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Elementary Teachers' Perceptions of Self-Efficacy When Using a Scripted Reading

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

Elementary Teachers' Perceptions of Self-Efficacy When Using a Scripted Reading

Program

by

Misty Leigh Mukherjee

MA, University of Phoenix, 2005

BS, University of Texas at Arlington, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Early Childhood Education

Walden University

April 2017

Abstract

Researchers report that implementation of scripted reading programs has been
inconsistent. Although administrators need to understand teachers' experiences with
scripted reading instruction to make decisions about best practices for implementation of
those programs, little research on those experiences exists. The purpose of this
phenomenological study was to understand and describe teachers' lived experiences and
self-efficacy when using a scripted reading program. Bruner's constructivist theory, the
concept of pedagogical content knowledge, and self-efficacy theory were used to frame
the study. Eight elementary teachers in Grades K-3 from the Mid-Atlantic region of the
United States each completed 4 individual interviews. Template-based iterative analysis
using open and axial coding resulted in 5 major themes: self-efficacy changes, confidence
and lack of confidence, experiences with guided reading instruction programs, strengths
of scripted learning, and weakness of scripted learning. The scripted nature of the
programs allowed teachers to focus their time and energies on teaching and content and
less on planning, which helped build confidence in their abilities. Teachers did modify
the scripts to meet the needs of their individual students, especially ELL students.
Findings suggested that as teachers grew professionally, though, scripted programs had
the potential to stifle creativity. Implications include having teachers and administrators
explore hybrid and flexible program options with opportunities for teacher choice. This
study contributes to positive social change by informing educators and others of how
teachers perceive and use scripted reading instruction in their effort to reach all learners
in a climate of increasing accountability.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to all teachers. I hope you realize that no matter what grade you teach, the work you do every day has a positive impact on the young children in your classrooms. Many times, you are their parent, advocate, and greatest support.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge my husband and my children for their continued love and support. My husband has been a supporter of me every step of the way. Without him, it would not have been possible for me to complete this dissertation. I would also like to dedicate this to my children. Let this be a lesson to you that you are never too old to return to school and never too old to reach your goals.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

In this qualitative phenomenological study, I investigated teachers' perceptions and attitudes regarding current mandates to classroom instruction. Such mandates required increased accountability of teachers, principals, and school systems for meeting student learning needs. Included in these mandates were the use of explicit programs for reading and writing, professional development initiatives, frequent classroom assessments, and increased standardized testing (Cobb, Sargent, & Patchen, 2012). Scripted reading programs have been adopted in a number of school districts to meet federal mandates and address the disparities in reading achievement. However, implementation of these programs has been inconsistent and problematic (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012). In addition, top-down scripted reading programs have been shown to have adverse effects on teachers, including feelings of powerlessness and being overwhelmed (Dresser, 2012). Furthermore, inequalities still exist in reading achievement for students from different socioeconomic levels and racial and ethnic groups (Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014).

A review of recent research literature indicated a need for more information on teachers' experiences with scripted reading programs. Exploration of teacher experiences with scripted instruction and their perceptions of the implementation of these programs was necessary. Attention to various needs of students in multiple socioeconomic, cultural, and institutional contexts was also important (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014, Vacca et al, 2014; Wyatt, 2014).

The present study involved elementary teachers who used or have used scripted reading programs to guide their lessons. The study contributed to the research on how teachers perceived, interacted with, and executed scripted reading instruction to reach all learners in a climate of increased accountability. Some degree of autonomy is necessary for teachers to feel empowered and capable, despite administrative requirements for fidelity to a scripted program (Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). Further understanding of teachers' experiences with scripted reading instruction was needed to help administration make informed decisions regarding implementation of reading programs. Additional information was needed on how to meet teacher needs as they addressed the various learning challenges of students. Furthermore, I sought to discover whether teachers changed the delivery of the program because of varied levels of self-efficacy within the script. Although all teachers in this study taught elementary children at the time of data collection, their levels of education varied in relation to reading content.

This chapter includes background information relating to the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Also included are teacher mandates, identification of the research problem, and areas for further research. In addition, the conceptual framework is presented and key terms that appear throughout the dissertation are defined. Finally, the need for the study, as well as limitations, delimitations, scope, assumptions, and significance of the study are discussed.

Background

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 became effective in 2002, with the signature of President Bush. The main purpose was to improve reading for students in

all primary and secondary classrooms. Closing the achievement gap in reading was the priority (United States Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010). The Reading First Initiative was the cornerstone of NCLB, and grants became available to states for funding professional development and the ability to acquire new materials for instructional and assessment purposes. To be eligible for funding through this program, school officials needed to employ specific evidence-based methods within the classrooms (Sturm, 2014; United States Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010).

Because of the requirements for funding, some school districts adopted commercial reading programs and implemented them in classrooms. The programs claimed to be research based and in alignment with national standards (Sturm, 2014). The hope was these programs would improve reading, help close the achievement gap, address calls for increased accountability, and help ensure that all students received uniform instruction (Clifford & Ross, 2011). Some of the commercial reading programs included teaching scripts for elementary-age students and involved systematic ways to teach reading and writing (Pylvainen, 2012). Each lesson contained precise and explicit directions and sequences.

In response to the reading mandates from the Reading First Initiative, scripted reading programs have become a bigger part of many educational programs. Scripted reading programs are used to teach skills that include the ability to decode and comprehend a text, but also teach students to understand through inquiry and investigation, all while incorporating writing in a developmentally appropriate manner

(Savino-Garzon, 2013; United States Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010). According to Wyatt (2014), NCLB and the Reading First Initiative have served as pathways for school officials to adopt and implement scientifically based reading programs into the curriculum. These programs have become prominent in schools and are a way to improve reading success for all students. However, the impacts of scripted reading programs relating to student success and teacher performance are only recently beginning to emerge (Savino-Garzon, 2013). Recent findings indicated that scripted reading programs could reduce teacher proficiency skills, self-confidence, and teacher success (Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). In addition, scripted reading can lead to teachers' feelings of powerlessness and being overwhelmed (Dresser, 2012).

The one-size-fits-all approach of many scripted reading programs was shown to be inadequate while the diverse needs of students in various socioeconomic, cultural, and institutional contexts went unmet (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014). Additional research was necessary to understand the impact of scripted reading programs as they related to self-efficacy and content pedagogy of teachers. Understanding why teachers deviated from the script was critical. Although some studies showed positives and negatives to scripted reading programs and other studies related to self-efficacy of teachers in some contents, limited research linked the two. Therefore, it was necessary to conduct further research to discover whether teachers deviated from the script because of various levels of self-efficacy within the program. Furthermore, additional research was needed to understand whether teachers had higher levels of self-efficacy and were

confident enough that they did not feel a need to follow the program, or whether there were other contributing factors leading to delivery changes. With the top-down nature of the mandated instruction, it was important that research reflected teachers' perspectives and experiences in this area because teachers were the ones who implemented instruction and directly interacted with students.

Recent findings indicated that scripted reading programs could have adverse effects on teacher competence, confidence, and effectiveness (Sturm, 2014). The relationship between scripted instruction and teachers' self-efficacy became significant for various reasons. Self-efficacy relates to beliefs people possess, as well as feelings, thoughts, motivations, and the behaviors they internalize (Bandura, 1994). In turn, these factors determine how people feel, think, motivate others, and behave (Bandura, 1994; Okorodudu, 2012; Sturm, 2014). Perceived self-efficacy relates to the belief people bestow upon their capabilities that yield desirable performance (Bandura, 1994). Research on teachers' self-efficacy must also take into account the adverse effects legal mandates have had on teaching (Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014). Pajares (1992) pointed out that further studies are needed to focus teacher attitudes relating to "the things and ways that teachers believe" (p. 307) and how their self-efficacy is impacted. Furthermore, Schunk (1991) recognized that more qualitative studies relating to teacher self-efficacy were needed to gain insights into teachers' beliefs and perceptions.

Research relating to teacher self-efficacy in general education and physical education was conducted by Fry (2009), Bandura (1994), Pan, Chou, Hsu, Li, and Hu

(2013), and Atta, Ahmad, Ahmed, and Ali (2012), but there was limited research on the relationship between scripted instruction and teacher self-efficacy (Parks & Bridges-Rhodes, 2012). The bulk of the research focused on self-efficacy in general content areas but did not address the recent instructional mandates of using explicit instruction in the classroom. Researchers such as Dresser (2012), Sturm (2014), and Parks and Bridges-Rhoads (2012) suggested a need for further investigation relating to the impact on student learning. In addition, these researchers proposed a need for further research on teacher attitudes, time required, teacher knowledge, skill development, and teacher delivery.

