Common Core State Standards’ Influences On Teacher Self-Efficacy And Instructional Practices For Students With Learning Disabilities

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COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS’ INFLUENCES ON TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

by

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2018

MAJOR: SPECIAL EDUCATION

Approved By:

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Advisor

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Date

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my wonderful children, Briah, Taylor, Casey, and “baby” Shaun. Thank you for your patience with mommy’s busy schedule that transpired to lack of quality time with you. May you all understand that finishing what you started is a rule that neither mommy nor you should ever break no matter how hard the road may seem. I would also have to thank my loving and supportive husband. Without your encouragement, achieving this monumental goal would not have been possible. Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my mother, who sacrificed her time goals, and dreams so that her children could realize their own. I love all of you!!!
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“Surround yourself with people you aspire to be” – Donny Osmond. Four years ago, I decided that I wanted to teach, research, and publish at the post-secondary level. It was during a conversation I was having with a fellow colleague about teaching in Detroit. This same conversation was carried over to a few more colleagues, as well as my academic advisor for my Master’s program. I was frustrated with the “problems” of teaching but overjoyed with my decision to pursue my Ph.D. at the same school where I received my undergraduate and Master’s degrees.

I would like to first acknowledge and thank Dr. Zvric for your trust and confidence in me. Your guidance and thoughts about holistic and interpretivist educational views will forever be embedded in me. I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Oglan. Your support through my oral and written exams was very helpful. I would also like to acknowledge and thank my committee chair, Dr. Gabel, for stepping in and guiding me through the proposal defense with as much support as you could give. Your attention to detail was admirable, and I appreciate your direct and honest leadership. To Dr. Arya, Dr. Ilmer, and Dr. Daniels, thank you also for stepping in at the last minute to see me through this process. Your expertise and unwavering expectations for me has helped me to grow and develop into the person I am today. As a result of this experience and your collective contributions, I believe that I am prepared to move into the next chapter of my life.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION .......................................................................................................................... ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ......................................................................................................... iii

LIST OF TABLES ...................................................................................................................... viii

LIST OF FIGURES ................................................................................................................... ix

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................. 1

   The Author’s Experience ..................................................................................................... 1

   Background .......................................................................................................................... 2

   Brief history of Academic Federal Regulatory policy initiatives ..................................... 3

   Statement of problem ......................................................................................................... 8

   Purpose of study ................................................................................................................ 9

   Research questions .......................................................................................................... 9

   Overview of methodology ................................................................................................. 10

   Study participants and survey instrument ........................................................................ 10

   Description of participant data ....................................................................................... 10

   Limitation of the study ..................................................................................................... 11

   Assumptions of the study ................................................................................................. 12

       Key Definition of Terms/ Concepts ........................................................................... 12

       Organization of the Study ......................................................................................... 14

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE .................................................................................. 15

   Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy ................................................................... 15

   One of the six components of the social cognitive theory is self-efficacy. ...................... 16

   Teacher self-efficacy .......................................................................................................... 17
Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale ................................................................. 19

Previous Studies using Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale .................. 20

Validity and TSES .............................................................................. 20

Burnout and TSES. ............................................................................. 20

Emotional intelligence and TSES. ...................................................... 20

Pre-service Art Teachers – TSES. ....................................................... 21

Inter- and intra-individual differences & TSES .................................... 21

Standards and Accountability Movement (Brief History) ..................... 22

“A Nation at Risk”- 1983 ................................................................ 23

No Child Left Behind -2001 ............................................................... 27

Common Core State Standards .......................................................... 29

Reading: Literature, Informational Text, and Foundational Skills .......... 32

Writing .................................................................................................. 34

Speaking and Listening ................................................................. 35

Language .......................................................................................... 36

Assessments ....................................................................................... 37

Common Core and Special Education Teachers .................................. 37

What is a Profession? ........................................................................ 39

De-professionalization ....................................................................... 40

Chapter Summary ............................................................................ 44

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY ...................................................................... 45

Purpose of the Study .......................................................................... 45
Research Questions........................................................................................................46
Research Hypotheses ......................................................................................................46
Research Design .............................................................................................................46
Study participants & recruitment ....................................................................................47
Data collection................................................................................................................49
Survey instrument .........................................................................................................49
Reliability and validity ....................................................................................................50
Demographic Data Questionnaire ..................................................................................51
Data Management and Analysis ....................................................................................52
Research Permission and Potential Ethical Issues .........................................................53

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS ......................................................................................................55
Research Question 1 ......................................................................................................55
Research Question 2 ......................................................................................................63
Summary .........................................................................................................................66

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION ...............................................................................................67
Interpretation of Findings ...............................................................................................68
Research question 1 ......................................................................................................68
Research Question 2 ......................................................................................................70
Implications for Future Research ..................................................................................71
Conclusion .......................................................................................................................72
Limitations .......................................................................................................................73

APPENDIX A: Teacher’s Sense of Efficacy Scale ...........................................................75
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 – Grade Level Groups.................................................................48
Table 3.2 – Years of Teaching Experience..................................................48
Table 3.3 – Common Core Professional Development..............................49
Table 3.4 – Timeline of Distribution..........................................................51
Table 4.1 - Distribution of Responses to the 12 Survey questions...............55
Table 4.2 – Distribution of Responses to the 12 Survey questions Total Mean..58
Table 4.3 - Teacher Self-Efficacy Subscale Means......................................61
Table 4.4– One-Way ANOVA Test of Between-Subject Effects: TSES subscales..............64
Table 4.5 – Factorial One-Way ANOVA for Classroom Management...........65
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 - Sources of Self-Efficacy Information………………………………………………17
Figure 2.2 - Framework of the Teacher Self-Efficacy…………………………………………..19
Figure 4.1 - Histogram of Student Engagement TSES Scores – Student Engagement…..62
Figure 4.2 - Histogram of Student Engagement TSES Scores - Instructional Strategies...62
Figure 4.3 - Histogram of Student Engagement TSES Scores – Classroom Management.63
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The Author’s Experience

In 2006, I began my career as an educator in arguably one of the most deplorable, impoverished city in America, Detroit, MI. Although this was the same city in which I was born and raised, it felt different to be sitting on the other side of the education table. I was no longer the quiet yet diligent student sitting in the front of the classroom waiting for the bell to ring. I was now the teacher educating students with the minimum teacher educational requirements and a minimum skill set.

My foundational teaching years were filled with professional development related to the federal mandates of No Child Left Behind, classroom management techniques, and “effective” instructional strategies. As early as my first year of teaching, I began to notice that there was a vast gap between the academic levels of the students in my classroom. Only a few of them were actually at grade level. Many of them would be classified as students on the “bubble,” but several actually fell below grade level according to the Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) standardized testing. Although many of them were below grade level, very few were identified as students with a learning disability.

This was extremely concerning to me, but like many ambitious beginning educators, I was determined to meet the needs of all of my students. Growing up in a single-parent home, poor, and with no role models, I saw myself in many of them. Although my class was filled with thirty-two bright-eyed second graders and one ambitious educator, the reality was, I would soon be plagued with the emotions of feeling overwhelmed, overworked, and underpaid. Each day I was taking home the problems and frustrations I felt from my lower performing students. I tried as hard as I could to reach my students, to follow the standards and benchmarks set forth by the federal
mandates of NCLB, but I was unequipped and powerless. As my lack of confidence (low Teacher self-efficacy) added to my frustration, I began to seek advice from my colleagues.

Although my stress level was high, I decided to take on a new challenge and pursue a graduate degree. After obtaining a Master’s degree in Special Education, I decided to focus only on students who were diagnosed with a learning disability in the city of Detroit. The job was overwhelming, and the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) paperwork required for Individuals with Disabilities (IDEA) was never-ending. From the lack of resources, astronomical paperwork and deadlines, and the constant confrontations due to advocating for my students in IEP meetings, the work was complicated and mind-boggling.

As the federal educational mandates increased, my confidence and the creativity in my classroom decreased. Teacher morale was low in my school. Teachers began to resist; I began to resist. Teachers began to move on to pursue different opportunities, and so did I. My dissertation topic is not a topic pulled from a book but a depiction of my experience and a journey to discover the link or lack thereof between federal educational mandates and low teacher self-efficacy.

**Background**

Hargreaves (2008) referred to the politically restructuring of American schools as an ever-changing and challenging shift. Recent reform efforts, accountability, and assessments have added to the complexities of teaching (Payne, 2003; Porter, McMaken, & Hwang, 2011). Existing research pinpoints a significantly high rate of attrition among teachers due to low teacher self-efficacy, which has generated concern among practitioners and policymakers nationwide (Bandura, 1997; Borman & Dowling, 2008; Boyd, Grossman, et al., 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).
Historically, teaching students with learning disabilities involved implementing individualized and specialized instruction; however, under current education reforms teachers are faced with a different task. Under Common Core State Standards (CCSS) students with learning disabilities are required to be successful in the general education curriculum and on designated assessments. As CCSS implementation continues to grow in numbers across districts in the United States, it is imperative that teachers begin to build their self-efficacy and avoid resistance in order to meet the diverse needs in their classrooms.

**Brief history of Academic Federal Regulatory policy initiatives**

Since the enactment of Nation at Risk (NAR) in 1983, the federal regulatory system has insisted on holding districts accountable for students’ academic success. The foundation of state-to-state uniformity, accountability, and rigor in the American education system has been a major political focus for over 30 years (Taubman, 2010; Linn, 2000; Harris & Harrington, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2006). Beginning in the early 1980's the National Commission on Excellence in Education issued "A Nation at Risk" report, which publicized the failures of American Schools (1983). The landmark publication led by Ronald Regan declared that American schools were in a state of despair and needed immediate attention and reform. The report described the current state of American education as a state of crisis (1983).

After “A Nation at Risk” and its educational and political ramifications, and before the implementation of CCSS, schools were faced with meeting annual progress through the No Child Left Behind Act, which was signed into law by former President George Bush in 2002. The law required that all public schools receiving federal funding from the government administer an annual state-wide standardized test to all students including those in special education (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002). The essential component of NCLB was annual progress, meaning all
students needed to test higher than the previous year. As defined by the United States Department of Education and NCLB, Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) is a measurement that allows the U.S. Department of Education to determine how schools in America are performing on standardized tests. In support of the standard-based education, NCLB expanded the federal government role within education, which received plenty of flack from educators, parents, and many others (McGuinn, 2006; Bloomfield & Cooper 2003; Porter & Magee, 2004). Rush (2012) concluded that NCLB’s attempt to close the achievement gap failed drastically and left teachers and districts feeling humiliated by not meeting their annual progress goals.

NCLB was replaced in 2010 with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) by the National Governors Association (NGA) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). CCSS is defined as an educational initiative in the United States that details what K–12 students should be familiar with in English language arts and mathematics at the end of each grade (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013). As a result of the national educational initiative, districts across America are restructuring how they instruct and assess students both in the general and special education classrooms. With standard goals such as the strategic development of critical-thinking, problem-solving, and analytical skills to meet the needs of the 21st-century learner, Common Core State Standards initiatives have set the bar high for classroom teachers (Porter et al., 2013). Rush (2012) points out that unless there is a fundamental paradigm shift among teachers and school districts about effective instructional methods, CCSS will not lead students to any greater achievements.

As with NCLB, professional development initiatives are also slated as an important factor within CCSS to assist teachers with consistent progress monitoring of goals and benchmarks in ensuring students are progressing. Additionally, state-to-state collaboration to ensure that materials, curriculum, and assessment are aligned with the state-led standards is highly
recommended. In addition to the teacher and student declaration, under the CCSS federal guidelines provided by the National Governors Association, the standards have been developed to the highest degree by teachers and standard experts to improve the American education system (2010).

