the purposive sample derived in the participant selection process that was previously described. The participants were selected based on their school district's database and school-based websites that listed them as an elementary literacy coach. Addresses that were returned as undeliverable by the Web server were removed from the list of participants. Contact was made via electronic mail with a web link to the survey that was set up on Qualtrics. Additionally, an email was sent to explain the purpose of the study and helped participants access the survey via Qualtrics.

Demographic questions were posed to obtain years in education, years as an elementary literacy coach, highest degree earned, and their level of involvement in professional learning opportunities regarding literacy coaching. A follow up request was made via email a week after the initial email to request participation in the study.

<u>Data Analysis</u>

The study used a quantitative methodology of data collection and analysis. In phase one, a pilot study was conducted to examine the validity evidence for the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey*. The data collected from participants' responses on the ELCSE survey in Qualtrics was recoded to reflect the scale on the actual instrument. For example, a response of a 1 on Qualtrics was recoded in SPSS to a 0 that aligned with the scale on the ELCSE survey. This pilot data was used to explore construct validity for the ELCSE survey by correlating the ELCSE survey to The Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey (Marsh et al., 2008). After administration, pilot study participants were contacted for feedback on any items that were interpreted as ambiguous, hard to understand, or misleading. The feedback from participants was minimal and did not result in any changes to the ELCSE survey. The pilot participants explained that they felt the items on the survey were "clear" and "easy to understand". One pilot participant explained that "it was easy to move through the questions and it took no time at all because I understood what I was being asked."

Pilot study results. The final form of the ELCSE survey was administered to a pilot group of five elementary literacy coaches. Scores on the survey revealed expected patterns: literacy coaches' efficacy was correlated to areas that it should relate to and non-correlational with areas it should not be correlated with, as expected. For example, pilot elementary literacy coaches that responded with a high self-efficacy on the ELCSE survey indicated on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey that they spent a significant amount of time supporting teachers analyzing assessment data to inform their instruction, as expected. This indicated a correlation between self-efficacy and coaching tasks as outline by the ILA standards (2010), as expected. Also as expected, the elementary literacy coaches that indicated a high self-efficacy reported a low amount of time attending meetings on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period Survey. This task, attending meetings, indicated a negative correlation with self-efficacy, as was expected. Based on the data from this pilot study, the ELCSE survey appeared to be ready for mass distribution to the elementary literacy coaches in the three central Florida school districts.

ELCSE survey analysis. From October 2016 through January 2017 the final ELCSE was administered to elementary literacy coaches in three central Florida school districts. 167 survey links were distributed and 102 participants completed the ELCSE survey and the two other surveys listed previously.

Quantitative data analysis included numerical ratings obtained from items one through 16 on the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey*. Responses were

recoded ranging from zero to six were input into SPSS for each of the 102 respondents. Cronbach's Alpha test was performed on the SPSS program to determine reliability. Data was analyzed with statistical software, SPSS, to determine validity. This was determined through computing descriptive statistics and correlation matrices between the ELCSE survey and two other surveys (the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale and Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey). As explained earlier, concurrent validity was determined through descriptive statistics for evidence of correlation between the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy* survey and items on the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy (CTE) Scale (Goddard, How, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy* survey and items 1-4 on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Marsh et al., 2008) were inputted into SPSS and descriptive statistics were computed to find evidence of correlation between the two surveys as another way to determine concurrent validity. Descriptive statistics was used to determine evidence of discriminant validity for a lack of correlation between the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* and items 5-9 on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Marsh et al., 2008). Factor analysis was used to understand the dimensions of the construct and the items that are most appropriate for that construct for the ELCSE survey. Conducting a factor analysis provides further evidence of construct validity (Sekaran, 2003). In this study, the construct present in the ELCSE survey is the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches.

The mean scores of each item on the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* were calculated for the total population of participants and for each item in the survey. The mean scores provided evidence for tasks that the general population of elementary literacy coaches felt more and less confident in performing in their role as an elementary literacy coach.

Summary

This dissertation examined the validity of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE). Despite numerous studies examining teacher efficacy, an instrument to measure elementary literacy coaches' self-efficacy in regards to specific tasks does not exist. Bandura (1994) and Pajares (1997) explained that the best measurement of a person's self-efficacy is of their own assessment of their ability to complete pertinent and specific tasks related to the area that is being assessed. Thus, the roles and responsibilities identified by the International Literacy Association (2010) for literacy coaches can be defined in terms of tasks where self-efficacy is to be measured. These specific tasks associated with elementary literacy coaching need to be included on all surveys that intend to measure self-efficacy for literacy coaching. As of recently, no survey was developed to measure the self-efficacy of elementary literacy coaches' ability to perform specific tasks related to their roles.

In order to design a survey that measures the task-specific self-efficacy of elementary literacy coaches the standards for literacy coaches (ILA, 2010) needed to be analyzed for specific tasks that the literacy coach should perform. If the self-efficacy of these literacy-coaching tasks could be assessed then it would provide training programs

and school districts the ability to provide professional development and training specific to the needs of each literacy coach.

Designing a survey is difficult because it must meet high standards for reliability and validity. In order to determine if a survey is valid and reliable it must be sent out to the proper population for data collection. The participants were selected through a purposive sample of public school elementary literacy coaches in three central Florida school districts. The selection of the 167 elementary literacy coach sample from the education profession population was discussed. In addition, the steps for determining the reliability and validity of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* were presented. Data validity tests performed on the pilot study of the revised ELCSE survey indicated the instrument was valid. In this chapter the data collection procedures and response rates were discussed. Finally, for each of the research questions the methods of data analysis were explained in detail with a conversation of statistical analysis. Results of the data analysis are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to show evidence of validity and reliability for a survey created to measure the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches, the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* (ELCSE), and to understand the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches. The ELCSE survey was distributed to 167 elementary literacy coaches in three central Florida school districts; 102 participants completed the survey. The results of the survey were collected and analyzed from three school districts. Statistical analysis was performed on the survey in order to determine reliability and validity and to understand the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches.

Statistical Assumptions

Prior to estimating validity coefficients, statistical assumptions for Pearson correlations were tested. These included examining scatterplots for linear relationships and bivariate normality.

When comparing scores from the ELCSE survey and scores from the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey, it appeared that statistical assumptions were violated. The linear fit line in Figure 2 suggests that a linear line may not be best fit. As well as, heteroscedasticity is evident in the scatterplot in Figure 2. This suggests that the variables were not linearly related or

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bivariate normally distributed. Therefore, Spearman correlation was used instead of

Pearson.

Figure 2: Scatterplot of ELCSE and CTime Variables

ELCSE represents the scores from the ELCSE survey. CTime represents scores from the
first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week
Period survey.