Researchers examined the effect of scripted reading programs for both students and teachers (Dresser, 2012) and noted that teachers lost their focus and students became unprepared for what lay ahead. Dresser (2012) noted a need to look at the impact of teacher attitudes on student learning and found that student needs remained unmet. Furthermore, the schedule seemed to be a major concern for teachers, and Dresser (2012) suggested that time allotment in scripted reading programs should be studied. Further recommendations included an improvement in teacher skill and knowledge base in content areas. Sturm (2014) also pointed out that because teachers deviated from the scripts of scripted reading programs for various reasons, further research on these programs and teacher delivery should be conducted. Dresser (2012), Pajares (1992), Schunk (1991), and Sturm (2014) suggested that future studies should address how teachers instruct all students and what difficulties teachers might experience while trying to implement such programs.

This phenomenological study addressed self-efficacy of teachers in relation to their pedagogical content knowledge while implementing scripted reading instruction. Understanding teacher self-efficacy while using a scripted reading program was an important issue because teaching reading is more than teaching a child to identify the words on a page, but also includes teachers having necessary skills and self-confidence to explain complex processes involved in reading that can impact the way teachers teach young children to read (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001). Several factors for learning to read include fluency, comprehension, and accuracy. Although teachers may be able to teach these aspects of reading, their self-efficacy could be vastly different from one piece to another, particularly given the variety of student needs they address.

With a scripted program, the expectation is that the implementation of the program occurs as written. All aspects of the program are expected to be implemented. However, the needs of students vary from class to class, and teachers' levels of self-efficacy relating to different aspects of reading instruction may vary. The script enhanced the knowledge base of teachers with limited confidence in their ability to teach a certain aspect of reading. Conversely, scripted instruction limited instructional adaptations by skilled teachers who have a deeper understanding of individual students' needs, which resulted in negative effects on their feelings of self-efficacy. It was important to understand each teacher's level of self-efficacy as it related to the components of the programs and pedagogical knowledge for reading and understanding of reading processes.

Without the valuable and unique input of teachers, school officials struggled to address teacher and student needs. Although there was sufficient research relating to scripted instruction as a whole and there was research addressing teacher self-efficacy among other content areas, there was limited research linking teacher self-efficacy and scripted program implementation, especially in reading. This study addressed the need for further information about teachers' perceived self-efficacy as it related to implementing scripted reading programs.

As previously stated, limited research connected scripted reading programs and teachers' perceived self-efficacy of pedagogical content. Some schools implemented scripted reading programs to help close the achievement gap while others did not. Existing research showed that implementation of these programs remains inconsistent for a variety of reasons (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). Limited research addressed thoughts and perceptions from teachers who implemented scripted reading instruction. Furthermore, research lacked a connection between self-efficacy and pedagogy content as they implemented scripted reading programs.

With limited research connecting teachers' implementation of scripted reading instruction and feelings of self-efficacy, it was useful to consult the general literature on teachers' self-efficacy within all areas of reading, regardless of the pedagogical approach used for instruction. Research indicated several factors associated with teachers' application of pedagogical knowledge for different components of reading instruction: (a) teacher background knowledge, (b) poor teacher preparation, (c) lack of understanding of

blending and segmenting, (d) inadequate understanding of phonemic and phonological awareness, and (e) the ability to differentiate between them in the classroom (Moats, 2014). Finally, Johnson and Frank (2012), Lewis, Maerten-Rivera, and Lee (2011), Washburn, Binks-Cantrell, Johsi, Martin-Chang, and Arrow, (2016), Carreker, Malathesa, and Boulware-Gooden (2010), and Phillips and Morse (2011), identified the lack of teacher knowledge in specific content areas as another contributing factor.

With the many different learners in a classroom, content can be taught in other languages. When understanding why teachers were not following the script, teacher expertise relating to specific student needed to be considered. Teachers with multilingual abilties who teach students who speak more than one language may rely on translated material. Teachers may use translated materials, but it must ensure the translations are accurrate. This was not the case in a study conducted by Pease-Alvarez and Samway (2012), who found that teachers using a Spanish translation of a scripted reading program found inaccuracies in the translation that led to student disinterest and ineffectiveness. What was not shared was how teacher self-efficacy was or was not impacted when trying to implement a program with such inaccuracies or what area(s) of the program were inaccurately translated. Translating scripted instruction into other languages posed significant problems, especially when a teacher lacked confidence in various aspects of reading instruction.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to understand teachers' experiences and their perceived self-efficacy as they implemented scripted

reading programs. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy connects feelings, thoughts, and behaviors people perceive of themselves. Perceived self-efficacy relates to the trust people bestow upon their capabilities that yields desirable performance (Bandura, 1994). Those with advanced stages of perceived self-efficacy tend to tackle more stimulating tasks differently than those with lower levels of self-efficacy. Individuals with a high level of perceived self-efficacy believe challenges stem from difficult tasks and must reach mastery with these tasks, while individuals with lower self-efficacy see difficult tasks as problems to avoid (Bandura, 1997; Malinen et al., 2013; Ross, Romer, & Horner, 2012).

Federal mandates have led to the implementation of scripted programs so that policymakers' concerns about inconsistencies in reading achievement could be addressed. Since the implementation of these programs, teacher responses to the mandates have been mixed, and gaps in reading achievement persist. Research revealed a variety of reasons for these discrepancies. Cobb et al. (2012) conducted a longitudinal study in which four teachers used a scripted reading program and had the opportunity to share how they felt the current mandates impacted their instruction. However, they did not discuss how their self-efficacy was impacted. Findings showed how four teachers using the same program had four different outcomes and feelings of using a mandated program.

Literature also indicated not all teachers follow scripted programs exactly how they are written. The reading needs of students vary from individual to individual, and the teacher's levels of self-efficacy could vary with reading content. As a result, it was

important to understand teachers' feelings of self-efficacy relating to the components of the programs and the pedagogical knowledge for reading.

Without the valuable and unique input of teachers, school officials are unable to address teacher and student needs. Literature relating to scripted instruction and teacher self-efficacy was extensive. However, at the time of data collection, limited research addressed teacher self-efficacy and scripted reading program implementation. This study bridged the gap in the literature on teachers' perceived self-efficacy relating to the implementation of scripted reading programs.

Pan et al. (2013) identified several researchers in the field of education who viewed teachers' self-efficacy as a key to effective teaching and an important characteristic in teachers. "In accordance with Bandura's social cognitive theory, TSE (teacher self-efficacy) is a crucial factor that affects teaching behavior; teachers with higher efficacy tend to exhibit more creative and quality teaching methods compared to those with lower TSE" (Pan et al., 2013, p. 242). As a result, it was important to explore aspects of self-efficacy related to the pedagogical dimension of teaching reading. Although many elementary school teachers teach reading, their level of confidence in each component could vary. One teacher could be extremely confident in teaching reading fluency to children yet struggle to teach comprehension to the same group of children. Therefore, the delivery and implementation could be vastly different than another teacher who struggles with fluency instruction but is fully competent in teaching comprehension.

Cobb et al. (2012) found inconsistent implementation of scripted instruction. The first teacher perceived her teaching as boring, which was noticed by the children. Much of the instruction was systematic with a skill-and-drill type of delivery. The second teacher was from a school where many students were English language learners (ELLs) and was delivering teacher-directed lessons. This teacher perceived lessons as ineffective and inappropriate as the needs of the students were not being met, but the teachers were required to provide this type of instruction. The third teacher was teaching in a school identified as low performing. Although this teacher did not follow the new mandates, other strategies were implemented and the needs of the students were met. By going beyond the mandated requirements and applying other lessons from supplemental programs, teachers met students' needs and progress was made. The fourth teacher taught in a low-income elementary school, which was a model for the region. Others from the district would come to see what to do because they were also following the program as directed. Across the district, positive outcomes emerged from this routine type of instruction and following all parts of the scripted program with no modifications or adjustments. This particular teacher had the perception that everything was going exactly as was expected; the students were successful, and their needs were met all through this scripted program.

Although all four teachers mentioned were provided a script and were expected to follow the program as written, it was clear that all four of teachers approached the task differently (Cobb et al., 2012). Three teachers had poor perceptions of their teaching and meeting the needs of the students as they followed the script. One saw validity in the

program and followed the script as it was written. However, what is unclear is how teachers' self-efficacy was impacted during instruction and how their teaching may have been changed.