While recent studies of Common Core State Standards have reviewed and granted praise for its high expectations and rigorous standards (Drew, 2012; Porter & McMaken, 2011; CCSS, 2010), there has been arguments against the initiative, specifically surrounding the implementation of CCSS and its impact on teachers’ social and emotional well-being (Bomer & Maloch; 2011, Youngs, 2013; Shanahan, Fisher, & Frey, 2012). Kelchtermans (2005) suggests that the general climate of educational reform policies among teachers implies an adverse impact on their confidence, self-identity, and emotions, leaving them in a vulnerable state of mind. Although research has noted that student success is linked to teachers’ abilities (Drew, 2012; Porter & McMaken, 2011; CCSS, 2010), a federal regulatory policy such as CCSS seems to diminish teachers’ confidence in the classroom, leading to low teacher self-efficacy (Kelchtermans, 2005, 2009; Van Veen, 2009; Day, 2008; Ball, Maguire, & Bandura, 1997). Teacher self-efficacy can be connected with student academic achievement advancement in school (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen -Moran & Rushton, 2000; Tucker et al., 2005). Bandura (1997) recognized the development of teacher self-efficacy in four specific experiences including: 1) Mastery experiences; 2) Vicarious experiences; 3) Verbal experiences; and 4) Arousal experiences.

According to Bandura (1997), the Mastery experience is defined as successfully dealing with and mastering a task through active performance. It is said to be the most powerful source of self-efficacy because it provides the most genuine confirmation of whether one can gather what it takes to accomplish a specific task. When one steps out of his or her comfort zone (without any
influences from others) and succeeds at accomplishing the goal, a strong sense of self-efficacy can be built (Bandura, 1997). The second experience known as the Vicarious experience is defined as the social comparison or modeling from colleagues. Under this experience, Bandura states that by observing others in similar situations completing a task, self-efficacy can be increased by believing that the same or similar task as someone else can be achieved. The third experience, referred to as the Verbal experience, is defined as persuasive feedback given to someone to help build self-efficacy. According to Bandura, the verbal experience uses constructive encouragement, which can also be a way to build and develop self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The fourth and last experience is known as the Physiological experience which is described as the physical arousal state of an individual when faced with a specific task. For example, if a person feels nervous, begins to sweat, or has anxiety when having to speak in front of an audience, according to Bandura (1997), this will lower the sense of self-efficacy. However in this same example, if a person feels the excitement, confidence, and eagerness to speak in front of an audience a higher sense of self-efficacy can be built and developed (Bandura, 1997).

Under this theory, the maximum way of obtaining the highest level of self-efficacy would be through a mastery experience, which would be identified as a scenario for which a teacher has encountered success within a task and therefore has developed a high self-efficacy for that particular task. Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, and Hoy (2001) discovered that more experienced teachers have a higher sense of self-efficacy in their ability to execute effective instructional skills and applying effective classroom management strategies.

A majority of the research on teacher self-efficacy has focused on the comparison of pre-service teachers to experienced teachers. According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007), researchers at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology discovered that teacher self-efficacy had
been linked to teacher burnout. The study found evidence that correlated teacher self-efficacy with six domains, including adapting education to individual students' needs, instruction, motivating students, cooperating with colleagues and parents, keeping discipline, and coping with changes and challenges. Another study conducted by Schwarzer (2008) found a similar effect with inexperienced teachers and those with low general self-efficacy. The study noted low self-efficacy led to teacher burnout and in some cases attrition. Schwarzer (2008) concluded that further analyzing of the teachers’ responses in these areas (teacher resistance, teacher self-efficacy, and de-professionalization) could lead to an enhanced understanding of the influences of the implementation of educational policies n teachers’ instructional practices.

Along with low teacher self-efficacy, teacher resistance has become more prevalent in American schools as a result of federal regulatory policy mandates and lack of social and professional capital from the teaching staff (Hargreaves, 1998; Hargreaves, Earl, & Moore, 2002). Politically motivated school reforms are being enforced with no action, coming and leaving our schools with no action for a change (Wiener & Compton, 2008; Goodson, Moore, & Hargreaves, 2008), and for this reason teachers may be less committed to reform. Without the commitment of teachers, the implementation of any educational reform initiative will not be carried out with fidelity (Hargreaves, 2002). Teachers are beginning to feel the pressure from the multiple requirements and demands of their occupation and losing confidence in their ability to teach their students effectively.

Some districts are starting to resist and refuse to comply with the requirements of CCSS stating that they are unreasonable and substandard (Kane & Mitchell 2001; Hill & Grossman, 2007; Neill, 2016). Despite the fact that more power and options are given at the state level to decide what is best for students in particular districts, teachers are still pressured by the
accountability demands of standardized testing. Because districts are continuously ranked by the results of CCSS assessment data, some districts do not believe that autonomy is given to allow teachers and administrators to decide how to implement the standards.

Despite these federal policy efforts, not only are many districts continuing to oppose the set curriculum standards of CCSS under the notion that it doesn’t fit the needs of their district (Neill, 2016), school districts have also failed to comply with the proposed standardized testing of CCSS (the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium and the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers – PARCC). Under the current educational reform (Neill 2016) more than 620,000 students opted-out or refused to take state standardized exams across many states including New York, New Jersey, Colorado, Washington, Illinois, Oregon, and Florida. In addition to seeing an increase in teacher resistance on standardized testing, there has also been an increase in teacher resistance relating to teacher nostalgia studies. As early as the 1970’s, implementation analysts have examined the execution of educational policies and practices at local levels. Policies cannot always authorize what happens to outcomes at the local level (McLaughlin, 1987). Federal mandates in any field can cause confusion, resistance, mystification, and conflict at many levels. Although some evidence shows an active connection with policy implementation and local practice (Fullan, 1986), more recent data proves otherwise (Goodson et al., 2006).

**Statement of problem**

In research on Common Core State Standards and its impact in classrooms, teachers report mixed results. While the state of Michigan (along with many other states) initially adopted and began to implement Common Core State Standards in 2010, recent legislation has moved to get rid of Common Core State Standards mainly because of its inability to change classroom outcomes (Ujifusa, 2015) effectively. According to the National Conference of the State Legislatures, 19
states have begun to lose faith in the reform movement and requested a review of the standards and their ability to impact classrooms. Additionally, research suggests that overall school reform policies just do not effectively change classrooms; knowledgeable and confident teachers do (Slaavik & Slaavik, 2014).

**Purpose of study**

The purpose of this study is to understand teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards and to understand the influences of Common Core State Standards on teacher instructional practices. This research is important because it investigates the impact of Common Core State Standards’ influences on classroom teachers’ instructional practices and on teacher self-efficacy.

This proposed research focused on developing new knowledge and understanding of Common Core State Standards influences on teacher instructional practices and teacher self-efficacy. Specifically, this study examined the factors that create difficulties for teachers who have implemented the Common Core State Standards. The focus was on teachers’ beliefs regarding executing classroom practices under the Common Core State Standard policy reform effectively.

By exploring the challenges, requirements, and beliefs surrounding Common Core State Standards and teacher instructional practices revealed through interviews, a survey, and observations of teachers, school districts, administrators, and special education directors can devise informed solutions and begin to have conversations regarding building teacher self-efficacy to decrease teacher resistance, burnout, and/or deprofessionalization.

**Research questions**

The research questions guiding this study are as follow:
1. How do teachers rate their self-efficacy for using Common Core State Standards in their teaching?

2. What factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards?

**Overview of methodology**

This study utilized a quantitative design approach. A quantitative analysis using the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale was used to answer research questions one and two. The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale uses a Likert scale, which measures positive and negative responses. To answer the research question, the researcher collected data through the Teacher Efficacy Belief System Survey, short form (Appendix A). The utilization of this survey was the primary instrument to gather the data for this study. The benefit of using a survey in this manner was to receive a significant amount of data to compare and find connections, similarities, and differences among the participants.

**Study participants and survey instrument**

The initial intended population for this study was Michigan teachers who have implemented the Common Core State Standards within their schools. However, due to time constraints and participant recruitment challenges, the study was opened up in an online forum which hosts teachers from across the United States. Specifically, the study was intended for teachers who taught a minimum of one student identified with learning disabilities.

**Description of participant data.**

This study was designed to investigate teacher self-efficacy under the federal policy regulation Common Core State Standards. Participants from this study included African-American teachers from an online network which host approximately 153,000 members from across the
United States, most of which teach minority students. According to the site, the teacher online network group represents 34 states and 956 schools. Out of the 153,000 educators enrolled in the online community, 156 teachers participated in the survey (resulting in an approximately .10% response rate) within the allotted 2-week period. Although 156 teachers participated, only 124 participants met criteria including currently teaching, using Common Core, and teaching at least one student with a learning disability.

The researcher used a non-random sample of convenience to complete the survey. A convenience sample was employed and represented the population. Although non-random convenience sampling could suffer from various biases, it is simply helpful to carry out because of its few rules governing how the sample must be collected (Trochim, 2000). For statistically significant results the researcher attempted to obtain 100 or more participants to complete the survey (Mertens, 2005).

Participants who agreed to take the survey were provided with a Qualtrics (an online data collection and analyses software) survey link via the online website. The link provided the participant with an anonymous copy of the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale Survey - Short Form. If needed, participants were able to ask clarifying questions to the researcher via email. Once the participant completed the survey, the participant was automatically thanked via the Qualtrics system. All survey data was stored in a password secure dataset file.

**Limitation of the study**

The first limitation would be the selection process. Utilizing an opportunity/convenience selection process could inhibit the degree of generalizability in the results. Reported data may be inaccurate based on the views of the participants. Also, data reported from the study may be overestimated or underestimated (Pajares, 2002). Additionally, when utilizing any survey
instrument, participants may feel discouraged to provide accurate and truthful answers (Trochim, 2006).

Assumptions of the study

Due to the nature of the study the following assumptions were made:

1. The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) precisely interprets the individualities of each participant’s sense of self-efficacy.
2. The theory of efficacy was precise for this study.

Key Definition of Terms/ Concepts

Common Core State Standards (CCSS)
An educational plan and a set of standards in the United States that declares what K-12 students are supposed to know in English language arts and mathematics at the end of each grade level (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)
A federally funded educational reform act that supported standards-based education reform. The focus was to set high standards and establish assessable and measurable goals (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002).

Nation at Risk (NAR)

De-professionalization
The practice by which highly educated and skilled professionals are displaced then replaced with individuals of substandard preparation and compensation. The notion to discredit of professional status (Hoyle, 1980).

**Self-Efficacy**

One's belief about their capabilities to execute the desired effect on others' lives. Self-efficacy beliefs have been shown to affect how people feel, think, and behave (Bandura, 1986).

**Teachers' Self-Efficacy**

Teachers' beliefs about themselves and their capability to execute anticipated student results, such as academic achievement and appropriate classroom behaviors (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

**Teacher Resistance**

Affective, cognitive, and behavioral reaction intended to preserve the existing conditions, with the expectations of ending, setting back, or shifting the projected change (Bemmels & Reshef, 1999 Van den Heuvel, 2009).

**Learning Disability**

This term is used to describe a group of disorders that exhibit difficulties in the acquirement and use of speaking, listening, reading, reasoning, mathematical abilities, and writing. (National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities, 1990)

**Response to Intervention (RTI)**

This term refers to a tiered-approach to academic and behavioral interventions used to provide methodical intensive support to children who are at risk for or are performing below grade-level standards (The National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2011)

**Special Education**
This term refers to a specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parents, provided to students with special needs, such as students with learning disabilities or mental challenges (IDEA, 2004).

**Organization of the Study**

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 focuses on background information, the purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, and definitions of the terms, limitations/delimitations, assumptions, and organization of the study. Chapter 2 contains a review of literature related to current and past educational, regulatory policies, teacher self-efficacy, and resistance. Chapter 3 focuses on the methodology of the dissertation and contains the study design, rationale, and research methods. Results and findings are presented in Chapter 4. Lastly, Chapter 5 provides the summary of the conclusions, future discussion, and recommendations.
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of comparable literature as it relates to the current study of this dissertation. Specifically, this chapter will begin with presenting a theoretical framework for the foundation of self-efficacy, which is embedded in Albert Bandura’s social cognitive theory. A review of the literature involving studies which have utilized the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale in different capacities will also be presented. Lastly, a comprehensive discussion of the history of federal educational policies – Nation at Risk, No Child Left Behind, and Common Core State Standards – and their ramifications for low teacher self-efficacy will be explored. Overall, this chapter will provide foundational information to create an understanding of teacher self-efficacy research, exposing the importance of the known and unknown on this theory as it relates to federal educational policies.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics, over ninety-five percent of six-to twenty-one-year-old students with learning disabilities are served in regular schools in an inclusive setting with general education students (NCES, 2012). Following the goals and objectives outlined in the individualized educational plan, students with learning disabilities are taught both by the general education teacher as well as a special education teacher. For the purpose of this study, literature for both special education and general education teachers will be explored as it relates to the topic of this study.

Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy

The social cognitive theory was developed by Albert Bandura in 1986 as a modifier to his 1967 social learning theory (Bandura, 1986). Empirical research on self-efficacy has predominantly been grounded in Bandura’s (1977, 1986, 1997) social cognitive theory framework. The focus of the theory considers that learning happens in a social context with an active and
shared communication of the person, environment, and behavior (Bandura, 1996). The theory takes into account a person's past experiences, which factor into whether the behavioral action will take place in the future. Under this theory, past experiences can control expectations and shape whether a person will take on a particular behavior and provide the motive as to why a person may take on that behavior. The goal of social cognitive theory is to clarify how individuals manage their behavior to achieve goal-directed behaviors that can be maintained over time.

**One of the six components of the social cognitive theory is self-efficacy.**

Self-efficacy is defined as the level of a person's self-belief in his or her capabilities to effectively perform a task (Bandura, 1997). It can be influenced by a person's particular abilities and other personal factors, as well as by environmental factors. According to Bandura, self-efficacy beliefs are a vital aspect of individuals’ motivation and can influence the actions that can affect one's life. One of the basic principles behind self-efficacy is that individuals are more likely to participate in activities where they feel a high sense of self-efficacy and are unlikely to participate in those they do not. According to the theory, self-efficacy beliefs establish how people feel, think, stimulate, and conduct themselves. Bandura (1994) notes that self-efficacy has a high impact on cognitive development and can affect an individual’s behavior, environment, and cognitive function. Under this theory, the highest way of obtaining maximum self-efficacy would be through a mastery performance experience, which would be identified as a scenario for which a person has encountered success within a task and therefore has developed a high self-efficacy for that particular task. Also, under this theory, individuals who experience multiple mastery experiences will also develop high self-efficacy when executing a similar function.
Teacher self-efficacy

In the context of a classroom teacher, teacher self-efficacy can be connected with the success a teacher may have in a particular classroom or subject area (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran, & Rushton, 2000; Tucker et al., 2005). The majority of the research on teacher self-efficacy has focused on the comparison of pre-service teachers to experienced teachers (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 2001). This research demonstrates that a more experienced teacher has a higher sense of self-efficacy in his/her abilities to execute effective instructional skills and apply effective classroom management strategies. As figure 2.1 shows, Bandura identifies the development of teacher self-efficacy in four specific experiences, including mastery performance experiences, vicarious experiences, social verbal experiences, and physiological/emotional experiences.

![Figure 2.1: Sources of Self-Efficacy Information (Bandura, 1996)](image)

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) from the Norwegian University of Science and Technology found that teacher self-efficacy was linked to teacher burnout. The study included 244 participants of elementary and middle school teachers and found evidence that correlated teacher self-efficacy with six domains: instruction, adapting education to individual students' needs, cooperating with
colleagues and parents, motivating students, keeping discipline, and coping with changes and challenges. Also, another study conducted by Ralf Schwarzer found a similar effect with inexperienced teachers and those with low general self-efficacy. The study included 458 teachers, which noted low self-efficacy led to teacher burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Researchers have recommended that teachers are not evenly efficacious in diverse settings, and measuring of teachers’ self-efficacy should be specific in similarities of subject areas, grade levels, curriculum, demographics, or other aspects (Bandura, 2007; Guyton & Wesche, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 2001). Teacher self-efficacy for teaching students while implementing Common Core State Standards is considered specific because it relates to a teacher's belief about effectively teaching students under a particular set of academic standards.

Although teachers' self-efficacy has been publicized to influence teachers' motivation to learn new instructional approaches, to implement performance management policies, and to facilitate perseverance in the face of academic struggles, a lack of research has been conducted on the impact of policy reform (CCSS) and its link to teacher self-efficacy and teacher resistance (Blase, 1992; Brinson, 2007; Edwards, 1996; Haberman, 2010). This lack of research leaves unanswered questions, such as what happens when policy reform interferes or contradicts a teacher’s current instructional methods? What if self-efficacy increases/decreases when a teacher must teach the same concept using different methods based on a federal policy reform? Does teacher self-efficacy change based on its relationship to the complexity of the situation? Can federal education reform lead to teacher resistance, burn-out, or de-professionalization?
Figure 2.2: Framework of the teacher self-efficacy formation by (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk, Hoy, & Hoy 1998, p. 228).

Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

The Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale Form survey (See Appendix A) was developed and measured in 1998 by Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Hoy. The scale was created to assist with alleviating the persistent measurement issues of previous teacher self-efficacy instruments (Armour, 1976; Guskey, 1981; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Midgley, 1989; Coladarci & Fink, 1995). The term “teacher sense of efficacy, teacher efficacy, and teacher self-efficacy,” was derived from a study by the RAND Corporation (a group of researchers) who were conducting research in the early 1970’s on self-efficacy of teachers (Bandura, 1977).

The TSES consists of two separate versions of the survey: an extended version (24 questions) and a short version (12 questions). The survey is used to help gain knowledge of what creates difficulties for teachers in their school activities including their instructional practices. Both versions of the survey use a Likert-scale to assess the different variables related to teacher self-efficacy. Broken down into three sub-scales the TSES evaluates: 1) efficacy in student engagement; (2) efficacy in instructional strategies; and (3) efficacy in classroom management.
(Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy; 1998). The TSES instrument has been subjected to multiple analyses, including test-re-test and factor analysis which have resulted in good validity and reliability.

**Previous Studies using Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale**

**Validity and TSES**

The work of Klassen (2009) discusses the validity of the Teachers’ Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) in five settings, including Canada, Cyprus, Korea, Singapore, and the United States. After the use of multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was used, the relationships among the TSES, its three factors, and job satisfaction were explored. As a result of this study, the TSES showed convincing evidence of reliability and measurement in five countries. The study provided extensive evidence that teachers’ self-efficacy is a valid construct across culturally diverse settings.

**Burnout and TSES.**

Saricam (2013) investigated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and burnout among teachers in Turkey. Utilizing the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory, the study collected data from one hundred and eighteen special education teachers. Findings showed that there were significant relationships between teacher self-efficacy and burnout. Also, significant differences were found between genders regarding burnout and teacher self-efficacy. The study results also highlighted the importance of self-efficacy beliefs in special education staff’s level of emotional involvement, sense of accomplishment, and engagement.

**Emotional intelligence and TSES.**

A study conducted by Mahasneh (2016) utilizing the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale examined student teachers and whether emotional intelligence would correlate with teachers’ sense
of self-efficacy at a University in Jordan. Utilizing an Arabic translated version, the researcher used emotional intelligence scale (EIQ) and a teacher sense of self-efficacy Scale (TSES). The results indicated that there is a significant and positive relationship between these two variables. The study also discussed implications for future teacher training.

**Pre-service Art Teachers – TSES.**

A more recent study by Evans-Palmer (2016) offered findings from a previous study that showed a positive relationship among teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy and sense of humor. The quantitative study collected data from 354 art teachers on measures of their humor and self-efficacy using two different scales (including the TSES). The findings identified five key teacher dispositions including (1) social connectedness, (2) emotional intelligence, (3) resilience to adversity, (4) self-monitoring, and (5) divergent thinking. The study also recommended developing dispositions that strengthen pre-service self-efficacy beliefs.

**Inter- and intra-individual differences & TSES.**

The final study reviewed was conducted by Zee (2013), who explored inter- and intra-individual differences in teachers' self-efficacy from 841 third- to sixth-grade students and their 107 teachers in the Netherlands. The results supported the existence higher-order factors and lower-order factors including, instructional strategies, student engagement, behavior management, and emotional support equally between- and within-teacher level (Zee, 2013). In this factor model, intra-individual (being or occurring within the individual) differences in teacher self-efficacy was larger than inter-individual (involving or taking place between individuals) differences. Additionally, the presence of cluster bias in 18 of 24 items suggested that the different domains of student-specific teacher self-efficacy at the between-teacher level cannot merely be perceived as
the within-teacher level factors' aggregates. These findings underscored the importance of further investigating teacher self-efficacy about the teacher, student, and classroom characteristics.

Although there have been various studies (as listed above) on utilizing the Teacher Sense of Self- Efficacy Scale, minimum studies have looked at the impact of the Standards and Accountability Movement (educational reform policies) and its impact on teacher self-efficacy. The next section of this literature review examined the limited research related to educational reform policies, extending from the 1983 Nation at Risk (NAR) report and leading up to No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Common Core State Standards and its impact on teacher’s self-efficacy. Finally, this literature review also considered research surrounding teacher self-efficacy and its connections to teacher resistance, de-professionalization, and teacher attrition as a result of regulatory policy reform.

**Standards and Accountability Movement (Brief History)**

Riles (1971) defined accountability as a process of setting goals, making accessible resources to meet those goals, and implementing systematic evaluations to conclude if the goals were being met (p.32 ). Originally, the accountability movement was created to strengthen public schools and improve students’ academic success in the classroom; however, many researchers have concluded that this goal has yet to be achieved (Valli & Buese, 2007; Cohen & Hill, 2003; Bailey, 2000; Calderhead, 2001). Educational policy reform, as a result of the accountability movement, has promoted an environment in which teachers are asked to enact pedagogies that are at odds with their philosophies of best practice (Valli & Buese, 2007).

As a result of the various policies and practices that stemmed from the accountability movement, the responsibilities of a teacher have increased tremendously (Valli & Buese, 2007). The implementation of standard-based curriculum and standardized assessments has taken the role
of an educator into several different directions. General education teachers are placed with higher instructional demands, and the demands for special education teachers are even higher (Valli & Buese, 2007; Cohen & Hill, 2003).

The following paragraphs focused on the three major policy reforms that have impacted education in America for over thirty years. They are Nation at Risk, No Child Left Behind, and Common Core State Standards.

“A Nation at Risk”- 1983

The foundation of state-to-state uniformity, accountability, and rigor in the American education system has been a major political focus for over 30 years (Taubman, 2010; Linn, 2000; Harris & Harrington, 2006: Darling-Hammond, 2006). Beginning in the early 1980’s, the National Commission on Excellence in Education issued A Nation at Risk report, which publicized the failures of American Schools (1983). The landmark publication led by Ronald Regan broadcast and declared that American schools were in a state of despair and needed immediate attention and reform. The report described the state of American education as a state of crisis (1983).

"Our soiety and its educational institutions seem to have lost sight of the basic purposes of schooling, and of the high expectations and disciplined effort needed to attain them… For our country to function, citizens must be able to reach some common understandings on complex issues. Often on short notice and by conflicting or incomplete evidence; education helps to form these common beliefs, a point Thomas Jefferson made long ago in his justly famous dictum. (Gardner et.al, 1983, 122. )

The Nation at Risk report proclaimed information which placed many people in a state of shock (Liberman, 1988). Publicly announcing that over 23 million American adults were functionally illiterate, and specifically, over 40% of minorities were functionally illiterate, was
outrageous and shameful. Furthermore, the report stated that scores on the College Board's Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT) demonstrated a plummeting decline between the year 1963 and 1980 (1983).

As similar to many educational researchers, educators were also stunned by the new demands and expectations of teachers and school districts listed in the report (Pearson & Moomaw, 2006; Matsumara, 2002). Grady, Helbling, and Lubeck (2008) noted that as a result of NAR scrutiny, teachers are not permitted to rely on their intelligence and have no authority to make decisions to impact their student’s success.