In addition, statistical assumptions for Pearson correlations were tested between

the scores from the ELCSE survey and scores from the last five items on the Time

Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. It appeared

that statistical assumptions were violated. The linear fit line in Figure 3 suggests that a

linear line may not be best fit. As well as, heteroscedasticity is evident in the scatterplot

in Figure 3. This suggests that the variables were not linearly related or bivariate

normally distributed. Therefore, Spearman correlation was used instead of Pearson.
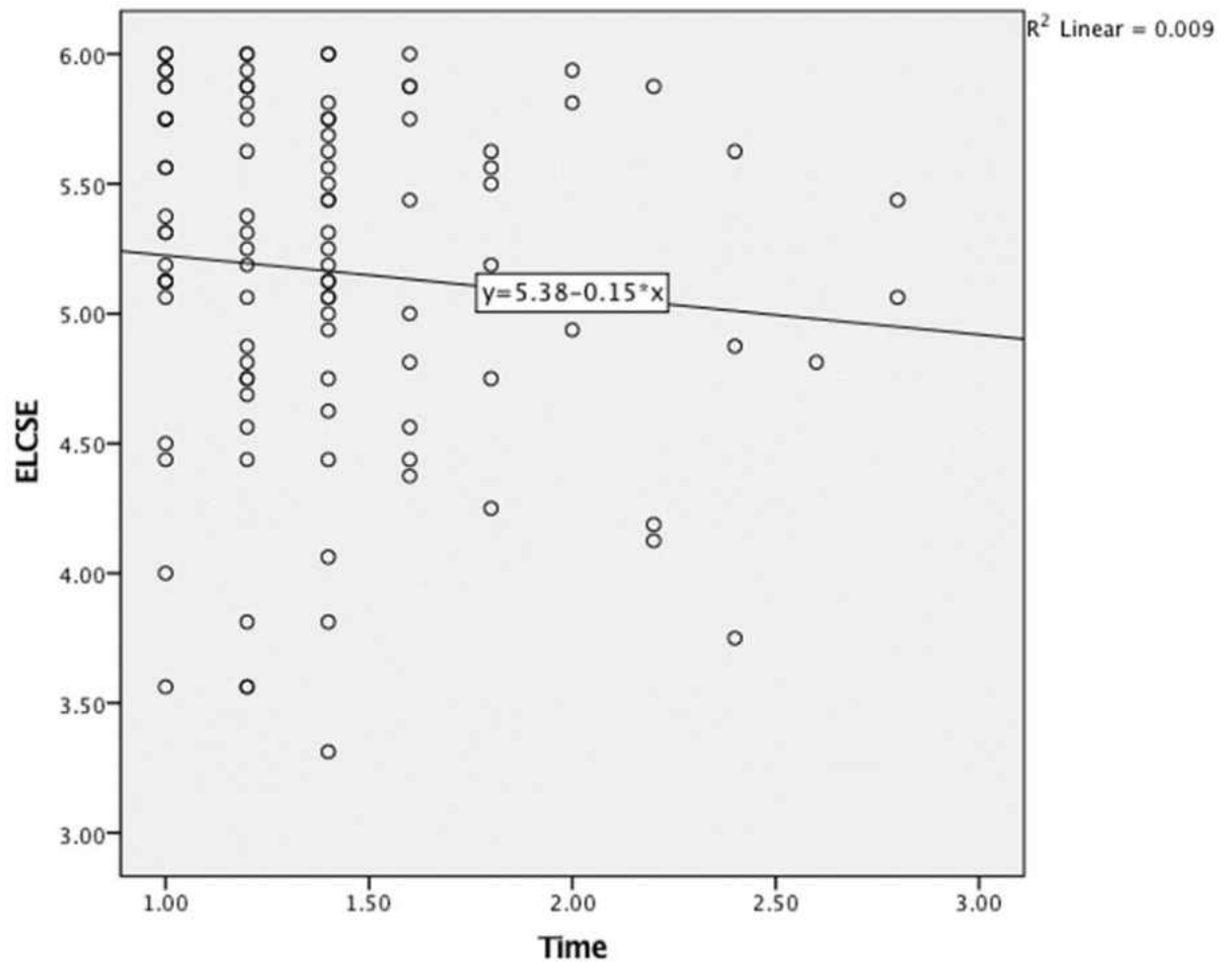
Figure 3. Scatterplot for ELCSE and Time Variables

ELCSE represents the scores from the ELCSE survey. Time represents scores from the last five items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey.

Also, when comparing ELCSE survey and items on the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale, it appeared that statistical assumptions were violated. The linear fit line in Figure 4 suggests that a linear line may not be best fit. As well as, heteroscedasticity is evident in the scatterplot in Figure 4. This suggests that the variables were not linearly related or bivariate normally distributed. Therefore, Spearman correlation was used instead of Pearson.
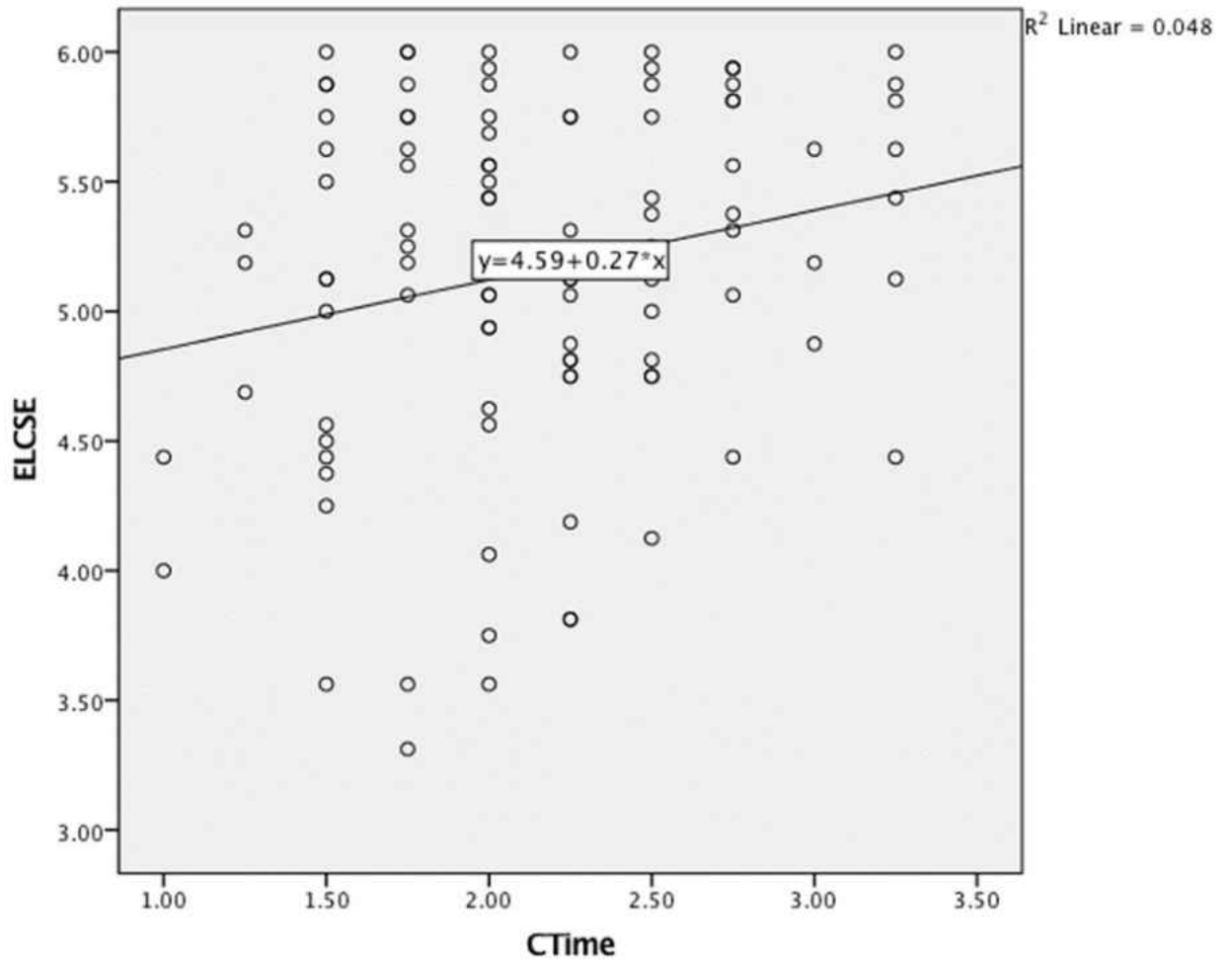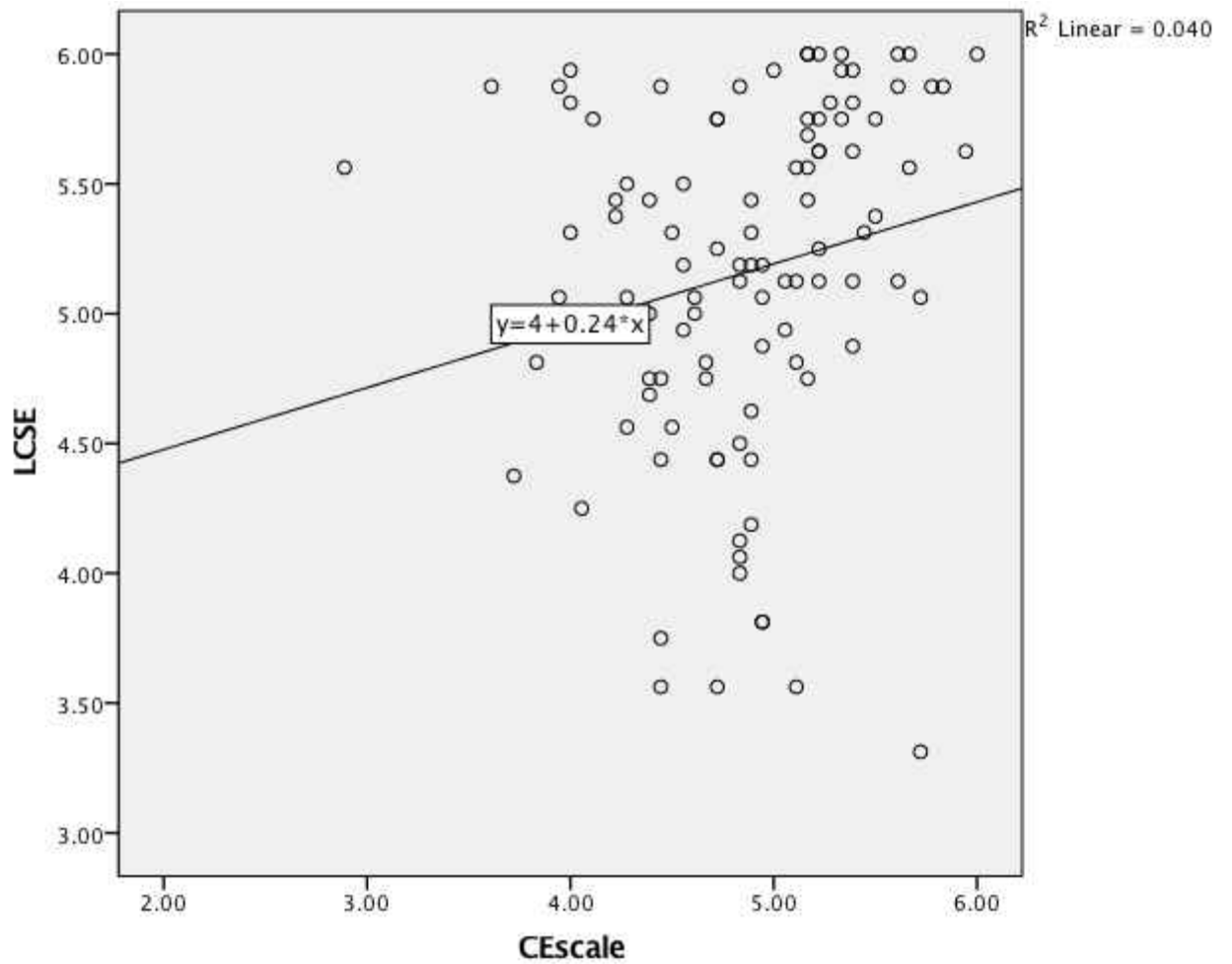
Figure 4. Scatterplot of ELCSE and CEscale Variables