Pease-Alvarez and Samway (2012) found that teachers in California using a similar program found the needs of the ELLs went unmet. As a result, teachers were not enabled to provide quality education to the students. Pease-Alvarez and Samway interviewed primary and intermediate teachers in California mandated to use the Open Court reading program. After extensive data analysis, the researchers found that the teachers shared negative reviews of the program, which included a lack of student interest, poor student success, and inaccuracies in the translation. These teachers also expressed a disinterest coming from their students.

As previously stated, limited research connects scripted reading programs and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in pedagogical content. Some schools are implementing scripted reading programs to help close the achievement gap, while others are not. Existing research shows that implementation of these programs is inconsistent for a variety of reasons (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). Limited research has been done on thoughts and perceptions of teachers connecting their pedagogical self-efficacy to scripted reading programs. Cobb et al. (2012) expressed a need to "determine what is essential for prospective reading teachers to know" (p. 127) to feel satisfied with the current mandates in place.

To build upon the results found in the studies of Cobb et al. (2012) and Pease-Alvarez and Samway (2012), it was essential to gather information about teacher

perceived self-efficacy from teachers who followed scripts for reading instruction. With these new mandates taking priority, this study will help administrators by informing them of the effects of scripted reading instruction from teachers' perspectives. Findings may enable administrators to guide and assist teachers in meeting mandates that benefit and support students and their needs.

At the time of data collection, limited research connected scripted reading programs and teachers' perceived self-efficacy in relation to content pedagogy. Some schools are implementing scripted reading programs to help close the achievement gap, but others are not. Existing research has shown that implementation of these programs is inconsistent for a variety of reasons (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012, Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). Limited research has been done seeking thoughts and perceptions from teachers who are implementing these programs. Furthermore, limited research shows where teachers' self-efficacy and content pedagogy is studied. Limited research indicates how these programs are being implemented and how teachers' view their self-efficacy through the different components. Research has indicated several factors that contribute to this problem: (a) teacher background knowledge, (b) poor teacher preparation, (c) lack of understanding of blending and segmenting, (d) inadequate understanding of phonemic and phonological awareness, and (e) the ability to differentiate between them in the classroom (Moats, 2014). Other factors related to student learning include the failure to understand structures of the English language as a whole (Nagy, Carlisle, & Goodwin, 2014). Other research points to difficulties related to the scripts. One difficulty relates to materials in languages other

than English. Translating scripted instruction into other languages poses significant problems.

This study addressed teachers' experiences of their self-efficacy regarding reading pedagogy as a result of scripted reading instruction implementation to satisfy federal mandates. Learning to read involves many skills and strategies. Teachers need the skills and self-confidence to explain complex processes involved in reading, which can impact the way teachers teach young children to read. Feeling comfortable with the material, having adequate materials, and receiving appropriate training are all important factors in teachers' implementation of reading programs. Without the valuable and unique input of teachers, school officials are unable to address teachers' and students' needs. Literature relating to teacher self-efficacy and scripted reading programs was lacking at the time of data collection. This study addressed the need for further information regarding teachers' perceived self-efficacy regarding the implementation of scripted reading programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore teachers' experiences of self-efficacy as required to implement scripted reading programs. Particular attention was paid teachers' views of self-efficacy in instructional delivery. Study results informed school officials of teachers' self-efficacy when required to implement scripted reading instruction while meeting the demands put before them. With a scripted reading program, teachers are expected to teach the lessons exactly as outlined. The significance of this study is to understand the association between perceived self-efficacy and mandated scripted instruction as it relates to content pedagogy.

Research Question

What is the experience of self-efficacy for teachers required to implement scripted

reading instruction in the primary grades?

Conceptual Framework

The overarching theory was Bruner's (1963) constructivist theory, which

supported the conceptual framework for this study. Also supporting this framework was

DeFord's (1985) theoretical orientation to reading, pedagogical content knowledge

(Shulman, 1987, 2016), and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 2006). Constructivism refers

to the way people actively construct new ideas, concepts, or meaning from previous

experiences and what they learned from those experiences (Bruner, 1963). Teachers

foster learning in their students by tapping the minds of children and gaining an

understanding of the types of knowledge and background these children bring with them

to school. A scripted approach directly contrasts with a constructivist approach to

learning, and scripted approaches significantly reduce the variety of instructional

methods used (Cobb et al., 2012). From a constructivist perspective, scripted instruction

is ill designed to meet the learning needs of students from different backgrounds and

contexts.

The construct of the teachers' theoretical orientation to reading instruction also

informed this study. Ketner, Smith, and Parnell (1997) identified multiple researchers

who studied teachers' beliefs about teaching reading. DeFord (1985), Duffy and

Anderson (1984), Richards, Gipe, and Thompson (1987) all proposed that teachers'

theoretical orientation sets the stage for what teachers choose to teach in the reading

content. DeFord identified several orientations that tie to reading instruction; these include "words, word segments, or text" (as cited in Ketner et al., 1997, p. 213). More precisely, these three orientations are as follows:

- phonics approach in which sounds and letter are taught separately,

- skills approach that involves reading materials in a controlled way (Ketner et al., 1997), and

- Deford's whole language approach in which meaning is constructed in natural contexts where reading, writing, listening, and speaking are integrated (as cited in Ketner et al., 1997).

In conjunction with DeFord's (1985) theory, Shulman's (1987, 2016) pedagogical content knowledge theory was used to frame the study. This theory encompasses teachers' ability to construct meaning from knowledge they possess. Content learned or taught is referred to as content knowledge (Koehler, Mishra, & Cain, 2013.). To be effective, teachers should incorporate different knowledge domains. Included in this knowledge comes an understanding of what students understand and comprehend from the different knowledge domains (Koehler et al., 2013).

Bandura's (1994) self-efficacy theory, particularly relating to perceived self-efficacy, was also used to develop the conceptual framework. This theory has been widely used for educational research and was applicable to this study. "Perceived self-efficacy is people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1994, p. 71). In addition, this theory "is a judgment of capability to execute given types of

performances" (Bandura, 1999, p. 3). Strong self-efficacy is achieved through

experiences that are fully mastered (Bandura, 1999, 2006). Experiences that lead to

mastery are the the key to achieveing a high sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1999, 2006).

Those who can attain goals and skills struggle with understanding failure of a specific

skill; "success requires sustained effort" (Bandura, 1999, p. 3), and "the stronger the

perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the

firmer is their commitment to them" (Bandura, 1994, p. 3). Bandura also found that

"individuals with higher self-efficacy commit to more challenging skills and tasks" (p.

47) and often have higher individual goals. Brown (2012) confirmed these findings in a

later study.

Many studies on teacher self-efficacy appear in the literature to address a variety

of educational questions. "Self-efficacy has been used in education research as a means

of examining teacher success" (Fry, 2009, p. 96). Pan et al. (2013) identified multiple

studies that show how teachers' self-efficacy can impact their teaching practices and

influence student learning (see Sima, Harari, & Harari, 2012; Muijs & Reynold, 2015;

Voogt, Fisser, Pareja, Tondeur, & van Braak, 2013).

It was essential to identify ways that teachers build their knowledge with content

they are expected to teach. Teachers do not enter the field with all the knowledge they

need to teach all students. A gap in the knowledge base exists on the connection between

teacher self-efficacy and scripted reading programs; however, there are related studies

that focus on developing teacher self-efficacy in other content areas (Harmer, 2012;

Mewborn, 2001). Current research on this topic is discussed further in Chapter 2.

If efficacy is strengthened through mastery of experiences, sustained effort, and meeting challenges, as Bandura (1997) theorized, then it would seem that scripted instruction with its programmatic and prescriptive approaches provides little opportunity for teachers to build self-efficacy. In scripted instruction, teachers are following directions; teachers are not developing, using, testing, and revising their approaches. When following scripted instruction rather than employing their own methods, teachers are not engaging in the kind of sustained effort Bandura saw as required to meet and master challenges, which are the elements necessary to build and sustain self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). The only challenges of scripted reading instruction for teachers may be those associated with fidelity or adhering to programmed scripts (Wyatt, 2014). These challenges do not involve mastery of skills other than the ability to follow directions. As a result, teachers have little opportunity for mastery of experiences, which may lead to poor self-efficacy and frustration and may affect their instructional delivery (Wyatt, 2014).

Nature of the Study

In this study, I used a qualitative phenomenological methodology. I conducted a quantitative pilot study with Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval number 09-05-08-0326837 through Walden University. However, the study yielded poor participation and did not address the problem in adequate fashion. The research question remained unanswered as well. Therefore, a qualitative phenomenological study appeared to be more appropriate. This approach allowed me to interview participants and take note of additional factors including body language, tone, and attitude during the interviews.

Qualitative methodology allowed me to answer the research question using the interview process.