Good (2010) employed qualitative methods to study the effects of the “Nation at Risk” report by interviewing former members of the National Commission on Excellence in Education board during the Regan administration. Several committee members were interviewed to find their previous and current thoughts and reactions to the report. “We were united, we were a team working to provide knowledge and change the attitudes of the American people," stated Dr. Norman Francis, president of the Xavier University of Louisiana and former board member. "We were proud of the finished product and excited to share it with the American people," exclaimed Dr. Gerald Holton, a professor of physics at Harvard and former board member. The study also noted that the qualitative data displayed that many members felt that the report was over exaggerated at the time of creation and only painted half the picture in American education. (pg.12)

Ericsson (2005) argued that every conversation about standards including the recommendations (listed below) of the Nation at Risk report should have included specific definitions to define what the expectations are for all involved parties. Equally important, Ericsson stated that the lack of attention to definitions as it relates to standards for American education is the reason that many other education reform policies have failed and continue to fail our schools.
“The lack of careful definitions usually leads to mystification, refusal of standards, and can weaken the education system” (p.128).

The following recommendations focusing on five specific areas to improve academic achievement for all American students were outlined by the authors of the Nation at Risk report (Guthrie & Springer, 2004).

- Curriculum and Content – the understanding among districts that high school students should be required to obtain four years of English, three years of mathematics, three years of science, three years of social studies, and one-half year of computer science. Also, the report recommended a focus on foreign language for high school students.

- Standards and expectations - the understanding among districts that government involvement is vital in developing rigorous standards and expectations for all students that will allow them to compete in a 4-year university and global society.

- The timing of school day - the understanding among districts that a need for an increase of school hours was essential. The recommendation of 7 hours of school each day and 220 days a year was proposed by the authors.

- Teacher preparation and salary - the understanding among districts that teacher pay and training were critical. The document also outlined that teacher pay should be directly connected to student achievement. The commission recommended that salaries for teachers be "professionally competitive, market-sensitive, and performance-based," and that teachers demonstrate "competence in an academic discipline."

- Government leadership and funding: the understanding among districts that the federal government is responsible for meeting the needs of its schools and districts. This includes resources, educational research, and student financial assistance.
Guthrie and Springer (2004) examined the sustainment of the *A Nation at Risk* report, attempting to understand if federal government presence in American education was even obligatory versus a local city or school district management system. Stating that the NAR report was flawed and only relied on the declinations of high school students’ scores on the SAT, Guthrie and Springer discovered that the report neglected to point out any positive educational trends in the minority population. Guthrie and Springer (2004) also noted that the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) is a legacy of the Education Department’s NAR (*Nation at Risk*) report in its mandating of a teacher accountability model and substantial federal government involvement. Other data suggest that the results of NAR set the tone for raising the bar in American education with its explicit message of urgency and demand (Johanningmeier, 2010; Graham, 2013; Guthrie & Springer, 2004).

Although the *Nation at Risk* report began the era of standards and accountability for American schools, many noticed that the special education population was not directly and explicitly addressed in the report (Casey, Bicard, & Nichols, 2008). According to the National Education Association the *Nation at Risk* report and many other education reform policies tend to be “misguided” and don’t lead to many far-reaching changes for the majority of American students (Mehta, 2015). Conversely, Casey et al., (2008) narrowed in on the focus of the *Nation at Risk* report and its notion that students are at risk, stating that no students are at more of a risk than special education students under assessment and standard mandates. This resulted in the implementation of policies, such as Individualized with Disabilities Act (IDEA), Response to Intervention (RTI), and School-wide Positive Behavior Support (SWPBS).
Acknowledging the challenges associated with meeting the expectations and recommendations of the “Nation at Risk” report, Casey et al., (2008) stressed that all subsequent educational reform efforts have resulted in either modest improvements or further deterioration of the system. Included in his report he notes such policies as the National Education Summit (NEC, 1989), National Education Goals (NEC, 1990), Educate America Act (2000), and most notably, the 2001 No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2002) (Casey, Bicard, & Nichols, 2008).

Proposed by President George W. Bush in 2001 and signed into law in 2002, the U.S. Act known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) was another significant step aimed at moving American education further into the standards and accountability movement. The law required that all public schools receiving federal funding from the government to administer a statewide standardized test annually to all students including those in special education (No Child Left Behind, 2002). Another essential component of NCLB was the annual progress requirement, which meant that all students had to test higher than the previous year. As defined by the Department of Education and NCLB, Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) is a measurement that allows the U.S. Department of Education to determine how schools in America are performing on standardized tests (No Child Left Behind, 2002). In support of the standard-based education, NCLB (2002) expanded the federal government role within education, which led to plenty of flack from educators, parents, and many others (McGuinn, 2006; Bloomfield & Cooper 2003; Porter & Magee, 2004). On the other hand, supporters of NCLB understood the necessary requirements of increasing accountability of teachers and school districts across the United States noting the following three positive characteristics of NCLB:
• Established assessment data as a means to drive resolutions on instruction, curriculum, and professional development.

• Academic content standards could be measured from student outcomes.

• Provided detailed data for parents by requiring states and school districts to give parents detailed report cards (NCLB, 2002).

Contrary to the above positive characteristics, Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2007) concluded through an analysis of NCLB, that it "leaves teachers void of agency and oversimplifies the process of teacher learning and practice" (p. 43). Furthermore, "NCLB narrows curriculum and teaching autonomy for teachers, and exercises both technical and moralistic control over teachers and teaching" (Cochran-Smith, 2006, p. 52). Fusarelli (2004) concluded a weakness of NCLB legislation within the equity and diversity of opportunities for reducing the achievement gap due to the lack of funding. Other researchers find that the requirements of raising the academic achievement gap, having qualified teachers and high-quality schools, were, in fact, excellent ideas. However, funding was a key element that was not prearranged before the implementation of the law (Cochran-Smith, 2006; Fusarelli, 2004).

Similar to a Nation at Risk report, No Child Left Behind’s heavy political approach for how students should learn identified little to no information on how students with learning disabilities should learn. Under NCLB (2002) a student with a learning disability would simply need to meet the same expected benchmarks (unless provided with a separate curriculum which would depend on the severity of the disability) but would have protection under various special education laws. The implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990 and amended in 2004 has been exceptionally instrumental in the education of students with learning disabilities (Katsiyannis, Yell, & Bradley, 2001). Within the restrictions of this four-part
policy the reaffirming concept that all children are granted a free and appropriate education in the least restrictive environment (LRE) as well as given access to the general education curriculum is required. (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Ehrenpreis (2013) conducted multiple case studies on inclusion practices in various schools and discovered that teachers’ attitudes toward federal regulatory policies did not have any significant impact on placement decisions of students with learning disabilities. According to the study, teachers who were identified with negative attitudes toward IDEA and No Child Left Behind policies still recommended general education placement with support services for students with learning disabilities despite the demands of standardized testing and teacher accountability. Although the study revealed that teachers overall were dissatisfied with the mainstreaming of students with learning disabilities they continued to refer students for special education services. Although NCLB lasted for well over ten years by 2015, bipartisan criticism allowed Congress members to revoke the federal requirements giving states a way out under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015).

**Common Core State Standards**

Released in 2010, and defined as a set of uniformed, high-quality academic standards in mathematics and English Language Arts, Common Core State Standards (CCSS) continues to embrace the paradigm shift of the Standards and Accountability Movement (Linn, 2000; Kendall, 2011; Mathis, 2010). This movement was initiated in the early 1980’s (A Nation at Risk, 1983) and currently has solidified into a “political obsession” (Ravitch, 2010). Although Common Core is the current educational policy reform movement (Ravitch, 2010), intending to transform 42 states, the quality of public education in America has been and continues to be criticized by many (Ratvitch, 2010; Rose, 2015).
The emergence of raising educational standards and improving academic outcomes for all students has been evident and a topic of debate since the Regan administration. While opposition to the CCSS policy continues to focus on the pressures and unreasonable high expectations of teachers, those in favor of the educational reform methods of CCSS tend to center on the national and international continuity of the benchmarked standards (Porter et al., 2011; Pearson, 2013). Subsequently, accelerated passive learning for all students (including those who may have a learning disability) and high unobtainable demands of schools and districts tend to be focal points of this education reform policy (Smith, Wilhelm, & Frederickson, 2013; Jackson & Cobb, 2011).

Additionally, the reduction of rich and authentic experiences in the classroom, teacher deprofessionalization, devaluations, and the lack of room for diversity and individuality all seem to be at the frontline of the standards and accountability movement debate. However, on the contrary, many CCSS supporters believe that tracking students’ progress through assessment data and increasing students’ academic preparations to be competitive in a global society is high priority for educational success in the United States (Graham & Harris, 2011).

Little (1993) points out that five types of educational reform models are present in current educational reform policies including reform centered on problems of equity among diverse student populations and:

- Subject matter teaching (Standards, Curriculum, and Pedagogy)
- The nature, extent, and uses of student assessment
- The social organization of schooling
- The professionalization of teaching

Little (1993) disputes the current professional development training model and recommends four alternative models:
• (Subject Specific) Teacher Collaborative Networks
• Subject Matter Associations
• Collaboration Targets at school reform
• Special Institutes and Centers

Replacing NCLB and created in 2010 as motivation to enhance the American Diploma Project, the Common Core State Standards is defined as an educational initiative in the United States (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013). It details what K–12 students should know in English language arts and mathematics at the end of each grade ((NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013).

As stated by the National Governors Association (2013) it is a set of high-quality academic standards and learning goals in mathematics and English language arts/literacy (ELA) created to ensure that all students graduate from high school. The National Governors Association also notes that the CCSS will equip students with the skills and understanding necessary to succeed in college, career, and life, regardless of where they live. The drafting process of the Common Core State Standards included educators and members of the National Education Association (NEA), American Federation of Teachers (AFT), National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013).

As a result of the implementation, currently, forty-two states have adopted the Common Core. Although the Common Core has identified standards and benchmarks for both math and literacy for the purpose of this dissertation, I focused solely on the literacy benchmarks.

The rate at which the Standards and Accountability Movement has moved through the United States is implausible, causing many districts to dismantle and rebuild their instructional and testing methods (Smith et al., 2013; Jackson & Cobb, 2011). Transforming and systematizing the way public schools instruct their students, the Standards and Accountability Movement has
created teaching institutions within the United States where evidence of standard, curriculum, and assessment alignment is a requirement. Under the Common Core policy, districts are required to provide adequate professional development and sufficient resources and support for teachers and principals. Under the new regulatory policy, schools can measure student progress, recognize a particular student’s achievement, and initiate supports and interventions for school systems that fall short or decline to show improvement within a given amount of time (Smith et al., 2013; Jackson & Cobb, 2011).

According to the National Governor’s Association Center (2013) and CCSSO (2013), Common Core has five components to the English and language arts standards which include reading, writing, speaking and listening, language, and media and technology. The Reading standards are also divided into three categories, including literature, informational text, and foundational skills. The components specify what students should understand at each grade level and determine the skills that they must attain to achieve college or career readiness. CCSS allows individual school districts to choose their curriculum to meet the expectation of the standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2013).

**Reading: Literature, Informational Text, and Foundational Skills**

Under the reading standard that includes literature, informational text, and foundational skills, students are required to read a variety of classic and contemporary literature. Under CCSS guidelines students are also required to explore informational text on a variety of different subjects. Although the specific text is not listed (sample text and authors are suggested including Edgar Allan Poe, Robert Frost, Shakespeare, etc.), CCSS explicitly discusses that the complexity of the text should be progressive in its nature so that students can advance through the various levels and gain knowledge from what they read.
Also noted under the CCSS reading standards are four sub-standard areas including (1) key ideas and details, (2) craft and structure, (3) integration of knowledge and ideas, and (4) range of reading and level of text complexity.