ELCSE represents the scores from the ELCSE survey. CEscale represents scores from the items on the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale.

Validity

Concurrent validity was measured by correlating the ELCSE survey and CEscale. CEscale represents scores from the items on the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale. The ELCSE survey and the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale were expected to correlate. The validity coefficient for ELCSE survey and CEscale is $r(101) = .327, p = .001$. This data suggests that there is a moderate correlation as expected. Additionally, concurrent validity was measure by correlating the ELCSE survey and CTime. The ELCSE survey and CTime were expected to correlate. CTime represents scores from the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. The validity coefficient for the ELCSE survey and CTime is $r(101) = .175, p = .079$. This data suggests there is no correlation. This finding was not expected.

Discriminant validity was measured by correlating the ELCSE survey and Time. Time represents scores from the last five items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. The ELCSE survey and Time were expected to not correlate. The validity coefficient for ELCSE survey and Time is $r(101) = -.121, p = .228$. This data suggests there is no correlation as expected. A summary of all correlation coefficients is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Summary of Coefficients Between ELCSE and Other Instruments

		ELCSE	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
CTime	Correlation Coefficient	.175	.079	101
Time	Correlation Coefficient	-.121	.228	101
CEscale	Correlation Coefficient	.327	.001	101

Reliability

Reliability was determined through calculating internal consistency via

Cronbach's Alpha. The alpha coefficient is .929, indicating excellent reliability.

Exploratory factory analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was used to confirm that

the ELCSE survey is designed with a single dimension. This single underlying

dimension in the ELCSE survey is the efficacy beliefs for tasks related to elementary

literacy coaching. Also, factor analysis was used to identify items on the ELCSE that

align with the single dimension (Sekaran, 2003). This helped in providing additional

evidence of construct validity.

There are assumptions that Hair et al. (2010) stated for conducting factor analysis.

Statistical analyses indicated that the Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at .000

(Table 3). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy value is .875

(Table 3). In addition, the communalities of the items on the ELCSE survey are greater

than 0.3 (Table 4). Also, factor loading demonstrates that all variables loaded on to one

factor at .55 or higher (Table 5).

Table 3
KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Samping Adequacy		.875
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Aprox. Chi-Square	1177.607
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

Table 4
Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
LC1	1.000	.318
LC2	1.000	.323
LC3	1.000	.504
LC4	1.000	.559
LC5	1.000	.599
LC6	1.000	.541
LC7	1.000	.487
LC8	1.000	.519

	Initial	Extraction
LC9	1.000	.537
LC10	1.000	.621
LC11	1.000	.577
LC12	1.000	.440
LC13	1.000	.593
LC14	1.000	.591
LC15	1.000	.511
LC16	1.000	.459

Table 5
Component Matrix

	Component 1
LC1	.564
LC2	.568
LC3	.710
LC4	.748
LC5	.774
LC6	.736
LC7	.698
LC8	.720
LC9	.733
LC10	.788
LC11	.760
LC12	.663
LC13	.770
LC14	.769
LC15	.715
LC16	.678

In Table 5 component matrix there is only one component listed in the right-hand section (as compared with three, in the unrotated output in Table 6). This is because SPSS was directed to select only one component for rotation. You will see that the distribution of the variance explained has been adjusted after rotation. Component 1 now explains 51.12 percent of the variance. The total variance explained (51.12 percent) does not change after rotation, just the way it is distributed between the components.