In addition to teachers' experiences with scripted reading programs, the key phenomenon investigated was teachers' perceived self-efficacy and the particular requirements of scripted reading instruction. The way people think, behave, believe, and motivate themselves contributes to their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). Perceived self-efficacy relates to the belief that people bestow upon their capabilities that yields desirable performance. Individuals with higher levels of perceived self-efficacy tackle difficult tasks differently than those with lower self-efficacy, and view demanding tasks as challenges that need to be mastered as opposed to shying away from or avoiding them (Bandura, 1994; Dykes, 2011).

Scripted reading programs have become more popular in lower performing schools and have received mixed reviews from teachers who implement them. Limited research addressed teacher perceptions of their self-efficacy while using a scripted reading program as the primary method of teaching young children to read. Cobb et al. (2012) expressed a need to "determine what is essential for prospective reading teachers to know" (p. 127) to feel successful with the current mandates in place.

I served as the interviewer and observer for this study. In addition, I served as the contact person and as the coder and analyzer of data. After IRB approval and before data collection, all participants received a copy of the consent form, and I kept a signed copy. Some of the participants and I worked in the same county, but I had no supervisory duties with them.

I obtained written oral consent to capture interviews on audio recordings, and I conducted three interviews with each participant. I asked the predetermined questions in no particular order. At the end of each interview, I thanked each participant and provided a brief synopsis of their responses for verification of my interpretation. I informed each participant of a possible need to follow up prior to the next interview if the audio sounds became unclear for me to code data. I completed member checking after coding the preliminary data. I informed the participants that they could ask to leave the study at any time and could skip any questions. Once interviews were completed, I downloaded audio recordings to a computer at my home. I reviewed audio recordings to ensure that each interview was clear enough to analyze data. Data analysis took place at my home after each interview. I used open template data analysis. Coding the data for themes and patterns after each interview allowed me to answer the research question.

Definitions

I used the following defintions in the study:

Achievement gap of NCLB: The way students perform academically across various populations (United States Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010).

Adequate yearly progress (AYP): A way for states to measure levels of improvement in several content areas yearly to meet the goals of NCLB (United States Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010).

Listening vocabulary: The way words are heard and understood in speech (Gipe, 2006).

Morphology: The internal pieces of words and important word segments, which include beginnings of words, endings to words, intonations, and compound words (Gipe, 2006; Vacca et al., 2014).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act: An act passed during the Bush administration designed to close the achievement gap in reading for everyone in Grades K-12 (Barnett-Cooper, 2011; United States Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010).

Phonemic awareness: "The ability to analyze the sounds [or] manipulate speech sounds" (Gersten et al., 2007, p. 2).

Phonological awareness: The ability to analyze sounds (Lekwilai, 2014; Maas, Ehmig, & Seelmann, 2013).

Phonology: A system of speech sounds (Gipe, 2006; Vacca et al., 2014).

Reading: "An active thinking process that takes place 'behind the eyes'" (Vacca et al., 2014, p. 23). The ablity to derive meaning and use information cues to make sense of words. Reading requires an individual to use graphic symbols and syntactic and semantic systems simultaneously (Vacca et al., 2014).

Reading comprehension: Making meaning from text (Lekwilai, 2014).

Reading vocabulary: How the word is pronounced and understood in printed form (Gipe, 2006).

Scripted reading program: A commercial reading program that includes a complete script of what the teacher is to say. The script guides the teacher through instruction and delivery. (Pylvainen, 2012; Savino-Garzon, 2013).

Self-efficacy: Perceptions of how people think, feel, and motivate themselves; perceptions of how people behave. Perceived self-efficacy relates to the belief that people bestow upon their capabilities that yield desirable performance (Bandura, 1994; Pajares, 1992).

Self-confidence: Trust in abilities obtained by individuals (Sadeghi, Hassani, & Mohammadloo, 2015).

Semantics: Meanings of words with concrete understandings characterized by language (Gipe, 2006).

Syntax: Putting words in a particular order so meaningful phrases and sentences are created (Gipe, 2006; Vacca et al., 2014).

Systematic instruction: Structured phonics instruction (Wahyuni, Fauziati, & Hikmah, 2016).

Vocabulary building: The learning of new words and their meanings (Gersten et al., 2007).

Assumptions

According to Marshall and Rossman (2016), assumptions are elements, factors, and conditions of the study that are to be understood to be true. Furthermore, van der Westhuizen (2013) pointed out that assumptions are "not on socially constructed knowledge, but a holistically created reality and knowledge" (p. 694). The major

assumption related to qualitative research involves the trustworthiness of study participants. I assumed that after informing participants about the earnestness of the study and the confidentiality of their responses, they understood their roles and approached their roles seriously and responded in honest and forthright manners.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of the study consisted of 10 kindergarten through third-grade teachers in a Mid-Atlantic region public school system. Invitation to participate in the study occured via word of mouth or email. Only invited teachers in kindergarten through Grade 3 attended, so the focus remained on children at the primary level. Names of participants remained confidential, but gender of the teachers and years of experience were reported. No compensation was provided for participating in this study. In this region, daily implementation of a scripted program was expected.

A delimitation of the study was the focus on one content area, reading instruction, which is affected by legal mandates and the use of scripted reading programs. A second delimitation was the focus on teachers' experiences of self-efficacy and not factors involved in implementing the program. Therefore, no student interactions or responses were observed. Instead, teachers in general education classrooms shared their self-efficacy perceptions when implementing a scripted reading program. Special education teachers did participate in the study when a scripted reading program was used as a primary method of instruction.

Limitations

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the motivations, perceptions, and actions of elementary teachers when using a scripted reading program. Addressing the limitations of the study allows the reader to determine the level of transferability of findings. Results obtained from this study may not transfer or generalize to other teaching levels, other subjects, or other socioeconomic and cultural contexts. Higher grade levels and other content areas involve particular content requirements and, perhaps, different teaching strategies. In addition, socioeconomic and cultural contexts may affect students' preparedness and performance and, consequently, teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy. However, should other researchers want to duplicate this study in other regions of the country or with a different population, changes in the population and considerations of geographic area would need to be considered when determining the potential for transferability of findings.

Through thorough descriptions of the situation and traditions central to the study, transferability is enhanced (Dresser, 2013). Any person wishing to transfer the results to another setting is solely responsible for deciding how practical the transfer is in that particular setting. Interview questions, coding categories, and specific data analysis material appear in Chapter 3. Although I have had experiences using scripted instruction and have worked with people who have had experiences with scripted instruction, my prior knowledge did not influence the responses of the participants. For phenomenological research, the use of bracketing, member checking, and triangulation of data can mitigate limitations.

Significance of the Study

Research shows when students read below the proficient level after completing the first grade, they are 90% more likely to be behind in reading after completing the fourth grade (Vacca et al., 2014). Results from understanding teachers' experiences and feelings of self-efficacy when using scripted materials may have practical implications for administrators considering adopting reading programs. In addition, findings may be used to improve teachers' self-efficacy.

Summary

In Chapter 1, I identified a gap in the literature related to scripted instruction and teacher self-efficacy, and I presented background information related to legal mandates, teacher perceptions, attitudes, and feelings about using a scripted program to teach reading. Bruner's constructivist theory, theoretical orientation to reading profiles, pedagogy content knowledge, and self-efficacy theory provided a sound theoretical foundation. Scripted reading programs are not new to public schools; however, after conducting a thorough search through a variety of databases, I concluded that limited studies addressing self-efficacy in relation to scripted reading instruction had been done. Additional research was needed on the effect of scripted reading programs for both students and teachers, which may help administrators make more informed decisions regarding implementation of scripted reading programs. Furthermore, results may help administrators better understand how teachers perceive and interact with scripted reading programs. Nonthreatening, structured interviews gave teachers an opportunity to describe

their lived experiences in using a scripted reading program to teach reading to young children.

Chapter 2 includes a review of related research and literature regarding scripted reading programs, self-efficacy, and teachers' attitudes about mandates for scripted instruction. The literature review includes a discussion of self-efficacy theory, the theoretical orientation to reading profile, pedagogical content knowledge, and Bruner's constructivist theory. In addition, Chapter 2 addresses literature regarding two major acts in education.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand teachers' attitudes and perceptions relating to legal mandates on reading instruction, particularly as they relate to feelings of self-efficacy. I wanted to understand teachers' perceptions of using a scripted reading program to teach reading skills to young children. Scripted reading programs have become more popular in lower performing schools and have received mixed reviews from teachers who implement them. Prior to this study, limited research had been done on teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy when they used a scripted reading program as the primary method of teaching young children to read. Cobb et al. (2012) expressed a need to "determine what is essential for prospective reading teachers to know" (p. 127) to feel successful with the current mandates. The research question for this study stemmed from the current literature and a call for further information about teacher self-efficacy in response to scripted instruction. A series of interview questions (see Appendix A) relating to efforts and implementation of scripted reading programs was used to answer the research question.