- Under the key ideas and details category, students in grades K-12th are expected to demonstrate a variety of reading tasks including:
  - Comparing and contrasting two or more characters, settings, or events in a story
  - Identifying the main topic
  - Retelling key details of a text
  - Demonstrate reading readiness with sufficient accuracy and fluency to support comprehension

- Under the craft and structure category, students in grades to K-12th are expected to demonstrate a variety of skills including:
  - Determining the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text
  - Explain major differences between poems, drama, and prose, including the references to the structural elements of poems such as verse, rhythm, and meter
  - Compare and contrast the point of view from which different stories are narrated

- Under the integration of knowledge and ideas category, students are expected to:
  - Interpret information presented visually, orally, or quantitatively including charts, graphs, diagrams, and timelines.
  - Explain how an author uses reasons and evidence to support particular points in a text
• Integrate information from two texts on the same topic in order to write or speak about the subject knowledgeably

• Under the range of reading and level of text complexity category, students are expected to read and comprehend literature, informational texts, including narratives, history/social studies, science, and technical texts by the end of the school year (NGA, 2013).

Writing

The writing component of CCSS requires students to demonstrate knowledge of and use language vocabulary and organization skills. The expectation for narrative and expository writing skills are evident throughout the writing standards including grades K-12th. Research papers and presentations are also significant under the Common Core writing standards. Also noted under the CCSS writing standards are four sub-standard areas including: (1) text types and purposes, (2) purposes and distribution of writing, (3) research to build and present knowledge, and (4) range of writing.

• Under the text types and purposes category, students in grades K-12th are expected to demonstrate various writing skills including:
  • Introduce a topic or text clearly and create an organizational structure in which related ideas are grouped to support the writer's purpose
  • Provide reasons that are supported by facts and details
  • Link opinion and reasons using words and phrases
  • Provide a concluding statement or section related to the opinion presented

• Under the production and distribution of writing category, students in grades K-12th are expected to demonstrate various writing skills including:
• With guidance and support from peers and adults, develop and strengthen writing as needed by planning, revising, and editing.

• With guidance and support from adults, use technology to produce and publish writing

  ▪ Under the research to build and present knowledge category, students in grades K-12th are expected to demonstrate various writing skills including:

    • Conduct short research projects to answer a question

    • Gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources avoiding plagiarism and providing basic bibliographic information for sources

    • Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research

  ▪ Under the range of writing category, students in grades K-12th are expected to demonstrate various writing skills including:

    • Write routinely over extended time frames and shorter time frames for a range of task, purposes, and audiences

  **Speaking and Listening**

  Under the speaking and listening component students are expected to present information and ideas, as well as evaluate and analyze information and ideas given to them by others. Furthermore, a focus on these standards is the expectation to formally and informally present and collaborate with their peers in a one-to-one, small group, or whole group class setting. Also noted under the CCSS speaking and listening standards are two sub-standard areas: (1) comprehension and collaboration, and (2) presentation of knowledge and ideas:
Under the range of writing category, students in grades K-12 are expected to demonstrate various speaking and listening skills including:

- Coming to discussions prepared, having read or studied required material
- Pose and respond to specific questions by making comments that contribute to the discussion

Under the presentation of knowledge and ideas category, students are expected to demonstrate various presentation skills including:

- Speaking clearly and report on a topic with descriptive details to support main ideas or themes
- Include multimedia components and visual displays in presentations
- Adapt speech to a variety of contexts and tasks, using formal English when appropriate to task and situation

Language

The language component focuses on vocabulary instruction that should consist of direct instruction of word meaning and the expansion of advanced word usage. Also noted under the CCSS Language Standards are three sub-standard areas including (1) Conventions of Standard English, (2. Knowledge of Language, and (3.) Vocabulary Acquisition and Use.

- Under the conventions of standard English category, students are expected to:
  - Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking
  - Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing
• Under the knowledge of language category, students are expected to:
  • Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening
  o Under the vocabulary acquisition and use category, students are expected to:
    • Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning word and phrases based on grade 3 reading and content, choosing flexibly from a range of strategies

**Assessments**

Common Core State Standards offer two different formal assessments including the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers - Race to the Top (PARCC RttT) and Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium. Although CCSS offers these two assessments, there is an option for states to develop their own formal assessments.

**Common Core and Special Education Teachers**

As a result of inclusion of students with learning disabilities, the implementation of Common Core State Standards has impacted special education teachers (Haager & Vaughn, 2013). Students with learning disabilities have been included in both general education instruction as well as state standardized assessments (Haager & Vaughn, 2013). As stated by the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) teacher attrition among special education teachers is one of the most difficult problems facing public schools (NASDSE, 1999). Teachers in the field of special education are leaving this line of work altogether at higher rates than teachers in the regular general education field, while the number of students with special needs continues to rise (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).
According to the National Coalition on Personnel Shortages in Special Education and Related Services, over 12% of special education teachers leave the profession every year, which is double the rate of their general education colleagues. In addition, forty-nine states report a shortage of special education teachers. Deplorable working conditions, low-teacher self-efficacy, disproportionate paperwork, insurmountable caseloads of students, insufficient support and resources, and professional isolation are all reported as causing the shortage (NCPSSERS, 2015). The rigorous grade-level expectations of CCSS literacy requirements, specifically the importance of increasing the quantity and complexity of textual content, places a high benchmark that alludes to inquiries concerning how educators can best support students with learning disabilities to meet grade level expectations (Haager & Vaughn, 2013; Harris & Graham 2013).

In like manner, to support teachers meeting both the standards of Common Core and the individual needs of learning-disabled students more focus has been made to target standard-based IEP goals and objectives (Samuel, 2010). Standard–based IEP goals and objectives are a process that is outlined by the state standards and aligns with students’ attainment of state grade level content expectations (Samuel, 2010). As defined in IDEA, a student with a learning disability should have access to a special education teacher and the general education classroom, access to assistive technology, and access to a variety of instructional methods including technology and multi-sensory instruction.

Despite the move toward standard-based IEP goals and objectives special education teachers’ requirement of flexibility in their instruction is hard to meet (Harris & Graham, 2013). Students with learning disabilities in reading can struggle in comprehension, fluency, or/and vocabulary. Given the struggles of many students with learning disabilities, and given my experiences as a special education teacher, it could be imbalanced. Depending on the severity of a
students’ learning disabilities, schools should decide if the students need a separate curriculum. Students with learning difficulties may require extended time or one-to-one instruction on a particular assignment or task (Haager & Vaughn, 2013; Harris & Graham 2013).

**What is a Profession?**

Attaining professional status has been a major part of the reform efforts of the educational accountability reform policies (Boyer, 1983; The National Committee for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985). According to The Australian Council of Professions (2004), ‘profession’ is defined as:

A profession is a disciplined grouping of individuals who adhere to ethical principles and maintain themselves to an area accepted by, the public as possessing special knowledge and skills in a widely recognized body of learning. The knowledge may be derived from research, education, and training at a high level, and who are equipped to apply this knowledge and these abilities in the interest of others (p. ).

The Australian Council of Professions’ definition suggests that the central characteristic of a profession is the set of knowledge and skills available to an individual to be able to carry out one’s responsibilities. However, according to Robert Runté, an Associate Professor at the University of Lethbridge in Alberta, Canada, the question is not whether teaching is a profession or not. The most important question is whether teachers can maintain autonomy in their classrooms under constant policy reform and school bureaucracy. Runté proposes that teachers’ concerns aren’t related to profession but rather to working conditions, including the amount of students in the class, discipline guidelines, and the amount of control a teacher may have over their day-to-day activities. He argues that status doesn't matter but having the necessary skills and confidence within those skills is vital. Teachers with high self-efficacy able to make right decisions for their
students are the only thing that matters to the success of the student, school, and district (Runte, 1995).

**De-professionalization**

Some researchers (e.g., Matlock, Goering, & Endacott, 2015; Milner, 2013; Wermke & Hostfalt, 2014; Endacott, et al., 2015) argue that Common Core State Standards and other educational federal policy mandates have been scrutinized and declared to be dehumanizing, de-professionalizing, and de-valuing the work that teachers do in the classroom daily. Described as a shift in the American educational paradigm, the institution of federal educational reform laws as a result of the release of a *Nation at Risk* have had negative ramifications on teachers’ self-efficacy, self-worth, and autonomy in the classroom (Endacott et al., 2015). Educators across America have complained over the years that the implementation of federal regulatory laws has decreased teachers creativity (Endacott et al, 2015). The ability to make informed decisions about their students’ needs and the mandate on what one would consider being an unrealistic expectation, have all been enforced by federal regulatory reform (Matlock et al., 2015; Milner, 2013; Wermke & Hostfalt, 2014; Endacott et al., 2015).

Defined as discredit of a professional status, the term de-professionalization has been connected to many professions including the teaching profession for more than 20 years (Hodges, Tippin, & Oliver, 2013; Hoyle, 1980, 2001; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996, 2001; Milner 2013). Also known as credentialism, the term *professionalization* is the social process by which competency within an occupation is demonstrated (Hoyle, 2005). Although teaching has been described as exciting, joyful, and filled with rewarding opportunities, many find the reality of being an educator complex, challenging, demanding, and even sometimes stressful and depressing (Duncan & Andrade, 2009; Blasé, 1982; Ferguson, Frost, & Hall, 2012)
Under the Common Core State Standards, teaching expertise is vital. The federal regulatory policy states that teachers should develop the necessary skills and knowledge through teacher preparation programs, certification exams, as well as professional development training throughout the school year to meet the diverse needs of American students (NGA, 2010).

Milner (2013) debates the positive and negative attributes of professionalization and describes the term of *de-professionalization* in teaching as only a result of current educational policy reform. Specifically focusing on three principles required within the Common Core State Standards including value-added assessments, fast-track teacher preparation, and the narrowing of the curriculum, Milner argues that control and empiricist views within education policy reform take the authenticity out of teaching. He further explains that the teaching profession is moving further away from professionalization and is slowly transforming into de-professionalization (Milner, 2013). Implementing policies and regulations based on students’ test score gains, awarding teaching licenses to fast track programs such as Teach for America, and requiring scripted curriculum are deplorable and hurt the integrity of American education (Milner, 2013).

Director of Center for Urban Studies and distinguished professor of the University of Pittsburg, Richard Milner also adds that the above principles compromise the teacher's ability to make professional decisions for students in the classroom. Milner recommends that a suspension should be placed on value-added assessments until validity within its measure is assessable. "In the current state that value-added assessments are developed, they are not valid in making decisions of whether students are learning in the classroom or deciding teacher effectiveness” (Milner, 2013, p. ). Also, he recommends that policymakers reconsider expanding fast-track teacher programs and focus more attention on building positive work conditions and balancing
bureaucratic pressures on teachers. Finally, although pointed out to have some value (Milner, 2013), scripted curriculum narrows the teacher creative autonomy in the classroom.

Although teacher practices regarding the CCSS have focused primarily on teacher responsiveness, preparedness, and views relating to the quality of the CCSS, there are other concerns. Many studies are beginning to concentrate on the after effects of CCSS implementation, including teachers concerns of leaving the profession prematurely as a result of deprofessionalization (Matlock et al., 2015; Milner, 2013; Wermke & Hostfalt, 2014; Endacott et al., 2015). Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2006) concluded through an analysis of NCLB 2002, that it "leaves teachers void of agency and oversimplifies the process of teacher learning and practice" (p. 12). Furthermore, “NCLB narrows curriculum and teaching autonomy for teachers, and exercises both technical and moralistic control over teachers and teaching” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2006, p. 6). Fusarelli (2004) concluded a weakness of NCLB legislation within the equity and diversity of opportunities for reducing the achievement gap due to the lack of funding.

Matlock (2015) compared teacher groups based on years of experience and grade-level taught and discovered that although elementary school teachers had positive stances towards the Common Core State Standards and its implementation, an increase in negative responses were found by middle and high school teachers. The upper-grade levels were significantly less favorable to CCSS and had thoughts of exiting the profession early.

Although the NEA supports the implementation of CCSS (National Education Association, 2010), it also recommends that to keep the profession's integrity, policymakers must allow teachers, parents, students, and the school community to have autonomy in the development, creation, and transformation of better schools. Meeting students’ diverse needs and building positive working environments require more than just the acceptance and implementation of a new
set of state standards. Policymakers need to cautiously reflect upon the broader and long-range effectiveness of educational policy reforms that will truly assist teachers with meeting the needs of all students in the classroom (Milner, 2015).