Table 6
Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.179	51.120	51.120	8.179	51.120	51.120
2	1.534	9.588	60.708			
3	1.152	7.197	67.905			
4	.994	6.215	74.120			
5	.683	4.268	78.389			
6	.660	4.123	82.512			
7	.565	3.529	86.040			
8	.423	2.647	88.687			
9	.409	2.557	91.244			
10	.340	2.125	93.369			
11	.284	1.777	95.146			
12	.218	1.362	96.508			
13	.203	1.267	97.775			
14	.152	.951	98.726			
15	.144	.900	99.626			
16	.060	.374	100.000			

Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Beliefs

There were 102 participants that completed the ELCSE survey. The Likert-type response format on the survey ranged from 0 ("Not Highly Certain") to 6 ("Highly Certain Can Do"), for each of the 16 items. The responses for each participant was averaged across all of the items on the ELCSE survey. Seven participants had a mean score on the ELCSE survey between 3.0 and 3.9. This indicated that on average they believed they were moderately capable of performing the various tasks on the survey. Twenty-six participants had a mean score on the ELCSE survey between 4.0 and 4.9. This indicated that on average they believed they were slightly more than moderately capable of performing the various tasks on the survey. Sixty-one participants had a mean score on the ELCSE survey between 5.0 and 5.9. This indicated that on average they believed they were capable of performing the various tasks on the survey. Seven participants had a mean score on the ELCSE survey of 6.0. This indicated that they believed they were highly capable of performing all of the tasks on the survey. Then, the mean scores for all participants were averaged. Overall, the participants indicated they believed that they were capable or highly capable of performing the numerous tasks in the ELCSE survey because the mean score of the entire participant population is 5.2.

Then, the scores from all the participants for each item were averaged to understand the tasks that the general elementary literacy coach population believed they were more or less capable of performing. Items 1-5, 7-10, 11, 14, 15, and 16 had a mean score between 5.0 and 6.0 from all of the participants. The items on the ELCSE survey

are shown in Appendix E. This indicated that on average the general elementary literacy coaching population believed they were capable of performing the tasks described in those items. Items 6, 12, and 13 (Appendix E) had a mean score between 4.0 and 4.9 from all of the participants. This indicated that they believed they were capable of performing the tasks described in those items, but not as capable as the tasks described in the items 1,5, 7-10, 11, 14, 15, and 16 (Appendix E). Overall, item 16 had the highest mean with 5.62. This indicated that on average the general elementary literacy coach believed he or she was very capable of performing that task. Item 16 was stated on the survey as, "I can assist teachers in making instructional decisions based on data analysis." Overall, item 12 had the lowest mean with 4.13. This indicated that on average the general elementary literacy coach believed he or she was capable of performing that task but not as capable as all the other tasks. Item 12 was stated on the survey as, "If a teacher in my school becomes disruptive or resistant, I can quickly apply a variety of coaching techniques to get them to change their thinking."

Additional Analyses

Additional statistical analyses were conducted to explore relationships between the ELCSE survey and other variables. For instance, I hypothesized that there was a correlation between ELCSE survey and years that a participant has spent in the role of the literacy coach. The correlation between the ELCSE and Years Spent as a Coach was $r(101) = .305, p = .002$, suggesting a moderate correlation, as expected.

The ELCSE survey was expected correlate with the level of professional development a participant has attended about the role of literacy coaching. The validity coefficient between the ELCSE survey and Professional Development was $r(101) = .048$, $p = .632$. This data suggests there is no correlation, this finding was not expected.

The ELCSE survey was expected to correlate with the educational degree level of the elementary literacy coach. The validity coefficient between the ELCSE survey and Degrees was $r(101) = .011$, $p = .911$. This suggests there is no correlation, this finding was not expected.

Summary

This chapter explained the statistical procedures used to provide evidence of reliability and validity for the ELCSE survey. Concurrent and discriminant validity provided evidence that the items on the ELCSE survey measure the concept of elementary literacy coaching task-specific self-efficacy. Reliability data provided strong evidence that multiple administrations of the ELCSE survey provided results that were consistent. Exploratory factor analysis provided evidence that the ELCSE survey measures one underlying factor which is the tasks that elementary literacy coaches perform.

The results of the survey indicated that the average elementary literacy coach believed they were capable of performing the wide variety of tasks described in the items on the ELCSE survey. On average, elementary literacy coaches believed they were extremely capable of supporting classroom teachers in being able to use data to inform their instructional decisions. On average, elementary literacy coaches believed they were

not as capable when compared to the other tasks in the ELCSE survey in being able to

change the thinking of a resistant teacher in their school.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction

In chapter four the results and data were reported. Chapter five will consist of a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings, implications for practice, limitations, recommendations for further research, and a conclusion. The intent of this chapter is to expand upon the results and data from chapter four in order to provide a better understanding of the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches and to review evidence for the validity and reliability of the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy* (ELCSE) *Survey*. Conclusions from the findings of this study will be discussed in relation to the self-efficacy theory and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977). In addition, implications for practitioners and researchers and future recommendations will be presented and discussed. Finally, this chapter will conclude with a statement that summarizes this study and the previous research.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore evidence of validity and reliability for the ELCSE survey and to understand the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches through quantitative research. This study explored the following research questions:

1. Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* reliable?

2. Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* valid for use with elementary literacy coaches?

3. What beliefs do elementary literacy coaches have about their ability to perform specific tasks related to their roles?

To answer the research questions, this study relied on social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory. Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory developed by Bandura (1977) identified self-efficacy as a belief that one's actions will produce a certain outcome (Dellinger et al., 2007; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Prior research indicates that self-efficacy beliefs influence the practices engaged in by educators (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Guo, Connor, Yang, Roehrig, & Morrison, 2012; Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011). Therefore, understanding a literacy coach's beliefs allows a deeper understanding of their practices. Also, a literacy coach's beliefs are important to understand because previous research noted the connections between teacher practices and student learning (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008). If the goal of the elementary literacy coach position is to help improve literacy instruction and increase student performance on literacy assessments, then the belief systems of elementary literacy coaches need to be understood. A previous study attempted to assess the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches, however the instrument used in that study was designed for classroom teachers. Thus, it was necessary to develop a better measurement of literacy coach self-efficacy. The need for an elementary literacy coach task-specific self-efficacy survey is evident. In keeping with self-efficacy theory, the ELCSE survey was developed to reflect the tasks and roles of an elementary literacy coach. The ELCSE illuminates the tasks that literacy coaches feel efficacious performing and offers a plausible reason to why elementary

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literacy coaches perform the tasks that are related to their roles as outlined by the ILA standards and tasks that are not related to their roles as explained in chapter 2. Other research indicates that most of a literacy coach's work week is spent on tasks unrelated to their role (Marsh et al., 2008; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Examining elementary literacy coaches' task-specific self-efficacy beliefs provided further insight as to whether outside influences determine the tasks a literacy coach performs or if it is the result of their self-efficacy beliefs.

Bandura (2006) explained the procedures for writing items for a self-efficacy scale. These procedures were utilized and implemented for writing items on the ELCSE survey. In addition, items from the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001) and the researcher's personal experience as an elementary literacy coach were used to write items on the ELCSE survey. This resulted in the ELCSE survey having a total of 16 items.

Prior to dissemination of the ELCSE survey, content validity was determined by the evaluations, recommendations, and modifications of the items on the ELCSE survey by experts in the field of literacy coaching and self-efficacy. Next, a pilot group of five participants were asked to take the survey. Initial data provided insight that the ELCSE survey correlated with the areas it was expected to correlate with and in the area it was not intended to correlate with, it did not show a correlation. Then, the ELCSE survey was distributed to 162 elementary literacy coaches. In total, from both the pilot group and the additional 162 coaches, 102 participants completed the ELCSE survey.

Participants were asked to answer 16 items on the ELCSE survey in a Likert-type format from 0 ("Not Highly Certain") to 6 ("Highly Certain Can Do"). The distributed survey link included other surveys; Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey (Marsh et al., 2008) and a modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000).