Understanding teacher self-efficacy of content knowledge was the focus of this study. The ultimate goal was to help administrators support teachers' self-efficacy in light of legal mandates. This study may help school officials identify key opportunities for professional development that could help raise and maintain teacher self-efficacy.

The methodology chosen for this study was qualitative phenomenological. Based on the lack of participation and consistency from teachers during a quantitative pilot study, the quantitative approach and mixed-methods approach were not selected. Chapter

2 focuses on the literature supporting the theoretical frameworks of Shulman, Brunner, DeFord, and Bandura; effects of the Secondary Education Act and No Child Left Behind Act; educational instruction; and scripted programs used across the United States. The literature search strategies, key search terms, and databases searched are also included.

Literature Search Strategy

I used a variety of databases to collect articles and supporting documents for this study. The databases searched included EBSCOhost, PsycINFO, SocINDEX, PsycARTICLES, Psychology: A SAGE full-text Collection, Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC), Education Research Complete, Education: A SAGE full-text collection, ProQuest Central, Academic Search Complete/Premier, and Thoreau. The search for resources used in this literature review included using the Walden University online library, the Loudoun County Public Library in Virginia, and the Google Scholar search engine. The literature review includes research on various aspects of teacher self-efficacy and teacher pedagogical content knowledge. This literature review also includes current and previous studies that address instructional mandates related to No Child Left Behind, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, schema, self-efficacy, content knowledge development, scripted reading instructions, and the Open Court Reading program.

A filtered search for studies published after 2012 was conducted, except for searches on chosen theories and the No Child Left Behind Act. Furthermore, relevant keywords and search terms included *No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB)*, *Secondary Education Act*, *Scientific Based Reading Programs*, *Open Court in Maryland*, *Open*

Court Reading © Program, *teacher perceptions + Open Court Reading*, *teacher*

perceptions + Scripted Reading Program, *Scripted Reading Program*, *brain*

development, *strategies + learning to read*, *reading stages*, *reading components*, *scripted*

reading component, *history of reading*, *schema theory*, *Skinner*, *constructivist theory*,

teacher schema/teacher schemata, *theoretical orientation to reading*, *content*

pedagogical knowledge + elementary, *scripted reading + teacher development*, *teacher*

development + schemata, *teacher professional development + schemata*, *Shulman*,

Shulman + pedagogical content knowledge, *DeFord + reading*, *theoretical orientation to*

reading profile, *legal mandates*, *teacher attitudes + legal mandates*, *teacher perspectives*

+ scripted instruction, *scripted instruction + legal mandates*, *self-efficacy*, *teacher*

attitudes + self-efficacy + legal mandates, and *scripted instruction*.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework encompassed several subtheories woven together to

support the framework. Bruner's constructivist theory was the overarching theory used in

this study. Constructivism is the way individuals derive meaning from different

experiences and the learning that takes place from these experiences (Bruner, 1963).

Bruner's work also supported self-efficacy theory, which rounded out the conceptual

framework. "Learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or

concepts based upon their current/past knowledge" (Bruner, 1963, p. 3). Together, the

two theories supported one another as well as the foundation for understanding teachers'

perceptions about the teaching of reading as a process and a skill.

Scripted reading programs include a script in which the teacher is told what to say and in what order to do and say things. Multiple researchers (DeFord, 1985; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Richards et al., 1987) have studied teachers' beliefs connecting teaching reading and "proposed that teacher's choices of methods for teaching reading are based on their theoretical orientations toward reading instruction" (Ketner et al., 1997, p. 213). DeFord (1985) identified several orientations that tied to reading instruction, specifically in the area of language; these included "words, word segments, or text" (Ketner et al., 1997, p. 213). More precisely, these three orientations are (a) the phonics approach, sound-symbol relationships in which sounds and letters are taught separately; (b) "the skills approach" [a process in which] "word attack skills are hierarchically arranged and taught using controlled-vocabulary reading texts" (Ketner et al., 1997, p. 213); and (c) the whole language approach, in which meaning is constructed in natural contexts where reading, writing, listening, and speaking are integrated.

In addition to DeFord's (1985) theoretical orientation to reading, self-efficacy plays a role in teacher delivery of instruction and student engagement. In general, self-efficacy is the degree to which an individual believes in the abilities that can be achieved for the specific task at hand (Hicks, 2012). According to Bandura (2006), "self-efficacy is a judgment of capability to execute given types of performances; the most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences" (p. 3). Shaw, Dvorak, and Bates (2007) explained that teachers' self-efficacy contributes to teacher performance and student engagement leading to better planned lessons. Teachers'

feelings of poor self-efficacy could produce decreased instruction and engagement in their students, which could lead to lowered performance and achievement.

Prior to mandates that related to the implementation of scripted reading programs, teachers used curriculum materials and teacher manuals to teach reading. Shaw et al. (2007) conducted a mixed-methods study involving 52 preservice teachers seeking elementary education degrees and enrolled in a Methods for Reading course. Each of the members completed the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile along with the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy for Literacy Instruction Scale and a set of open-ended questions about their knowledge of reading. Shaw et al. (2007) found that "teacher educators today vary in their conceptualized frameworks . . . and promote the development of the whole person" (p. 234).

Shulman's pedagogical content knowledge theory complements DeFord's theory. This theory also encompasses teachers' ability to construct meaning from knowledge they have or acquire about the subject matter to be learned or taught" (Koehler, Mishra, & Cain, 2013). Additionally, "effective teaching depends on flexible access to rich, well-organized and integrated knowledge from different domains, including knowledge of student thinking and learning, knowledge of subject matter, and increasingly, knowledge of technology" (Koehler et al., 2013, p. 13-14). According to Shulman, understanding subject matter is essential to helping students understand content, as well as being a knowledgeable and skillful teacher (as cited in Hanuscin, 2013). Teaching someone to read can be difficult. It is essential to know and understand the content that a teacher is expected to teach, which is where Shulman's theory supports the constructivist approach.

This all funnels down to a teacher's level of self-efficacy. Bandura's self-efficacy theory, particularly perceived self-efficacy, completed the theoretical framework. Self-efficacy theory is well-known in educational research (Fry, 2009). Bandura (1994) noted "perceived self-efficacy is the belief that people have about their capabilities to reach certain performance levels" (p. 1). Bandura (2006) also noted that "perceived self-efficacy is a judgment of capability to execute given types of performances; the most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences" (p. 309). When individuals achieve goals and master skills quickly, they have trouble dealing with the thought of failing at anything they try. For them "success requires sustained effort" (Bandura, 1999, p. 3). People with stronger perceived self-efficacy set higher goals, seek out more challenging tasks, and have a stronger commitment to completing those goals and tasks (Bandura, 1994).

As stated by Fry (2009), educational research has utilized self-efficay to evalute teacher success. In their 2013 qualitative study, Pan et al. (2013) learned that teachers' self-efficacy not only significantly influences their teaching practices but also significantly influences student learning. Fry (2009) identified self-efficacy as a key to a teacher's persistence. Monitoring student engagemnt, instructional strategies, and classroom management techniques contribute to teacher's self-efficacy which can help motive some students. Teachers with critical thinking skills and the ability to recognize students' needs and have the confidence to address them have higher self-efficacy than their peers who struggle with these skills (Fry, 2009).

This framework related to this study in several ways. Teachers need to develop their knowledge of the content area they teach. When teachers lack background knowledge for teaching specific content, student learning suffers as well as teachers' self-efficacy (Pajares, 1992; Schunk, 1991). Recent findings indicated that scripted reading programs can have adverse effects on teachers' competence, confidence, and effectiveness, which relate and contribute to self-efficacy (Wyatt, 2014). In addition, understanding teachers' background knowledge and students' needs might conflict with scripts. Such approaches also significantly reduce the variety of instructional methods used (Cobb et al., 2012).

Teachers will make adaptations to scripted instruction based on what they have found successful in the past (Wyatt, 2014). Cobb et al. (2012) found that the pressure and production for results cause teachers to adapt lessons, so they do whatever it takes to survive in the classroom. In addition, the all-purpose approach of many scripted reading programs is in direct contrast to a constructivist approach to learning. From a constructivist approach, scripted instruction is ill designed to meet the knowledge students bring with them from various backgrounds and contexts.