The National Education Association suggests professional integrity is necessary to build transformative schools under Common Core State Standards (NEA, 2013). However, a study conducted in the Detroit Public School district showed that de-professionalization reached an all-time high in the declining schools of Detroit, MI, during the 2015-2016 academic year. Andrews Bartell Richmond (2016) explored the dehumanizing conditions of teachers in the Detroit Public Schools (DPS) district in Michigan.

Although the district had fully adopted the Common Core State Standards as the chosen curriculum and standards to move their students into the 21st century, deplorable working conditions have taken precedence over anything else. Teachers order a series of “sick-outs,” which included more than 60 schools closing due to lack of teachers. Up to 865 teachers called in sick sporadically over the course of several months. They were outraged by the lack of salary, lack of resources, and the unsafe building conditions. Richmond pointed out that the events of DPS were simply a result and manifestation of the de-professionalization of the teaching profession, which is happening in many urban schools across America.

He recommended that de-professionalization in the field of education is authentic, and policymakers need to focus their attention in the area of training administrators on how to support teaching staff as professionals who are capable of producing learning environments at their highest levels. He also added that material and human resources are in need of being distributed properly. Grady et al. (2008) noted that as a result of Nation at Risk scrutiny, teachers are not permitted to rely on their intelligence and have no authority to make decisions to impact their students’ success.
Parents and local communities need to be empowered and involved in the decision-making process regarding the issues surrounding their schools (Richmond, 2016). "Teachers are teaching in dehumanizing times, and the youth are learning in dehumanizing times" (Andrews & Richmond, 2016, p. 2). Nevertheless, everyone involved is obligated to work together and provide professional development, policy reforms, and working and learning conditions that progress the professionalization in teaching and teachers and "positively foster teacher professional self-concepts" (Andrews & Richmond, 2016, p. 3).

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided a review of the literature regarding Albert Bandura’s social cognitive theory and one of its components known as self-efficacy. In addition, Tschannen-Moran’s theory of teacher self-efficacy was also discussed. A review of studies utilizing the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale as a survey tool was also explored. In addition, this chapter gave an elaborate discussion of the educational reform policies since the early 1980’s and their impact on teachers. Finally, this chapter concluded with a discussion of literature surrounding teacher resistance, teacher burnout, teacher attrition, and deprofessionalization.
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter explained the description of the sample, data collection, descriptions of dependent and independent variables, and the instrument used to measure the variables for this study. Also included in this study are the research design, survey instruments, and explanation of validity.

Purpose of the Study

Some studies suggest that the Common Core State Standards have a positive impact on teachers and instructional methods in the classroom (Drew, 2012; Porter & McMaken, 2011; CCSS, 2010). However, other studies suggest that Common Core State Standards have a negative impact on teachers’ confidence in the classroom (Bomer & Maloch, 2011, Youngs, 2013; Shanahan et al., 2012). Although the research literature is increasing in regards to the implementation of Common Core State Standards, data concerning its influences on school districts is lacking (Kober & Rentner, 2012.) This study aimed to understand teacher self-efficacy for implementing CCSS and the influences of CCSS on teacher instructional practices. The proposed research focused on developing new knowledge, understanding teacher self-efficacy for implementing CCSS, and the influences of CCSS on teacher instructional practices. Specifically, the purpose of this study aims to examine the factors that create difficulties for teachers who have implemented the Common Core State Standards. Factors may include a teacher’s age, education level, gender, and grade level. The focus was on the teacher’s beliefs about effectively executing classroom practices under the Common Core State Standards policy reform.
Research Questions

1. How do teachers rate their self-efficacy for using Common Core State Standards in their teaching?
2. What teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards?
3. In what ways do Common Core State Standards impact teacher instructional practices?

Research Hypotheses

1. Veteran teachers who have taught prior to the implementation of Common Core State Standards will report significantly less efficacious than teachers new to the field.
2. Differences in education, years of experience, grade level taught, and Common Core State Standards professional development will be strongly associated with the differences in teacher self-efficacy. Specifically, teachers with more teaching experience and Common Core State Standards professional development will be more efficacious than teachers with less experience and no Common Core State Standards professional development training.

Research Design

The research design that was chosen for this study is a quantitative survey design from which respondents’ ratings on a specific survey (listed below) are evaluated. The use of this type of study is to efficiently and effectively obtain and explain data from a sampled population in a short amount of time (Nardi, 2003). A quantitative analysis using the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was used to address the research questions (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale uses a Likert scale, which measures positive and negative responses in areas categorized in three different areas including: (1) efficacy in student
engagement, (2) efficacy in instructional strategies, and (3) efficacy in classroom management (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Quantitative data was collected using a survey and the added demographic questions. The demographic questions were added to the survey to give the researcher a starting foundation for the study and provide background information on the participants. The demographic questions may also give additional information about teacher factors that influence teacher self-efficacy to implement CCSS effectively.

**Study participants & recruitment**

The initial intended population for this study was Michigan teachers who had implemented the Common Core State Standards within their school; however, due to time constraints and participant recruitment challenges the study was opened up to an online forum which hosts teachers from across the United States. Specifically, the study was intended for teachers who taught a minimum of one student identified with learning disabilities.

The recruitment began with contacting the creator of the website several times via phone and email. The email introduced the researcher and gave an overview of the study. The email also requested the opportunity to speak with the creator to discuss further details of the study. Once the email was received and discussed, the researcher waited for a confirmation phone call to post the study overview and Qualtrics link to the forum. Within 48 hours the Qualtrics link was made public by the forum creator. Informed consent was obtained via an information sheet posted to forum. The participants were instructed that the survey would take no longer than 10-15 minutes. After all the survey questions were completed the participants were thanked via Qualtrics.

Participants from this study included African-American teachers from an online network which host approximately 153,000 African American members from across the United States, most of whom teach minority students. According to the site, the teacher online network group
represents 34 states and 956 schools. Out of the 153,000 educators enrolled in the online community, 156 teachers participated in the survey (resulting is an approximate .10% response rate) within the allotted 2-week period. Although 156 teachers participated, only 124 participants met criteria including currently teaching, using Common Core, and teaching at least one student with a learning disability.

Participants were categorized by grade level (Table 3.1), years of teaching experience (Table 3.2), and whether or not they had received Common Core professional development (Table 3.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Percentage of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K-2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Misc: Group of teachers who taught across all grade levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Teaching</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Percentage of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-7</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8+</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>62.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.3. Number and percentage of participants with and without Common Core professional development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Common Core PD</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown above, a higher percentage of teachers surveyed had received CCSS Professional Development training (76.6%), and 23.4% reported that they had not received any form of CCSS Professional Development.

Data collection.

The researcher used a non-random sample of convenience to complete the survey. A convenience sample was employed to represent a specific population using an online educator’s website as described below. Although non-random convenience sampling could suffer from bias, it is simply helpful to carry out because of its few rules governing how the sample must be collected (Trochim, 2000). The sample size of 124 allowed for group comparisons in order to test for significance (Mertens, 2005).

Survey instrument.

The Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale short form survey (See Appendix A) was developed and measured in 1998 by Megan Tschannen-Moran and Anita Hoy to assist with alleviating the persistent measurement issues of previous teacher self-efficacy instruments (Armour, 1976; Guskey, 1981; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Midgley, 1989; Coladarci and Fink, 1995). The terms “teacher sense of efficacy,” “teacher efficacy,” and “teacher self-efficacy,” was derived from a study by the RAND Corporation (Armour et al., 1976) (a group of researchers) who were conducting research in the early 1970’s on self-efficacy of teachers. The TSES consists of
two separate versions of the survey: an extended version (24 questions) and a short version (12 questions). This study utilized the long form of the TSES. The survey is used to help gain knowledge of what creates difficulties for teachers in their school activities including their instructional practices. Both versions of the survey use a Likert-scale to assess the different variables related to teacher self-efficacy. The nine-point scale offers participants the options of 1 (Nothing) to 9 (a great deal). Broken down into three sub-scales the TSES evaluates: 1) efficacy in student engagement, 2) efficacy in instructional strategies, and 3) efficacy in classroom management (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998)

The TSES instrument has been subjected to multiple analyses including test-re-test and factor analysis, which have resulted in good validity and reliability. According to Tschannen-Moran, the reliability alpha is .94 for the long form only, followed by .90 for the short form. In addition the reported alphas listed above, as a result of a factor analysis, three reliability alphas were identified for the survey subsections for both the long and short forms. These alpha numbers included .90 and .86 for classroom management, .91 and .86 for instructional strategies, and .87 and .81 for student engagement. Appendix A showcases the short form (which was utilized for this study) of the Teacher’s Sense of Efficacy Scale. Correlation and factor analysis revealed that both forms can be used to determine efficacy levels (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

**Reliability and validity.**

Establishing both validity and reliability of the survey are vital for quality research. Finding consistencies in a study is the relative goal for declaring reliability (Huck, 2008). Establishing the same performances consistently across duplicate measures on a particular and distinctive characteristic is critical. Finding accuracy in a study is the goal for declaring validity within a study (Huck, 2008). While the TSES has verified good levels of validity in preceding studies, it is
imperative to re-establish validity within the context of this current study since validity does not essentially shift across unique environments or contexts (Light, Singer, & Willett, 1990). Employing variables cited in self-efficacy research and having colleagues review the instrument was done to acquire content validity.

**Demographic Data Questionnaire**

To assist with getting a deeper understanding of the data, demographic information was collected on each participant as part of the survey. The first four questions were designed to obtain information about the teacher’s gender, education experience, current grade level teaching, and years of teaching under Common Core. The demographic data questionnaire (See Appendix B) also included a question regarding teaching special education students.

A timeline of distribution (Table 3.4) was created to give the all involved parties an understanding of the timeline involved to complete the study.

Table 3.4: Timeline of distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.) IRB Submission 3/17/2017</td>
<td>• Submit during proposal to committee</td>
<td>• Social/Behavioral/Educational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/2017 (IRB Approval)</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Form 3B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.) Email sent to Black Educator’s Rock immediately</td>
<td>• Emailed Black Educator’s Rock Website administrator for permission to recruit participants.</td>
<td>• Email and consent letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Phone calls made to Black Educator’s Rock Website administrator for permission to recruit participants.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Once the survey data was collected, it was held in a secure space within the researcher’s office. The dataset was accessible only by the researcher. Data were analyzed by following IRB approval 6/2017:

### 3.) Quantitative Data Collection
- Teachers’ Self-Efficacy Survey
- Descriptive Statistics
- One-Way ANOVA & Factorial
- Inferential Statistics, Results

### 4.) Quantitative Data Analyses
- Interpreting & examining of quantitative results
- Implications & Discussion, recommendations, and future research

### 5.) Results & Conclusion Section
- Revision & Editing of all chapters
- Dissertation

### 6) Dissertation Defense
- After 12/2017

**Data Management and Analysis**

Once the survey data was collected, it was held in a secure space within the researcher’s office. The dataset was accessible only by the researcher. Data were analyzed by following IRB approval 6/2017:
the use of frequencies and percentages for categorical means, variables, and standard deviations for continuous variables (i.e., descriptive statistics). After the data was collected during the allotted time, a one-way ANOVA, as well as a factorial ANOVA analysis, were used to explore the relationship between the dependent variable (TSES survey) and the independent variables (demographic questions). The analysis was used to examine whether there exist a relationship between the two variables and the significance of those differences. The researcher conducted statistical procedures using Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS).

According to a review of teacher self-efficacy literature of similar studies (Carleton, et al., 2008; Vasquez, 2008; Capa, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001), the level of significance was set at .05, which was the case for this study. The two research questions involved a simple descriptive analysis. Central tendency was measured in order to identify a normal, skewed, or kurtosis distribution.