The 102 participants who took the ELCSE survey were identified as elementary literacy coaches from across three central Florida school districts. Fifty-five percent of participants were within their first five years as an elementary literacy coach. 27 % had been an elementary coach between six to nine years. And, eighteen percent of participants have been an elementary literacy coach for ten years or more.

Reliability for the ELCSE survey was determined by calculating Cronbach Alpha. Construct validity was determined through concurrent and discriminant validity. Concurrent validity was determined through descriptive statistics correlating the ELCSE survey with the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. The first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey are tasks that literacy coaches should be performing as outlined by the ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches. Also, concurrent validity is determined by correlating the ELCSE survey with items on the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale. Discriminant validity was determined by correlation the ELCSE survey with the last five items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. Concurrent and discriminant

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validity provided evidence that the ELCSE survey measures the concept of elementary literacy coach task-specific self-efficacy. Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the ELCSE survey and results indicated that the ELCSE survey has one factor, the task specific self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches. The results from the exploratory factor analysis provided additional evidence of construct validity.

Discussion of the Findings

Cantrell's (2015) study sought to understand the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy coaches through the use of a classroom teacher self-efficacy instrument known as the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Using an instrument designed for the context and task specificity of a classroom teacher with literacy coaches is misleading since prior research indicated that a self-efficacy survey needs to be contextual and task-specific (Pajares & Barich, 2005).

This study describes the development the ELCSE survey to measure the task-specific self-efficacy of elementary literacy coaches. The main purpose of this study was to examine psychometric properties of the ELCSE survey including reliability, concurrent validity, and discriminant validity. The ELCSE survey was administered to 102 elementary literacy coaches in three central Florida school districts. The data suggests that the ELCSE survey is valid and reliable for use with this population of literacy coaches.

Research Question One: Is the E*lementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey reliable?*

The findings resulting from research question one indicated that the ELCSE survey was reliable. SPSS software was used to calculate the alpha coefficient of the ELCSE survey. The alpha coefficient of the ELCSE survey is .929. This means that multiple administrations of the ELCSE survey produced consistent results. In addition, the result of .929 is well above the accepted range of .7 to .8 and it suggests that the survey has a high level of internal reliability (Spector, 1992). This high level of internal reliability indicates that the ELCSE survey measures a single underlying construct. In this study, the underlying construct in the ELCSE survey is the efficacy beliefs for the specific coaching tasks that an elementary literacy coach should perform as outlined by the ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches.

Research Question Two: Is the *Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey* valid for use with elementary literacy coaches?

To validate the ELCSE survey, it would need to correlate with other known valid measures (AERA, 1999). Construct validity of the ELCSE survey was exhibited by analyzing concurrent validity using the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale. As explained earlier, the correlation between the ELCSE survey and the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale is moderate, as expected. The correlation coefficient between these two surveys is $r(101) = .327, p = .001$. The correlation was expected because the underlying construct in both the modified Collective Teacher Efficacy scale and the ELCSE survey is teaching efficacy. This result supports prior research that demonstrated

a correlation between collective teacher efficacy and individual teacher efficacy (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000).

A correlation was expected between the ELCSE survey and the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey, but data indicates that there is no correlation. The correlation coefficient between these two surveys is $r(101) = .175$, $p = .079$. The correlation between these two surveys was expected because the first four items in the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey are tasks that literacy coaches should performed because they appear in the ILA standards for literacy coaches. Previous research offers plausible explanations as to why the ELCSE survey and the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey did not correlate. Kissel, Mraz, Algozzine, and Stover (2011) noted that many literacy coaches perform various tasks outside of their roles because the administrator assigns these tasks to the literacy coach. Ulenski (2015, Unpublished manuscript) found in interviews with school-based principals that the administrator assigns other duties including lunch and bus duty to the literacy coach. The data from this study concluded that the general elementary literacy coach has a high sense of efficacy for the coaching tasks present in the ELCSE survey. However, outside influences such as an administrator may be impacting the tasks the coach performs daily. Consequentially, this may impact the correlation between the ELCSE survey and the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. The outside influences

explain why the ELCSE survey and the first four items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey do not correlate as expected. Construct validity of the ELCSE survey was determined by analyzing discriminant validity using the last five items of the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. Discriminant validity was determined by correlating the ELCSE survey and the last five items of the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey. The correlation coefficient between these two surveys is $r(101) = -.121$, $p = .228$. There was no correlation, as expected. A lack of a correlation was expected because the last five items on the Time Coaches Spend on Activities During a Typical Two-Week Period survey are tasks that literacy coaches should not perform regularly because they do not appear in the ILA standards for literacy coaches. Thus, if these tasks are not present in ILA's standards than it can be understood that literacy coaches should not perform these tasks. Huck (2008) explained that the correlations between the new survey and other established surveys in the same field provide evidence of construct validity.

Exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is a useful method for establishing evidence of validity based on the internal structure for a recently developed instrument (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Factor analysis is used to examine variables in an instrument by reducing the number of variables into a smaller set of variables called factors. This helps in determining the underlying constructs for the measured variables in the instrument which allows for the formation and refinement of a theory. By

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determining how well the variables in an instrument are correlated helps determine if the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Stapleton, 1997). As such, factor analysis provides additional evidence of construct validity.

Several analyses were conducted to determine the underlying construct in the ELCSE survey. The KMO, Bartlett test of sphericity, communality, and factor loadings all indicate that there is one factor in the ELCSE survey because of the strengthen of the correlations between the variables.

In this study, the initial eigenvalues indicated that there were three factors. Eigenvalues are a statistical calculation used in factor analysis to measure how much a particular factor is reflected in the variance of all the variables in an instrument. An eigenvalue that is greater than 1.0 is considered a factor. However, current research highlights various problems with using only eigenvalues to determine factors. One problem is that the eigenvalues are measured with some degree of error (Norman & Streiner, 2014). Norman and Streiner (2014) argued that the eigenvalues can be arbitrary because values at 1.0 and greater are retained and those with .99 and less are excluded despite being so close. The data in this study reflect this situation because one eigenvalue is .99 and the next is 1.1. The largest eigenvalue is 8.179. This means that the first factor counts for as much as eight times the amount of variance as the rest of the factors. An eigenvalue of 8.179 is much larger than the other eigenvalues at 1.152 and 1.534. This many explain why using only eigenvalues to determined factors for ELCSE is problematic. In addition, further research suggests that eigenvalues may change and the

number of factors may change when the survey is given to a different set of participants (Norman & Streiner, 2014). This line of research indicates that it is plausible that the eigenvalues produced more factors than what exist in the ELCSE survey.

Other data and research support the notion at the ELCSE survey has one underlying factor. For example, the data from this study shows that the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.875. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tathum (2006) explained that a KMO value of 0.8 or higher indicates that the variables are highly correlated. This means that the results of this study demonstrate that the variables in the ELCSE survey are highly correlated. In addition, the Bartlett test of sphericity is a measure of significance that indicates a correlation among the variables (Hair et al., 2006). The data from this study shows that the Bartlett test of sphericity is .000. This suggests that there is a significant and sufficient correlation existing among the variables. This high of a correlation among the variables is an indication that the ELCSE survey has one factor.

Variable's communality indicates how much a variable's variance is shared with other variables. Teo and Ling Koh (2010) explained that communalities with 0.3 or larger share some variance with other variables on the survey and Leech, Barrett, and Morgan (2015) indicated that values 0.3 or larger are good. The data in this study demonstrates that the communalities were all above 0.3. This means all the variables in the ELCSE survey share some common variance with other variables and suggests that the ELCSE survey has one factor. Furthermore, the minimum requirement for factor loading is 0.55 (Hair et al., 2006). The factor loadings for each variable in this study

were all above the .55 threshold. A higher factor loading demonstrates that the variable

reflects a particular factor (Hair et al., 2006). The data in this study suggests that there is

a correlation between each variable and that each variable is representative of a single

factor because the factor loadings are greater than 0.55.