Bruner's Constructivist Theory

Bruner (1963) noted that "learning theory is not a theory of instruction; it is what takes place while learning is going on and after learning has taken place" (p. 524). According to Bruner's constructivist theory, "children are active participants in their learning process" (Weltman, 1999, p. 169). At the same time, "learning is an active process" (Weltman, 1999, p. 169) in which the student, adult, or child makes connections

between concepts and skills already learned and recorded in the schema of the brain. Constructivism is the ability to make sense of the world and all that it has to offer (Bruner, 1963). Without a precise meaning of what is happening, learning is hindered.

Constructivism is a cycle in which learning takes place. Individuals have knowledge that comes from various events. Where it comes from is not what is important, but how a person uses that knowledge is. Within this knowledge base are personal and learned experiences. These experiences come in a variety of forms, shapes, and sizes. The brain has a system in place that helps organize these experiences, whatever they may be. Once these experiences are sorted out and organized into the schemata, reflection occurs. Individuals can process the different situations that have occurred and then construct meaning from them. It is a cycle that continues with each new experience and each new piece of knowledge learned (Bruner, 1963).

Theoretical Orientation to Reading

Knowing one's theoretical orientation is necessary when teaching a scripted reading program or any literacy content. Reading instruction requires teachers to make decisions based on the skills students have and the knowledge of that content which is a key factor of a teacher's attitude and philosophy (Vacca et al, 2014). One way for teachers to know, identify, and understand their orientation to reading is to complete DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile. This profile was designed by DeFord in 1985 and is "used to determine teacher beliefs about practices in reading instruction" (Vacca et al., 2014, p. 40). This set of questions will support the study as a basis for coding and will serve as supporting data collected during the interviews.

Multiple studies (Blanton & Moorman, 1987; Brophy & Good, 1974; Leader-Janssen &

Rankin-Erickson, 2013) "support the notion that teachers do possess theoretical beliefs

toward reading and that such beliefs tend to shape the nature of their instructional

practices" (as cited in Basturkmen, 2012, p. 284). Classrooms are busy places with an

assortment of academic tasks flowing throughout the day. Along with these tasks come

mandates, both implicit and explicit, which limit options for instructional delivery for

teachers while trying to keep a productive flow at hand. (Basturkmen, 2012).

     In a mixed-methods study conducted by Shaw et al. (2007), DeFord's Theoretical

Orientation Profile was used to evaluate teachers in a preservice teacher program. In all,

52 participants took part in the study, and all were elementary education majors. The

participants were mostly under the age of 25 and were just starting their teaching careers.

They knew they would be taking a course titled Teaching Reading Methods and had

already taken a Language Arts course through the university. The focus of the course was

not only to teach these students how to become teachers of reading but also how to assess

students in both primary and middle grades. The course consisted of different levels of

reading: emergent, novice, and advanced. Teachers worked through the course

sequentially through each level of reading while reading skills and strategies were

introduced and integrated. The participants were shown various assessments used as well

as surveys, running records, and reading inventories. Participants spent five weeks in the

primary grades and five weeks in the middle grades teaching reading along with a

certified teacher.

In addition to several other assessments, the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP) was administered. The reliability and validity of this assessment supported these studies because "it measures a teachers' beliefs for three theoretical orientations: phonics, skills, and whole language" (Shaw et al, 2007, p. 231). The assessment contained a Likert-type rating scale assessment in which one represented *strongly agree* and five represented strongly *disagree*. The participants rated themselves and their reading beliefs in the five components of reading instruction (Shroyer, Riggs, and Enochs, 2014). In addition, teachers rateds themselves in sight word knowledge and difficulties with reading (Shaw et al., 2007). Assessment scores fell into the following criteria: "0-65 showed a strong orientation to phonics, 65-11 leaned toward a strong skills orientation, and 110-140 represented a whole language philosophy" (Shaw et al., 2007, p. 232). Because the assessment consisted of a Likert-type scale assessment, the data were analyzed using quantitative methods. Participants completed this assessment twice, and Shaw et al. analyzed it in the same manner both times. After data analysis had taken place, the data showed substantial changes in theoretical orientations from beginning to end. The phonics centered participants shifted more toward a skills orientation: "Twenty-three percent remained phonics based while seventy-seven percent shifted to skills based" (Shaw et al., 2007, p. 233). There was a 50% shift from skills based on phonics and one person changed from phonics to the whole language approach (Shaw et al., 2007).

Based on the information obtained and reviewed, it was determined that teacher beliefs were impacted and changed based on the interactions between the students and experienced teachers (Shaw et al., 2007). Something learned from this study was that

participants began the course with greater levels of self-efficacy. With the increased

levels and the real life experiences given to practice their learned skills, the participants

maintained high levels of self-efficacy. The participants were able to learn the material

and then apply it right away in the classroom. They also observed classroom methods in

use and reflected upon them throughout the course.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

"The teaching profession is accepted in the National Education Basic Law,

number 1739, paragraph 43, as an explicit specialization profession consisting of general

knowledge, specific field knowledge, education and pedagogical formation" (Ipek &

Camadan, 2012, p. 1207). Shulman (2016) believed that "teachers make use of

pedagogical content knowledge, a special kind of knowledge that teacher have about how

to teach particular content to particular students in ways that promote understanding" (p.

9-10). Pedagogical content knowledge is a "model for understanding teaching and

learning" (Nezvalova, 2011, p. 105). Pedagogical content knowledge stemmed from a

project, Knowledge Growth in Teaching, from Shulman in the late 1980s. "It was

designed to learn how teachers developed knowledge and understanding of content and

how this knowledge and understanding impacted their teaching (Nezvalova, 2011). Once

the project was completed, Shulman and his partners were able to define pedagogical

content knowledge more precisely. "Pedagogical content knowledge is the knowledge

formed by the synthesis of three knowledge bases: subject matter knowledge,

pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of content" (Nezvalova, 2011, p. 105).

Furthermore, "We expect teachers to understand what they teach and, when possible, to

understand it in several ways" (Shulman, 1987, p. 14). Teachers have a knowledge base

for teaching as well as a means of representing and communicating it (Shulman, 1987).

Teachers need to understand how one content idea can relate to other content ideas and

build upon them. Shulman (1987) believed that the key to making this happen came when

content and pedagogy joined together. It is important that teachers "transform the content

knowledge one possess into forms that are pedagogically powerful and to be understood

by the learners" (Shulman, 1987, p. 4). Van Driel and Berry (2012) noted a key goal to

develop PCK for individuals was through professional development. Training teachers

through professional development teaches them how to instruct best and meet the

demands of all students (Wyatt, 2014).

Teacher standards have not always been the same as in 2016. Shulman (2016)

believed in creating a national level of teaching, and, therefore, devised a test that would

allow teachers to become nationally certified, much like a medical professional. The

national board test focuses more on the pedagogical components of teaching rather than

the content. Shulman (1987) identified seven points to what he thought knowledge base

should be. He felt this list represented a "blending of content and pedagogy into an

understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organized, represented,

and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners and presented for instruction"

(Shulman, 1987, p. 8). Included in his list of knowledge base factors were:

- "content knowledge" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

- "general pedagogical knowledge" particularly to "these broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

- "curriculum knowledge with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as 'tools of the trade' for teachers" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

- "pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their special form of professional understanding" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8)

- "knowledge of learners and their characteristics" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8)

- "knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8), and

- "knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

The expectation is not that every teacher knows the content to the extent that one would expect. As Shulman (1987) explained:

> The key to distinguishing the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge one possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by the students. (p. 15)

Good pedagogy skills include planning, effective teaching methods, evaluating lessons, and working with groups and in groups, which allow for wait time for student responses and providing quick feedback to students (Depaepe, Verschaffel, & Kelchtermans, 2013). Other skills to consider include differentiated instruction, providing demonstrations, as well as reinforcement opportunities for skills and concepts learned (Shulman, 1987; Nezvalova, 2011).

There are several levels of PCK. The general level (level 1), "implied that an experienced or expert teacher with general PCK would have a sound understanding of pedagogical concepts" (Nezvalova, 2011, p. 107). General PCK is different from the pedagogical strategies previously listed. The second level is specific to the content area and subject; hence, its name is subject-specific PCK. The third level is "domain-specific and focuses on different domains or subject matters within a particular discipline" (Nezvalova, 2011, p. 107). The fourth and final level is topic specific. These four levels influence teaching standards and performance.

Self-Efficacy

Mastery experiences with strong self-efficacy appeard in a qualitative study conducted by Fry (2009). The study involved following four teachers over the course of three years and watched as they transitioned from a new teacher to a novice teacher. Fry served as their mentor teacher in their last semester while attending the same college. All four teachers were colleagues at a local university and enrolled in the required methods courses at the same time and together. The four teachers had different experiences

throughout the process of the study despite their participation in the same teacher preparation program and involvement in the same courses.