**Research Permission and Potential Ethical Issues**

Before conducting the research study, the researcher submitted the necessary documents to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to obtain approval for the research study. The researcher received permission from Wayne State University, College of Education faculty members Dr. Ted Pedroni, Dr. Chris Crowley, and Dr. Susan Gabel. (However, the semester ended prior to IRB approval and the researcher changed data collection procedures as noted in chapter 3.) Once the IRB approval was met, the researcher used an online educator’s forum to collect data from participants. Consent and assent forms explaining the voluntary status of the study, as well as their rights as a participant, were provided via posting. Confidentiality for each participant was maintained to the highest degree using the Qualtrics anonymous distribution process. A pseudonym was used for the website. All information was kept in a password-protected dataset
file on the computer. All information collected included no identifiable information. All documents will be destroyed three years after the study. Results were written in the dissertation, presented during the researcher's dissertation defense, and saved for future publishing opportunities.
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to understand teacher self-efficacy when implementing Common Core State Standards and to understand the influences of Common Core State Standards on teacher instructional practices. In this chapter, data results of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) are presented with each of the research questions. Also presented in this section are discussions that specifically address the descriptive information regarding the participants in the study and analysis of data.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: How do teachers rate their self-efficacy for using Common Core State Standards in their teaching?

Frequency analysis was used to address research question one because the question sought to answer how teachers rate their self-efficacy for using CCSS in their teaching. Table 4.1 presents teacher ratings of self-efficacy for the 12 survey items.

Initial descriptive statistics suggest that the majority of teachers surveyed had high levels of teacher self-efficacy (Means ranging from 7.0 – 7.5) and felt very confident about their abilities in the above-listed areas.

Table 4.1. Distribution of responses to the survey questions (N=124)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Nothing 1 or 2</th>
<th>Very Little 3 or 4</th>
<th>Some Influence 5 or 6</th>
<th>Quite a Bit 7 or 8</th>
<th>A Great Deal 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How much can you do to control disruptive</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>17 (13.7%)</td>
<td>44 (35.5%)</td>
<td>60 (48.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>30 (24.2%)</td>
<td>59 (47.9%)</td>
<td>28 (22.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>20 (16.1%)</td>
<td>41 (33.1%)</td>
<td>57 (46.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How much can you do to help your student’s value learning?</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>6 (4.8%)</td>
<td>22 (17.7%)</td>
<td>36 (29.0%)</td>
<td>57 (46.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>9 (7.2%)</td>
<td>7 (5.6%)</td>
<td>40 (32.2%)</td>
<td>53 (42.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>3 (2.4%)</td>
<td>16 (12.9%)</td>
<td>52 (41.9%)</td>
<td>52 (41.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?</td>
<td>1 (0.8%)</td>
<td>8 (6.4%)</td>
<td>18 (14.5%)</td>
<td>36 (29.0%)</td>
<td>61 (49.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.8%)</td>
<td>(5.6%)</td>
<td>(5.6%)</td>
<td>(54.8%)</td>
<td>(33.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.6%)</td>
<td>(3.2%)</td>
<td>(19.4%)</td>
<td>(41.1%)</td>
<td>(34.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation for example when students are confused?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.8%)</td>
<td>(1.6%)</td>
<td>(15.3%)</td>
<td>(41.1%)</td>
<td>(41.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.6%)</td>
<td>(11.3%)</td>
<td>(25.8%)</td>
<td>(46.8%)</td>
<td>(14.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.2%)</td>
<td>(2.4%)</td>
<td>(13.7%)</td>
<td>(47.6%)</td>
<td>(34.7%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Highest percentage for each question is bolded.
Table 4.2. Means and standard deviations to the survey questions (N=124)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How much can you do to help your student’s value learning?</td>
<td>7.27</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?</td>
<td>7.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?</td>
<td>7.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</td>
<td>7.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</td>
<td>7.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?</td>
<td>7.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>How much can you assist families in helping their</td>
<td>6.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The lowest areas reported were assisting families with helping their low-performing child (6.87 Mean score). The initial thoughts were that the mean scores were high due to the majority of the teachers (62.1%) having 8+ years of teaching experience and 76.6% had Common Core Professional Development (CC PD). There were no statistical difference in teachers who had CC PD and those who did not have CC PD. Further analysis demonstrated that 6 out of the 12 questions demonstrated that CC PD was not a factor in higher self-efficacy. Teachers with 8+ years of experience demonstrated higher self-efficacy on 8 of the 12 survey questions.

Once the frequency analysis was completed the next step was to conduct a factor analysis to determine how the participants replied to each question on the TSES survey instrument. According to the developers of the TSES survey instrument, to determine the results of the survey, computing unweighted means of the following subscales is necessary (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001).

- **Efficacy of Student Engagement**: Items 2, 3, 4, 11
- **Efficacy of Instructional Strategies**: Items 5, 9, 10, 12
- **Efficacy of Classroom Management**: Items 1, 6, 7, 8

The four questions for Student Engagement focused on motivating students and helping them and their families to value learning. For example, question 3 from the Student Engagement
subscale asked: “How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?” The four questions for Instructional Strategies focused on differentiating instruction to tailor to the individual student’s needs. For example, question 9 asked participants about their ability to use a variety of assessment strategies in the classroom. The four questions for Classroom Management focused on managing disruptive behaviors in the classroom. For example, question 7 asked, “How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?” Participants were requested to read each question and specify their confidence levels by selecting an answer from the Likert-scale from 1 to 9 with options of 9 being (a great deal), 7-8 (quite a bit), 5-6 (some influence), 3-4 (very little), and 1-2 (nothing).

Table 4.3 illustrates the results of questions that focused on Student Engagement with 71.4% of participants responding that they had either a great deal or a lot of impact on student engagement (M=7.19, SD= 1.47). Reporting and even higher self-efficacy score were questions that focused on Instructional Strategies where 80.2% of participants responded that they had a lot or a great deal of confidence in implementing effective instruction and felt confident in their ability to individualize student instruction (M=7.37, SD=1.14). The final set of questions, which focused on Classroom Management reported an even higher self-efficacy score with 83.4% of participants (M=7.42, SD=1.10) reporting a lot or a great deal of self-efficacy in their abilities to calm disruptive or noisy behavior.

Table 4.3. Teacher self-efficacy subscale means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>STD.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Engagement</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Strategies</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Management</td>
<td>7.42</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.1: Histogram for Student Engagement TSES scores

Figure 4.2: Histogram for Instructional Strategies TSES scores
Figure 4.3: Histogram for Classroom Management TSES scores

**Research Question 2**

What teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards?

An analysis of variance was used to address question two because the question sought to answer what teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards. The teacher factors that were included in this study were years of teaching experience, grade level, and Common Core State Standards professional development training. To determine whether the teacher factors influenced teacher self-efficacy, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted using the subscale groups, and the alpha level of 0.05 was set. The results of the one-way ANOVA yielded an F ratio of $F(2,141) = .575$, $p < .564$, indicating no statistically significant difference within the Student Engagement subscale. Also, the results of the one-way ANOVA Instructional Practices subscale yielded an F ratio of $F(2,172) = .423$, $p < .656$, which also indicated
no statistically significant differences. Finally, the results of the one-way ANOVA for the Classroom Management subscale yielded an F ratio of $F(2, 123) = 3.87$, $p > .023$, which indicated a statistically significant difference between the means.

Table 4.4. One-Way ANOVA Test of Between-Subject Effects: TSES subscales

Dependent Variable: Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Sq.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A) Student Engagement</td>
<td>269.35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) Instructional Strategies</td>
<td>160.81</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.423</td>
<td>.656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C) Classroom Management</td>
<td>150.84</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3.879</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factorial One-Way ANOVA

In addition to exploring each independent variable and comparing the means, i.e. one-way ANOVA, a one-way ANOVA factorial analysis was also conducted comparing means across the various variables. Specifically, the factorial ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effects of grade levels taught, years of teaching experience, and Common Core professional development
and its interaction effect with teacher self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management.

A one-way factorial analysis of variance was conducted on the influence of three independent variables (grade levels taught, years of teaching experience, and Common Core professional development training) on the level of teacher self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. The analysis showcased no statistical significance in the areas of student engagement and instructional strategies; however, statistical significance was discovered between Common Core professional development and the classroom management subscale. Common Core professional development yielded an F ratio of $F(1,101) = .423$, $p > .042$, indicating a statistically significant difference between Common Core professional development and classroom management. See Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5. Factorial one-way ANOVA for classroom management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Type III</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta. Sq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Sq.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(A) Grade Level Taught</td>
<td>2.373</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B) Years of Experience</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C) Common Core</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

This chapter addressed the research questions about teachers who have implemented Common Core State Standards and their levels of self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. This chapter also described the findings of this research study. Each subscale was calculated to determine if there was a correlation between Common Core State Standards and a teachers’ sense of efficacy. A one-way ANOVA statistical test was computed to determine the differences across the means. In addition, a factorial statistical test was computed to analyze the variable interactions. Statistical differences were identified in the classroom management subscale and Common Core State Standards professional development. The next chapter examines and discusses these results. Implications for the field of education are considered, as well as suggestions for future research. Study limitations are also presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

The following section of this quantitative study details a comprehensive analysis of the statistical results as presented in chapter four. It formulates and discusses the conclusions for both questions one and two. The overall focus of this study was to gain a clear understanding of the challenges that teachers face (student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management) and their impact on teacher self-efficacy under Common Core State Standards. This final chapter also reviews the importance of this issue and the implications for future research. One-hundred and sixty-five teachers participated in the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy survey which measured to what degree a teacher believes he or she can be effective in (a) student engagement, (b) instructional practices, and (c) classroom management.

Just to review, to meet criteria, teachers reported that they were currently teaching, currently using Common Core State Standards, and teaching at least one student with a diagnosed learning disability. One-hundred and twenty-four teachers met criteria and responses to the survey were analyzed. This chapter also includes discussion of implications for future research and limitations of this study. A demographic section was also added to gather information regarding current grade level taught, years of teaching experience, and whether or not the teacher had received at least one professional development training in Common Core. This study was limited to a private online group of educators representing several states across the U.S.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were as follows:

1. How do teachers rate their self-efficacy for using CCCS in their teaching?

2. What teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing CCCS?
**Interpretation of Findings**

The analyses of the collected data included descriptive statistics (percentages, mean, and standard deviations). Inferential statistics were also computed utilizing one-way ANOVA to understand if the responses between each subgroup (student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management) on the TSES were statistically significant at the .05 level. This study was also grounded in the social cognitive theory, which considers that learning happens in a social context with an active and shared communication of the person, environment, and behavior (Bandura, 1986).

**Research question 1**

How do teachers rate their self-efficacy for using CCSS in their teaching?

Descriptive statistics were used to determine how participants rated their self-efficacy for using CCSS in their teaching. When responding to questions that focused on Student Engagement, 71.4% of participants answered that they had either a great deal or a lot of impact on student engagement (M=7.14, SD= 1.48). Reporting and even higher self-efficacy score were questions that focused on instructional practices, where 80.2% of participants responded that they had a lot or a great deal of confidence in implementing effective instruction and felt confident in their ability to individualize student instruction (M=7.38, SD=1.14). The final set of questions, which focused on classroom management, reported an even higher overall self-efficacy score of 83.4% of participants (M=7.43, SD=1.10), reporting a lot or a great deal of self-efficacy in their ability to calm disruptive or noisy behavior. With an average mean score of 7.14 (student engagement), 7.38 (instructional practices, and 7.43 (classroom management) and standard deviation scores ranging from 1.10 – 1.48, most of the teachers overall had a relatively high teacher self-efficacy rating in this study. This outcome supports Bandura’s theory that teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy feel more confident about their abilities to achieve a specific task (Bandura, 1977).
When analyzing individual grade levels, the lowest score found was (M = 6.6) for 9th-12th grade teachers in the area of student engagement. Also, when analyzing years of teaching experience, teachers with 0-3 years of teaching experience reported the lowest mean score of (M=7.0) in student engagement. These results indicated that teachers with older students might be less efficacious than teachers with younger students. Also, teachers with more teaching experience may feel a higher sense of self-efficacy than a teacher with fewer years of teaching experience. In a study conducted by the University of Pennsylvania, 428 teachers at eleven high schools in one urban district were surveyed on their self-efficacy beliefs and practices. The results indicated that teachers with more years of teaching experience, as well as more experience using technology reported higher self-efficacy scores than teachers with less teaching experience and less experience with technology (Kemp, 2002). Also, in a similar study, Swartz (2010) noted that participants' self-efficacy increased as the total number of overall years teaching experience increased. The findings of the above studies support the results of this study about more years of teaching experience.