Research Question Three: What beliefs do elementary literacy coaches have about

their ability to perform specific tasks related to their roles?

The findings resulting from research question three indicate that on average the

general elementary literacy coach confidently believes they can perform the various tasks

in the ELCSE survey. The mean score among all of the participants was 5.2 out of a

possible six. A mean score of 5.2, calculated by averaging the mean scores from all of

the participants, indicates that the general elementary literacy coach feels certain that they

can perform the various tasks reflected in the ELCSE survey. A score of a six on the

ELCSE survey indicates that the participants feel they are highly certain they can perform

the tasks. This high level of efficacy for coaching tasks is consistent with prior research

that literacy coaches overinflate their efficacy scores prior to or at the early onset of their

job or training (Cantrell et al., 2015). Since the ELCSE survey was written based on

ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches, this makes sense because 44% of

respondents selected they have never received any training or professional development

for the ILA standards. Previous research on literacy coach efficacy suggests that initially

literacy coaches have a higher sense of efficacy for coaching tasks because they are not

aware of the expectations for each task (Cantrell et al., 2015). Additionally, after a year

of training for the various tasks a literacy coach performs their self-efficacy decreased

because the expectations for each task were overwhelming (Cantrell et al., 2015).

Seven of the respondents had a relatively moderate sense of efficacy for the

various literacy coaching tasks, with a mean score on the ELCSE survey between 3.0 and

3.9. Six of these seven respondents indicated that they were a literacy coach for five

years or less. This is consistent with self-efficacy theory that their self-efficacy would

increase the longer they stay in the position of an elementary literacy coach. Literacy

coaches have more opportunities to learn new skills and overcome new challenges the

longer they are a coach (Cantrell et al., 2015). Self-efficacy theory suggests that if the

ELCSE survey measures elementary literacy coaches' task-specific self-efficacy beliefs,

then participants that are in the literacy coaching position for 10 years or longer would

have a higher mean score on the ELCSE survey compared to elementary literacy coaches

with five years or less in the position. This is consistent with the data in this study which

shows that 94% of elementary literacy coaches who were in the position for 10 years or

more had a higher mean score, between 5.0 and 6.0, on the ELCSE survey than those

with five years or less in the elementary literacy coach position.

Implications for Practice

There are several implications for practitioners looking to use the ELCSE survey.

First, the specificity of the ELCSE survey with regards to literacy coaching tasks

provides for opportunities to design whole and small group professional development.

Professional development specific to the needs of elementary literacy coaches based on areas where they appear weaker is advantageous to the coach, administrator, and school district. Literacy coaches attending professional development specific to their own needs is a more effective use of time than "one-stop" workshops. Additionally, literacy coaches attending professional development based on their needs would support them in their evaluation from the school or district administrator. The ELCSE survey can be used to understand the needs of an elementary literacy coach and can be used for the implementation of specific professional development more relevant to the individual because it will support their teacher evaluation.

In addition to providing professional development, the items on the ELCSE survey provide school districts the opportunity to develop training modules for the specific roles of literacy coaching (Table 7). For example, if a literacy coach has a lower sense of efficacy for items one and two on the ELCSE survey, then a training module designed for modeling lessons would be relevant. A low score for items three through seven on the ELCSE survey would require a training module that focuses on coaching techniques while teaching a lesson simultaneously. Items eight through 10 on the ELCSE survey with a low score would require a training module that focuses on leading professional development workshops. A low score on item 11 would require a module that focuses on developing lesson plans with teacher colleagues. A module designed to focus on working with resistant or struggling teachers is reflected in items 12, 13, and 14.

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Literacy coaches with a lower sense of efficacy for items 15 and 16 would require a training module that focuses on using and analyzing assessments and data.

Understanding the items with this lens would provide fruitful learning opportunities for the specific roles of literacy coaching that could help a literacy coach become more successful in their position. Additionally, it is well documented that literacy coaches spend more of their work week on tasks unrelated to their roles (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Modules designed to address specific tasks of weakness for a literacy coach may help the coach begin to spend more time attending to tasks that are related to their roles instead of avoiding them.

Table 7
Coaching Modules for Training

Items on the ELCSE Survey	Potential Training Module
1 & 2	Modeling Lesson
3,4,5,6,7	Coaching Techniques
8,9,10	Providing Professional Development
11	Lesson Planning
12, 13, 14	Resistant or Struggling Teachers
15 & 16	Assessment and Data Analysis

A different way to use the ELCSE survey is to identify professional development opportunities for those who desire to enter the elementary literacy coach position. The

ELCSE survey could be administered to those wishing to become an elementary literacy coach. Then, based on the results, professional development could be offered and tailored to the needs of the individual in order to support them as they take on the literacy coach position. The use of the ELCSE survey in this way would provide school districts with opportunities to groom educator professionals within their district for leadership opportunities including the position of an elementary literacy coach. In addition, it would help districts bring in talent that would be prepared for the various roles of an elementary literacy coach by addressing areas that an individual indicated as not efficacious in performing on the ELCSE survey.

This leads to another implication for this study. Research has shown that teacher efficacy correlates to student academic success (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006; Guo et al., 2012; Klassen et al., 2011; Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Literacy coaches are teachers that support other teachers in their school-site (ILA, 2010). Providing specific professional development or training modules where a literacy coach might be less efficacious would increase the confidence of the literacy coach and the classroom teacher. This may result in higher academic achievement for the students because their teacher would have a higher sense of efficacy for teaching. The teacher's higher sense of efficacy for teaching results from working with a literacy coach that is more efficacious in their ability to perform coaching tasks. The purpose for using the ELCSE in this way is to build literacy capacity at a school-site by increasing the literacy coach's efficacy, which may lead to increasing teacher efficacy for literacy

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instruction. This may lead to an increase in collective efficacy for the entire faculty in regards to literacy instruction.

Finally, measuring the task-specific self-efficacy beliefs of an elementary literacy coach in such a specific context allows for precise feedback from peers, school-based administrators, and district-based administrators. Elementary literacy coaches could be administered the ELCSE survey in order to provide specific feedback to the coach about their levels of efficacy in literacy coaching tasks. This may result in a better understanding of their own beliefs systems.

<center>Limitations</center>

There are several limitations to be considered for this study. First and foremost, as explained in chapter one, a district that participated in this study is an organization where the researcher is an employee. The elementary literacy coaches that participated from the School District of Flower County, FL are colleagues of the researcher, and this may have influenced the ways in which they responded to items on the survey compared to the researcher being someone that they did not know.

Additionally, as explained in chapter one and earlier in this chapter, there are numerous outside influences that impact the decisions elementary literacy coaches make when they choose the tasks they perform daily. Some of these influences are administrators, federal and state policies, and colleagues that affect how the literacy coach goes about doing what they do in their school (Kissel et al., 2011). Cultural models theory explains that the norms within an organization influence the practices that take place in that organization (Gallimore & Goldenburg, 2001). It would be impossible

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during this study to isolate and remove the norms and outside influences that affect how the literacy coach functions within their setting. One example of culture is the way in which literacy coaches are selected for the position as explained in chapter one. This is an insurmountable task to achieve.