Each of the four teachers had something different to say about their experience from their first year to the subsequent years (Fry, 2009). After student teaching in kindergarten, the first teacher went on to teach three more years in kindergarten and expressed that the transition from year one to year two was seamless. Credit was given to the student teacher for making the transition so smooth. The second teacher was a second grade teacher at first, but changed to first grade teacher for the two subsequent years but also had experience teaching six graders during the student teaching experience. Adjusting the curriculum for younger students allowed for professional development opportunities in math instruction and intervention to take place. The third teacher began teaching fifth grade and did student teaching in second grade. This individual's transition was difficult to make and struggles to adapt the curriculum to younger students surfaced. The fourth teacher student taught in kindergarten but started teaching as a first grade teacher. Much like the previous teacher, this teacher found the transition difficult and took blame for the lack of drive during the student teaching experience. The two teachers with smoother transitions and higher self-efficacy remained in the teaching profession. Teachers three and four who seemed to have a more difficult time transitioning did not return to teaching after their second year.

As seen in Fry's (2009) study, individuals with stronger self-efficacy have different approaches to skills and tasks as do those with a weak sense of self-efficacy. As Bandura (1994) noted, "People with this assurance . . . approach difficult tasks as

challenges to be mastered rather than as a threat" (p. 1) to avoid; in addition, " they set

themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitments to them" (p. 1). The two

teachers who completed Fry's study showed a stronger sense of self-efficacy than did the

other two.

Bandura (1994) identified four primary sources of self-efficacy, later confirmed

by Brown (2012). As explained earlier, a high sense of self-efficacy is attained through

mastery of various experiences (Bandura, 1994). When individuals doubt their skills and

capabilities, they often step back from complex tasks and consider them a personal threat

instead of opportunities for growth and success. Individuals who are successful in certain

tasks attain greater points of self-efficacy than do those who are not successful or avoid

tasks altogether. Those who struggle with tasks and give up, miss the opportunity to

develop their efficacy. They give up too quickly, as did the fourth teacher in the study by

Fry (2009), and they lose faith and confidence in themselves.

The second way for individuals to build higher levels of self-efficacy is by

watching other individuals be successful and having positive role models. By being

surrounded by role models who are successful, regardless of the efforts put forth,

individuals obtain higher levels of self-efficacy and keep them in place. When people

become surrounded by role models that tend not be successful most of the time, their

levels of self-efficacy will begin to fall as well.

The third way Bandura (1994) identified for individual to obtain high levels of

self-efficacy is through persuasion. Bandura noted that when individuals decide they are

capable of achieving higher standards of success, they tend to attack the task with greater

effort than if they decided they could not do it. Bandura pointed out, "They [individuals] promote the development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy" (1994, p. 3). The fourth and final "way to promote high self-efficacy is to reduce people's stress reactions and alter their negative emotional proclivities and misinterpretations of their physical states" (Bandura, 1994, p. 4).

Self-efficacy has been shown to relate to an individual's sense of accomplishment and performance (Bandura, 1994; Fry, 2009). Self-efficacy theory allows a way to explore ways that teachers' confidence and self-assessment affect their performance and their instructional practices in light of current educational mandates and the use of scripted reading programs. Self-efficacy is created through mastery, the influence of role models, persuasion, and the altering of negative emotional states. Because of the proscriptive nature, scripted reading programs often leave little to no room for individual teachers to meet challenges or display mastery of skills and knowledge. Top-down, scripted reading programs, in addition to the requirements of federal mandates, have been shown to have adverse effects on teachers, effects that include feelings of powerlessness and being overwhelmed (Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Furthermore, the power of Bandura's self-efficacy theory is there is a greater possibility of change because it integrates beliefs from individuals (Shroyer et al., 2014).

Literature Review Related to Key Concepts

The following section reviews key variables and concepts related to this study and includes instructional mandates, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, schema,

self-efficacy, knowledge development, scripted reading instruction, the Open Court

Reading program, and teacher attitudes.

Instructional Mandates

A problem exists in public education as it relates to reading programs used in

elementary schools. Recent instructional mandates have forced schools to work toward

closing the achievement gap in reading as directed by NCLB 2002. According to NCLB,

the aim is to have all children read well while in school. To do this, NCLB allowed for

support to be given to states so that they could incorportate scientifically-based reading

programs and promote reading success (United States Department of Education Office of

Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010). Fewer than half of fourth graders

in the United States fail to meet basic reading achievement levels (Aud, Hussar, Johnson,

Kena, Roth, Manning, Wang, & Zhang, 2012).

Public schools adopted Open Court Reading, Spalding, and Reading First as a

method of reading instruction. These programs are elementary basal reading programs

designed for grades K-6 and provide instructional materials to teach decoding,

comprehension, and writing. In addition, these programs provide a script outlining

content, exact order, and how much time allotted for each task. Teachers adhere to these

instructions making no adjustments along the way (Pylvainen, 2012).

Districts, particularly in the Mid-Atlantic States, which use these programs,

require a language arts block of at least 90 minutes a day (USDOE, 2009). In northern

Maryland, new teachers are provided a week-long training through the county for which

they work. However, veteran teachers are expected to do what they have done in the past

and figure things out as they go. Consistency is lacking regarding implementing scripted programs for reading instruction. Both veteran and novice teachers veer from the program; when veering from the script, each student receives instruction at his or her level that then meets his or her needs (Wyatt, 2014).

The problem is impacting the students in the classroom and the teachers. A single program is not designed to meet the diversity of learning styles in a classroom (Wyatt, 2014). The students are affected because they are rushed through a one-size-fits-all type of instruction. Although such programs may naturally allow a teacher to differentiate the instructions provided, training is essential so teachers can adequately teach students (Wyatt, 2014).

I conducted a pilot study, IRB #09-05-08-0326837, in which I surveyed teachers about their perceptions of using such a program. The study showed that teachers, both novice and veteran, veered from the program, or did not follow it as written, and lacked proper training for implementing the program correctly. Much like the pilot study results, research shows that experienced teachers, as well as inexperienced teachers, deviate from the script as well (Wyatt, 2014). Pylvainen (2012) noted when there is a lack of teacher buy in, problems arise. Furthermore, teachers tend to veer away from the program when they feel it is not the right choice and are forced to use the program they do not buy into (Pylvainen, 2012). These programs can be successful, but consideration of proper implementation as well as the ability to adjust the program because of student needs. In 2010, The National Assessment of Education Progress reported "approximately 38% of 4th graders and 26% of 8th graders fail to meet basic reading performance standards."

Moreover, "early reading failure tends to . . . become even more pronounced through

school" (Meeks, Martinez, & Pienta, 2014, p. 105). Those who struggle with early

reading continue to struggle through upper grades. Furthermore, "75% of students who

struggle with reading in third grade will continue to read poorly throughout high school"

(Meeks, Martinez, & Pienta, 2014, p. 105).

Elementary and Secondary Education Act

Lyndon B. Johnson's State of the Union Address of 1965 was critical to education

because this was when educational funding began to take shape. Johnson proposed a shift

in education that would ensure every child a great education across the nation. In

Johnson's speech, he devoted money to preschool programs that would excite children

for the learning process. For children in primary and secondary schools, he focused his

attention to providing families with lower incomes and assistance for public and private

educational opportunities (Gamson, McDermott, & Reed, 2015).

When it came to education, the vision and progress George H. W. Bush, the 43rd

President, envision was much like that of his predecessors. Unfortunately, slow

progression occurred but not in the first two years of his term. Administration changes

took place, and the education system began to change. Bush Sr. presented his version of

America 2000. However, his effort to support standards and testing across the country

was a success and helped Clinton during his administration.

The United States realized a new insight to expectations of the fundamentals of

reading and all that takes place when learning to read. This all lead to the signing of the

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, which was a reauthorization of the

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Duckworth, 2012). President Bush outlined higher expectations for public schools when he spoke in January 2001. NCLB was a new document with many more demands, expectations, and accountability standards for schools across the county. In addition to the stipulations of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act already in place, NCLB included a few new focuses such as Title I funding, student proficiency in reading and math, and highly qualified teachers (Duckworth, 2012; United States Department of Education, Office of Printing, 2010).

Although all children can learn, President Bush focused his attention on creating opportunities for learning. He continued by saying, "Seventy percent of inner city fourth graders are unable to read at a basic level on national reading tests" (United States Department of Education, Office of the Secretary, 2000, p. 1). The NCLB Act of 2001 was created to close the achievement gap, particularly with reading, for all students enrolled in public education and in grades K-12 (United States Department of Education Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2010). In 2016, some schools were still working to narrow the achievement gap particularly in the content of readings directed by NCLB 2002.