When analyzing specific survey questions, participants obtained the lowest score on the question “How much can you assist families with helping their children do well in school (M=6.87; SD=2.30)?” Also, participants obtained the highest score on the question, “How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy (M=7.53; SD=1.63)?” Based on the results of this study it can be concluded that, overall, teachers feel slightly less efficacious in their ability to assist families, whereas they may feel a higher sense of self-efficacy when calming disruptive students in their own classroom.

Finally, the 29 teachers who reported that they had not received any professional development training on the Common Core State Standards reported a reasonably significant lower
mean of (6.91) in the student engagement sub-scale category, whereas teachers who received Common Core State Standards professional development training reported a mean score (7.27) in student engagement. These results are consistent with other research studies that demonstrate quality professional development for teachers helps to increase teacher self-efficacy and student outcomes (Ujifusa, 2015; Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001).

**Research Question 2**

What teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards?

An analysis of variance was used to address question two because the question sought to answer what teacher factors influence teacher self-efficacy for implementing Common Core State Standards. The teacher factors that were included in this study were years of teaching experience, grade level, and Common Core State Standards professional development training. To determine whether the teacher factors influenced teacher self-efficacy, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted using the subscale groups and the alpha level of 0.05 was set. The results of the one-way ANOVA indicated a (P-value) for STENG (Student Engagement P> .564) and INST (Instructional Strategies- P>.656), therefore, the differences between the means were not statistically significant. However, the results of the one-way ANOVA indicated a (P-value) for CLMGT (Classroom Management P< .023), therefore, the differences between the means were statistically significant.

In addition to exploring each independent variable and comparing the means, i.e., one-way ANOVA, a one-way ANOVA factorial analysis was also conducted to compare means across the various variables. Specifically, the factorial ANOVA was performed to examine the main effects of grade levels taught, years of teaching experience, and Common Core professional development
and its interaction effect with teacher self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management.

A one-way factorial analysis of variance was conducted on the influence of three independent variables (grade levels taught, years of teaching experience, and Common Core professional development training) on the level of teacher self-efficacy in student engagement instructional practices strategies, and classroom management. The analysis showcased no statistical significance in the areas of student engagement and instructional practices strategies; however, statistical significance was discovered between Common Core professional development and the classroom management subscale. Common Core professional development yielded an F ratio of $F(1,101) = 4.23$, $p > .042$, indicating a significant statistical difference between Common Core professional development and classroom management.

**Implications for Future Research**

The findings and conclusion of this study led to the following recommendations. Educational researchers and policymakers should look at many other factors of Common Core and teacher self-efficacy on a much larger scale and with a larger sample size. For example, among the 40 states that have implemented Common Core, which states seem to have a higher sense of self-efficacy traits among the teachers and do this higher-self efficacy equivalent to higher student performance and student self-efficacy? It would also be valuable to look at special education teachers and special education students only. Do certified special education teachers (among the 40 states that have implemented Common Core) report to have high-self-efficacy, and how does this translate to IEP development and special needs students? Also, a recommendation to support parents could include a scale to measure parent self-efficacy within the 40 states and school districts that utilize Common Core State Standards.
A proposal for further research should also support administrators and principals self-efficacy levels. Moreover, future researchers may even want to consider comparing general education teachers’ and special education teachers’ self-efficacy levels under Common Core State Standards and instructional outcome. A comparative research study could also include teachers grouped into several age categories to look to see if maturity may also be a factor in higher self-efficacy. Also, utilizing technology tools to train teachers on instructional practices strategies, classroom management strategies, as well as student engagement strategies under Common Core could be an opportunity to build teacher self-efficacy and therefore could be a program evaluation study.

Finally utilizing more qualitative methods, such as semi-structured interviews, observations, and field notes could also look at teacher-self efficacy and Common Core State Standards in an entirely new perspective. Coding for effects, such as facial expressions, common words used, etc. would allow for the researcher to develop different results and a more in-depth view of the influences of Common Core on teacher self-efficacy.

**Conclusion**

The increase in mandated educational federal regulatory policies generated the need to look closer at the implications of Common Core State Standards on teacher self-efficacy. As the federal government continues to place demands of rigorous standards on districts across America, researchers will need to explore their negative and positive impact on schools, teachers, students, and parents. Although several of the statistical tests yielded results that were not statistically significant, findings related to the classroom management subscale indicated lower mean scores.

Many teachers reported having only some influence surrounding calming disruptive behaviors and getting students to follow classroom rules. There were also multiple findings of low
means among high school teachers who reported having only some influence and ability to assist families in helping children do well in school. Research supports that it is essential that teachers feel confident in their ability to manage their classroom (Tschannen-Moran et al., 2001).

Findings from this study also indicated that teachers are not as fully confident in their classroom management abilities as they are in their students’ engagement and instructional practices skills. Even though the sample was small, the results from this study indicated that teachers with more years of teaching experience (8+) reported higher self-efficacy than teachers with less teaching experience (0-3). One startling result was that out of the 124 teachers that met criteria, 29 reported no training on Common Core. Of those 29 participants, 19 were new teachers with (0-3) years of teaching experience. Multiple studies have been conducted where teachers have reported that quality professional development and leadership are key to having effective classrooms (Hallinger & Bridges, 1997; Leonard & Leonard, 1999; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Seashore, 2004).

Self-efficacy researchers have indicated that quality professional development and training, as well as leadership, have a significant impact on student and teacher success in the classroom (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990, 2001). It is imperative that through research, stakeholders recognize and appreciate the power in high-efficacious teachers and students and begin to place priority on building and sustaining high-self-efficacy. Respectively, utilizing Bandura’s mastery components of master experiences, verbal persuasions, physiological arousal, and self-regulation through Common Core training, teachers can begin to build upon their self-efficacy.

**Limitations**

All studies have limitations. The first limitation would be due to the selection process. Utilizing an opportunity/convenience selection process could inhibit the degree of generalizability
in the results. Reported data may be inaccurate based on the views of the participants. Also, data reported from the study may be overestimated or underestimated (Pajares, 2002). Additionally, when utilizing any survey instrument, participants may feel discouraged to provide accurate and truthful answers (Trochim, 2006).

There were several limitations present in this study. Although initially the focus was to use teachers from the local university graduate school in Michigan, as the semester ended it was no longer plausible to reach this sample of teachers. Also, although 156 teachers completed the survey, only 124 teachers met the criteria of being a current teacher, using Common Core, and teaching at least one student with a learning disability. Data errors due to non-responses were a factor in this study. It was also understood that the method of using an online group for my study could potentially lead to some false reporting for the financial incentive. Therefore, this study does not represent all schools and all teachers but could be generalized to districts with similar demographics.

Additionally, this study was based on the partiality of a survey instrument. Research indicates that little is known about the characteristics of people who use websites besides the demographic questions that are asked and the information provided by the website host (Andrews et al., 2003; Howard, Rainie, & Jones, 2001). Participants may not have felt comfortable providing accurate and honest answers that may have negatively presented themselves. Participants may also have felt uncomfortable providing solutions that appear in a disapproving way. Finally, surveys with closed-ended questions, such as the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale, may have a lower validity rate than other question types such as opened-questions.
### Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale1 (short form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Beliefs</th>
<th>How much can you do?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nothing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How much can you do to help your students value learning?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.
## APPENDIX B

### Demographic Data Information

1. Please circle all that apply:

   - Special Education Teacher/ General Education Teacher
   - Elementary (K-5th) / Middle School (6th – 8th) / High School (9th – 12th)
   - I teach students with learning disabilities / I do not teach students with LD

2. Have you attended any professional development on Common Core State Standards? Yes or No

   If so please how many? __________

   - CCSS is used at my school / CCSS is not used at my school
   - I am knowledgeable and comfortable with using CCSS / I am not knowledgeable and comfortable with using CCSS

3. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

   - 1-2 years
   - Years
   - 6+ years
APPENDIX C

CONCURRENCE OF EXEMPTION

To: Tina O’Neal
Teacher Education

From: Dr. Deborah Ellis
Chairperson, Behavioral Institutional Review Board (BIRB)

Date: May 10, 2017

IRB #: 035717B3X

Protocol Title: Common Core State Standards influences on teacher self-efficacy and practices for students with LD And if it does influence them, in what ways?

Sponsor: 

Protocol #: 1703000437

The above-referenced protocol has been reviewed and found to qualify for Exemption according to paragraph #1 of the Department of Health and Human Services Code of Federal Regulations [45 CFR 46.101(b)].

- Social/Behavioral/Education Exempt Protocol Summary Form (received in the IRB office 3/17/2017)
- Research Protocol (received in the IRB Office 3/17/2017)
- No medical records are accessed therefore HIPAA does not apply.
- Research Information Sheet (revision dated 5/12/2017)
- Recruitment E-mail - Faculty
- Data Collection Tool: Survey

This proposal has not been evaluated for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human subjects in relation to the potential benefits.

* Exempt protocols do not require annual review by the IRB.
* All changes or amendments to the above-referenced protocol require review and approval by the IRB BEFORE implementation.
* Adverse Reactions/Unexpected Events (AR/UE) must be submitted on the appropriate form within the timeframe specified in the IRB Administration Office Policy (http://irb.wayne.edu/policies-human-research.php).

NOTE: Forms should be downloaded from the IRB Administration Office website http://irb.wayne.edu at each use.

Notify the IRB of any changes to the funding status of the above-referenced protocol.
REFERENCES


Coladarci, T, & Fink, D. R. (1995, April). Correlations among measures of teacher efficacy: Are they measuring the same thing?


new teaching: The common core places more challenging demands on student writing; Meeting them will require new teaching methods. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 2.


doi:10.3102/0002831207306859


ABSTRACT

COMMON CORE STATE STANDARDS’ INFLUENCES ON TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

by

TINA S. O’NEAL

May 2018

Advisor: Dr. Susan Gabel

Major: Special Education

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

This study uses survey data to assess the influences of Common Core State Standards on teacher self-efficacy. Participants in this study included African-American teachers (who taught at least one special education student) from an online network that hosts approximately 153,000 members from across the United States. A convenience sample of 156 teachers participated in the survey, and 124 participants met criteria.

The survey included the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale Survey. The survey was comprised of three subscales, which included Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Strategy Practices, and Efficacy in Classroom Management. Demographic information was also collected.

A One-Way ANOVA Model was used to determine the effect of key variables, including years of teaching experience, grade level taught, and Common Core Professional Development, had on the primary outcome variable Teacher Self-efficacy.
Classroom Management and the Common Core Professional Development subscale significantly and negatively predicted Teacher Self-Efficacy, while other variables, such as Student Engagement and Instructional Practices, did not.

The findings of this study suggest that teachers may need additional professional development support in Classroom Management strategies as they are implementing Common Core.
AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Tina O’Neal received her bachelor’s degree in Elementary Education from Wayne State University in 2006. She holds certifications in elementary education, English Language Arts (6th -8th), and Learning Disabilities K-12th. She received her M.Ed in Special Education with a Learning Disabilities certification in 2010 from Wayne State University. At Wayne State University in pursuit of her Ph.D, she has majored in Special Education Leadership.

Mrs. O’Neal began her teaching career in Detroit charters schools in lower elementary general education classrooms. In Southfield, Michigan, she began teaching special education at the middle school level. She is currently a private school Learning and Coaching Specialist as well as a Project Research Coordinator at the Merrill Palmer Skillman Institute.

Mrs. O’Neal has presented to her school districts on inclusive education for students with special needs as well as multi-sensory instruction. She has also served as a Merrill Palmer Skillman Institute Trainee for two years and has received extensive training in research methodology as well as in content areas that intersect with the risk-resilience continuum for children and families.