In a single study, it is difficult to establish all forms of validity for a survey. There are six aspects of construct validity: content, structural, consequential, external, generalizability, and substantive (Messick, 1995). This study examined external, substantive, and content. Consequential validity was not examined because the survey is not being used to make high stakes decisions. Structural validity was not examined because there is one dimension measured by the survey. Generalizability was not examined because the results of this study should not apply to other subgroups of the teaching profession, and the survey should only be used with elementary literacy coaches or those that want to be an elementary literacy coach. The ELCSE survey should not be used with other subgroups of the teaching profession. Also, the results of this study should not be generalized to elementary literacy coaches in other states. Other states in the United States have different requirements and job descriptions for the position of an elementary literacy coach and use their coach in different ways. However, this should be examined in future studies.

In addition, there are limitations with the design of this study. This study relied on self-report of participants' beliefs. Hoffman and Seidel (2014) explained that self-report studies are inherently riddled with erroneous reporting by those that participated in

the study. The erroneous reporting stems from participants wanting to present a positive image of themselves to the researchers conducting the study. Many participants respond to items based on what they believe is socially acceptable (Hoffman & Seidel, 2014). This could impact the reliability of a study, which has been noted as a limitation of self-reports (Hoffman & Seidel, 2014).

<div align="center">Recommendations for Further Research</div>

The goal of this study was to examine evidence of validity and reliability for a new psychometric measure evaluating the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches known as the ELCSE survey. Additionally, the study investigated the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches that completed the ELCSE survey. Data was collected to test three research questions relating to these goals. Significant findings resulted from the collection and analyses of data. However, this study is just the beginning of a long discussion about understanding the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches.

Much research demonstrates that a self-efficacy instrument needs to be task and context specific (Pajares & Barich, 2005). The ELCSE survey (Appendix E) is specific to many tasks outlined in the ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches; however, many items on the ELCSE survey cover several tasks outlined in the standards. This was purposeful in order to avoid a survey that was 71 items long. Future research should look at each element in the ILA standards for literacy coaches and develop items specific to the individual tasks outlined in that element. Designing items for each task in each

element would offer the task specificity that is stressed by Pajares and Barich (2005) and Bandura (2006).

In addition to the suggestions stated in the paragraph above, the International Literacy Association is releasing updated literacy professional standards in 2017. This includes updated and new standards for literacy coaches. The ELCSE survey used the most recently published standards from ILA in 2010; however, the new standards may change or modify the tasks that are expected of literacy coaches. This offers an opportunity to update and modify the ELCSE survey based on the new standards. The new standards for literacy coaches should provide the foundation for change to the ELCSE survey or a new self-efficacy instrument for literacy coaches or other reading professionals.

The development of the ELCSE survey for elementary literacy coaches has opened up the discussion and understanding of the self-efficacy beliefs of literacy education professionals. Prior to this study, a survey designed specifically for the role of the elementary literacy coach was absent. Now that the ELCSE survey has been developed for elementary literacy coaches it opens the possibility of developing a self-efficacy survey for the role of the literacy specialist or reading specialist. Literacy/ reading specialists are educator professionals that provide remedial reading to struggling readers and writers in small group settings. It would be interesting to understand the self-efficacy beliefs of this subgroup in the teaching profession.

Prior to being a literacy coach, the researcher was a reading/literacy specialist. It would have been helpful to have taken the ELCSE survey as a reading specialist and received professional development based on the responses. This would have prepared the researcher for the role of a literacy coach. It would be interesting to study the self-efficacy beliefs of a reading specialist before they enter the role of literacy coaching using the ELCSE survey. It would be of value to understand the tasks that reading specialists feel not as efficacious performing if they were to move into the position of a literacy coach.

Conclusion

The findings of this study expanded the work of previous studies in the area of literacy coaching self-efficacy. This study resulted in a valid and reliable survey that can be used with elementary literacy coaches. Additionally, the ELCSE survey was designed to reflect the specific tasks outlined by the ILA's (2010) standards for literacy coaches and in adherence with the recommendations by Pajares and Barich (2005) and Bandura (2006) that self-efficacy instruments should be task and context specific.

An assessment of the data provided in this study indicates that the ELCSE survey correlates with other established surveys. Additionally, the data provided indicates that the ELCSE survey did not correlate with another established survey as expected. The results from this study provides insight into the tasks and responsibilities that the general elementary literacy coach feels highly efficacious performing and those they did not feel as efficacious performing.

Finally, this study extends the discussion of understanding the self-efficacy beliefs of elementary literacy coaches and opens the door for understanding the self-efficacy beliefs of reading/literacy specialists. The practical use of the ELCSE survey for school districts and researchers should lead to a better understanding of the roles of an elementary literacy coach and a better utilization of coaches in elementary schools.

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Adam R. Ulenski**

Date: **August 25, 2016**

Dear Researcher:

On 08/25/2016, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	Developing and Validating the Roles and Responsibilities of an Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey
Investigator:	Adam R. Ulenski
IRB Number:	SBE-16-12457
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Patria Davis on 08/25/2016 01:56:52 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

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APPENDIX B

SCHOOL DISTRICT OF FLOWER COUNTY, FL APPROVAL LETTER

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT OF OSCEOLA COUNTY, FLORIDA

817 Bill Beck Boulevard • Kissimmee• Florida 34744-4492
Phone: 407-870-4600 • Fax: 407-870-4010 - www.osceolaschools.net

SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

District 1 – Jay Wheeler
407-973-4141
District 2 – Kelvin Soto
407-361-2462
District 3 – Tim Weisheyer
407-361-0225
District 4 – Clarence Thacker - Chair
407-361-7906
District 5 – Ricky Booth – Vice Chair
407-818-0404

Superintendent of Schools
Dr. Debra P. Pace

September 26, 2016

Mr. Adam Ulenski
100 W. Grant Street
Apt #5069
Orlando, FL 32806

Dear Mr. Ulenski:

This letter is to inform you that we have received your request to conduct research in our School District. Based on the description of the research you intend to conduct, I am pleased to inform you that you may proceed with your work as you have outlined. Please be advised that this approval is based on the understanding that a school's participation is completely voluntary and left to the discretion of each building administrator. Please also be advised that the district office will not be able to assist you with any aspect of your research (e.g. sending emails, obtaining data, locating students, providing addresses, etc.).

Finally, be reminded that all information obtained for the purpose of your research must be dealt with in the strictest of confidentiality. At no time is it acceptable to release any student or staff identifiable information.

I wish you the best of luck in your future endeavors. If I can be further assistance, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Janine Jarvis, Director
Research, Evaluation & Accountability

Student Achievement – Our Number One Priority
Districtwide Accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools
An Equal Opportunity Agency

APPENDIX C

MIDDLEBURG COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS APPROVAL LETTER

Orange County Public Schools

445 West Amelia Street • Orlando, FL 32801-1129 • Phone 407.317.3200 • www.ocps.net

Notice of Approval

Approval Date: 10/31/2016   Approval Number: **0063**

Project Title: Developing and Validating the Roles and Responsibilities of an Elementary Literacy Coach Self-
                   Efficacy Instrument

Requester: Adam Ulenski
Project Director/Advisor: Dr. Michele Gill
Sponsor Agency/Institutional Affiliation: University of Central Florida

Thank you for your request to conduct research in Orange County Public Schools. We have reviewed and approved your application. This Notice of Approval expires one year after issue 10/30/2017.

If you are interacting with OCPS staff or students, you should have submitted a Principal Notification Form with your application. You may now email the principals who have indicated interest in participating, including this Notice as an attachment. After initial contact with principals, you may then email any necessary staff. This notice does not obligate administrators, teachers, students, or families of students to participate in your study; participation is entirely voluntary.

OCPS badges are required to enter any OCPS campus or building (see the Security Clearance Flow Chart).

You are responsible for submitting a Change Request Form to this office prior to implementing any changes to the currently approved protocol. If any problems or unexpected adverse reactions occur as a result of this study, you must notify this office immediately by emailing a completed Adverse Event Report Form. On or before 9/30/2017, you must complete a Request for Renewal or Executive Summary Submission. Email all forms to research@ocps.net. All forms may be found at www.tinyurl.com/OCPSresearch.

Should you have questions or need assistance, please contact Mary Ann White at (407) 317-3201 or mary.white@ocps.net.

Best wishes for continued success,

Tavy Chen, Ed.D.
tavy.chen@ocps.net
Director of Accountability, Research and Evaluation
Orange County Public Schools

APPENDIX D

SOUTH FALLS COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS APPROVAL LETTER

Hillsborough County
PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Preparing Students for Life

December 14, 2016

Adam Ulenski
100 West Grant Street, Apt: 5069
Orlando, FL 32806

Dear Mr. Ulenski:

The Hillsborough County Public School district has agreed to participate in your research proposal, *Developing and Validating the Roles and Responsibilities of on Elementary Literacy Coach Self-Efficacy Survey.* A copy of this letter MUST be available to all participants to assure them your research has been approved by the district. **Your approval number is RR1617-37. You must refer to this number in all correspondence.** Approval is given for your research under the following conditions:

1) Participation by the schools is to be on a voluntary basis. That is, participation is NOT MANDATORY and you must advise ALL PARTICIPANTS that they are not obligated to participate in your study.

2) Confidentiality must be assured for all. That is, ALL DATA MUST BE AGGREGATED SUCH THAT THE PARTICIPANTS CANNOT BE IDENTIFIED. Participants include the district, principals, administrators, teachers, support personnel, students and parents.

3) Any student data MUST be DESTROYED when the project has been completed.

4) You **must** coordinate your research with Linda Gaughan, Ph.D., Supervisor of Reading Research and Assessment. Dr. Gaughan can be reached at 813-272-4341 or linda.gaughan@sdhc.k12.fl.us.

5) Research approval does not constitute the use of the district's equipment, software, email, or district mail service. In addition, requests that result in extra work by the district such as data analysis, programming or assisting with electronic surveys, may have a cost borne by the researcher.

6) This approval WILL EXPIRE ON 6/30/2017. You will have to contact us at that time if you feel your research approval should be extended.

7) A copy of your research findings must be sent to us for our files and must be submitted to this department.

SERVE VOLUNTEER FORMS/FINGERPRINTING
Your proposal indicates that you will not come into contact with any students. IF THIS CHANGES, YOU MUST contact us for further instructions.

Good luck with your endeavor. If you have any questions, please advise.

Sincerely,

Theodore Dwyer, Ph.D., Manager of Evaluation
Assessment, Accountability and Evaluation

TD/mt
cc: Linda Gaughan, Ph.D., Supervisor of Reading Research and Assessment
       Mellissa Alonso, Supervisor of K-3 Reading Coaches

APPENDIX E

ELEMENTARY LITERACY COACH SELF-EFFICACY SURVEY (FINAL

VERSION)

Rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0 to 6 using the

scale given below:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cannot do at all			Moderately can do			Highly certain can do

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I can confidently go into any classroom in my school to provide an observation lesson because of the relationships I have with my colleagues.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I can provide an observation lesson using the gradual release of responsibility in a literacy lesson in front of students as a teacher-colleague observes.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I can clearly articulate my instructional moves to teacher-colleagues while providing an observation lesson.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I can engage teacher-colleagues in the instructional decision-making process by posing questions during an observation lesson.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I can engage teacher-colleagues in the instructional decision making process by receiving suggestions as to	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

my next instructional steps during the observation lesson.							
6. As I observe a teacher-colleague teaching a literacy lesson, I can quickly decide what to whisper in to the teacher's ear to provide a response as they are teaching the lesson.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I can provide specific suggestions on research-proven instructional practices to teacher-colleagues as I observe a lesson.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I can design professional learning opportunities that are specific to the needs of the school.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I can design professional learning opportunities that are specific to the needs of a certain grade level.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I can design professional learning opportunities that are specific to the needs of individualized teacher-colleagues.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I can plan and design the observation lesson to the specific needs of a teacher-colleague.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. If a teacher in my school becomes disruptive or resistant, I can quickly apply a variety of coaching techniques to get them to change their thinking.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. When a teacher is having adaptive challenges with a particular instructional design, I can regulate my coaching work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. If a teacher-colleague cannot implement a particular instructional design, I can seek solutions collaboratively.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I can assist teachers in selecting assessments to measure specific areas of literacy knowledge.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I can assist teachers in making instructional decisions based on data analysis.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX F

MODIFIED COLLECTIVE EFFICACY SCALE

Rate your confidence that your fellow literacy coaches in this school district can achieve

each of the following objectives:

1- Strongly Disagree   2- Moderately Disagree 3- Disagree Slightly More Than Agree
4- Agree Slightly More than Agree   5- Moderately Agree   6- Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Literacy coaches in this district have what it takes to get the teachers to learn.						
2. Literacy coaches in this district are able to get through to difficult teachers.						
3. If a teacher doesn't learn something, the first time, literacy coaches will try another way.						
4. Literacy coaches are confident they will be able to motivate their teachers.						
5. Literacy coaches in this district believe every teacher can learn.						
6. If a teacher doesn't want to learn, literacy coaches here give up.						
7. Literacy coaches here need more training to know how to deal with these teachers.						
8. Literacy coaches in this district think there are some teachers that no one can reach.						
9. Literacy coaches here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful teacher learning.						
10. Literacy coaches here fail to reach some teachers because of poor coaching methods.						
11. These teachers come to school ready to learn.						
12. The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes literacy coaching very difficult.						
13. Teachers here just aren't motivated to learn.						
14. The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the coaching and teaching process.						
15. The opportunities in this community help ensure that these teachers will learn.						
16. Literacy coaches here are well prepared to coach the teacher they are assigned to coach.						
17. Literacy coaches in this district are skilled in various methods of coaching.						
18. Literacy coaching is more difficult in this district because teachers are worried about their safety.						

APPENDIX G

TIME COACHES SPEND ON ACTIVITIES DURING A TYPICAL TWO-WEEK

PERIOD SURVEY

Please indicate the number of hours you spend on each task over a two-week period.

	5 Hours or Less	6-16 Hours	17-24 Hours	More than 24 Hours
1. Work with individual teacher one on one on their instruction (including classroom observations)				
2. Provide a "listening ear" for teachers' concerns				
3. Administer or coordinate student assessments (including managing assessment materials)				
4. Analyze and train teachers on how to analyze and use student data to inform instruction				
5. Manage reading resources and materials (including ordering, budgeting, doing inventory, locating written materials as well as overseeing computer software and reading labs)				
6. Attend meetings or professional development sessions (not ones that you lead) in the school, district, or region				
7. Perform non-coaching administrative duties (including lunch duty, bus study)				
8. Teach or tutor students in class or in computer labs				
9. Substitute teaching				

APPENDIX H

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

Demographic Survey Items

Indicate the number of years in education: (typed in response)

Indicate the number of years as an elementary literacy coach: (typed in response)

Indicate the highest degree earned: (bachelors, masters, specialist, or doctorate)

Indicate the how often you <u>engage</u> in the following, <u>on average</u>,….

1- Never   2   3- Yearly   4   5- Monthly   6   7- Semi-Monthly

     8   9- Weekly   10

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Attend professional development in specific coaching techniques	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Attend professional development on the responsibilities of a literacy coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. Attend professional development on best practices in literacy instruction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Attend professional development in coaching teachers (small group; 1-to-1)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

5. Attend professional development in how to provide professional development (small group, whole school)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Read professional literature about literacy coaching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Attend professional development on the International Literacy Association standards for literacy coaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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