At the time of data collection, the act continued to be criticized. However, this literature review focused on some scientifically-based reading programs that stemmed from the passing of NCLB. Scientifically-based reading programs are programs used to teach reading and the skills associated with learning to read. The key pieces are woven together thus eliminating the need to teach skills in isolation, which allow students to understand meanings and the rules of grammar (Moats, 2014).

Although NCLB had excellent intentions, many problems existed. Some of these issues stemmed from instructional delivery, especially in literacy. During the data collection period, NCLB allowed for lower standards, allowed for a single type of intervention, and failed to acknowledge and recognize growth from students or the school (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012; Lowery, 2010; U.S. DOE, 2001). As part of NCLB, the Reading First Initiative was created. This portion of NCLB was designed to target younger children and to ensure everyone could read proficiently after completing third grade (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012). Furthermore, the Reading First Initiative demanded that beginning reading instruction included the practices scientifically validated by the National Reading Panel, which included explicit and systematic (a) instruction of phonemic awareness, (b) phonics instruction, (c) instruction to develop reading fluency, (d) vocabulary instruction, and (e) teaching of reading comprehension strategies (Cummins, 2012).

The Reading First initiative benefits every state and holds every state accountable. However, each state follows an application process for approval, and the Department of Education determines if states have fulfilled the proper requirements for funding. States not approved for initial funding can resubmit their application with necessary changes. If these changes occur or the state does not resubmit the application, the funds are redirected to other states, which is a problem. Although the criteria for an evaluation are quite extensive, states that do not receive funding struggle with meeting the academic needs of every student.

To meet the expectations of NCLB, adequately yearly progress is measured (U. S. Department of Education, 2002). Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) comes from student success measured by student achievement on standardized tests. As a result, reading instruction has become a primary focus. This phenomenological study focused on teachers' perceptions of using a scripted reading program when teaching young children. The literature review examined past and present studies relating to reading and reading instruction. Also included in this study are models for teaching reading skills, processes of learning to read, and the current state of reading instruction in public school systems.

Schema, Self-Efficacy, and Knowledge Development

When working to improve teachers' self-efficacy toward instruction, it is critical to understand how much content the teacher already understands, feels comfortable with, and knows. According to schema theory, the human brain works like a filing system. With each new experience, a new folder, or a new schema, is created. These schemata then expand based on new experiences or are left behind if no new experiences occur. For teachers, maintaining high levels of self-efficacy comes available resources and opportunities to add to content schema. The principle guides the process of interpretation, and input flows into a current schema (Liu, 2015).

In 1932, schema theory was first defined by Bartlett, "a follower of Gestalt psychology" but it was not termed schema theory until many years later in reading by Rumelhalt (An, 2013, p. 130). Schema theory was not originally associated with reading, but general knowledge and was the structure used to understand knowledge. Knowledge does not provide a meaning for schema; however, a piece of text does as individual's

associate meaning with what they know and relate it to what they read. Once a connection emerges with an experience, understanding of the material took place. He identified schema as the organization of the experiences learned (An, 2013). Organization for reading is organized in a top down method in which the most important information can be found at the bottom of the hierarchy. According to An (2013), "comprehending a text is an interactive process between the readers' background knowledge and the text" (p. 130).

When teachers lack the schemata necessary to teach the content, problems could arise. They could struggle with the building of the student schema or even teach the content effectively. While students are busy creating and adding to their internal filing system, various strategies can be used to help build teacher schemata. Teachers must add content to their schemata as well. Teachers lack necessary knowledge needed to teach (Stran, Sinelnikov, & Woodruff, 2012). Some teachers lack this knowledge but must gather the information somewhere effectively to teach content to young children. Some teachers lack the ability to teach reading and spelling because of a lack of proper training. Furthermore, these teachers do not have a strong foundation of phonology and structure of the English language (Kennedy, 2013; Carreker et al., 2010; Cash, Cabell, Hamre, DeCoster, & Pianta, 2015; Moats, 2014). Limited research exists on teacher schema for content outside of math, science, and technology; furthermore, there has been an increase in understanding of teacher knowledge as it relates to basic language concepts (Washburn et al., 2016). "All teachers of reading should have thorough knowledge of the phonemes, syllables, and morphemes, so they can provide the most appropriate reading instruction"

(Carreker et al., 2010, p. 156). Holt, Young, Larsen, and Mollner (2015) noted that

Shulman (1987) identified Pedagogical Content Knowledge as the base for teaching

content. This theory is predominately found in math, science, and technology disciplines.

However, the general premise of the theory can be applied to literacy and learning how to

develop teacher's knowledge of other content areas.

Adults have their schema system already in place and have different life

experiences that connect and relate to a variety of topics. When teaching young children

different subject matter, it is important that teachers have a well-developed schema for

reading instruction, so they can help students build a schema for reading. Sometimes

teachers do not have this schema in place, and teaching content can be difficult. Several

studies occur that foster growth in teacher schema in content areas with which they are

less familiar (van Aalderen-Smeets, 2012; Hanuscin, 2013).

Self-Efficacy and Schema

Sandra van Aalderen-Smeets' (2012) investigation of teacher attitudes towards

science highlighted a study of preservice teacher confidence and schema with elementary

science content. In the particular study, participants enrolled in a methods course for

learning about elementary science, 70 preservice teachers participated in the qualitative

study but had little knowledge relating to the content area they were expected to teach. To

develop their schema and their confidence on this particular topic, the teachers

participated in a course that fostered hands-on types of learning environment for the 15-

week course. Teachers participated in a particular type of learning in which quick

feedback was provided throughout the course of the semester in which enrollment took

place (van Aalderen-Smeets, 2012). They had opportunities to return to any activity throughout the week to ensure content knowledge was mastered. After the study, individuals expressed that the hands-on activities and group discussions really helped build knowledge and confidence for content they were less familiar less confident in teaching (van Aalderen-Smeets, 2012).

Carreker et al. (2010) conducted two different qualitative studies with preservice and novice teachers. Professional development was a part of both studies. In study one, a number of teachers took a college level reading course. In one study, 36 preservice teachers and 38 novice teachers, including general and special education teachers, participated in this course. During the study, both sets of teachers were given a set of literacy tasks to complete based on their level of current knowledge of literacy based skills. The first part of this study required teachers to identify and then count phonemes, syllables, and morphemes of given words. Once completed, the teachers identified appropriate activities used during literacy instruction, in which they completed the Spelling Instruction Assessment (Nagy et al., 2014). During this assessment, the teachers were asked to identify spelling errors commonly seen. "Teachers who are skilled in phonemic awareness can heighten students' awareness of phonemes in words and facilitate students' subsequent assignment of orthographic patterns to those phonemes" (Carreker et al., 2010, para. 24). This study showed preservice teachers or novice teachers had a thorough knowledge of phonemes. The novice teachers who were attending this course had overall better scores when it came to identifying phonemes and spelling activities. In addition, novice teachers enrolled in this course were able to identify

activities better suitable for students struggling with spelling compared to preservice teachers.

In a second study by Carreker et al. (2010), participants consisted of teachers attending professional development courses. This study used the same 38 novice teachers from the first study, but these teachers chose not to be invovled in the professional developmnet opportunities designed to aide in literacy instruction improvement. In addition to the 38 novice teachers, an additional 158 in-service teachers were involved in the study. In contrast to the 38 novice teachers attending, the additional 158 teachers attended various professional development opportunities to improve their knowledge of literacy instruction. The amount of professional development did vary among the participants. The breakdown by Carreker et al. (2010) follows:

- 56 general education teachers participated and attended 30 hours of PD.
- 66 special education/dyslexia teachers participated and attended 60 hours of PD.
- 36 teachers taught the information learned in on 60-hour summer session and attended 60 more hours the next summer.

These teachers were observed and received feedback from the instructors of the professional development opportunities. Everyone completed the same activities as those in the first study. The results showed "greater teacher knowledge and identification of appropriate activities were related to the number of hours of professional development completed" (Carreker et al., 2010, p. 155).

Teachers must not only understand subject matter, particularly that of the Nature of Science (NOS) and pedagogy but must be able to transform such understandings

within their teaching practice so their students can conceptualize new ideas (Hanuscin,

2013). The narrative inquiry by Hanuscin (2013), consisted of an elementary school

teacher's experience of the Nature of Science content. The purpose was to take note of

key expereinces while improving and developing her PCK towards the NOS content. The

theoretical framework for this particular study centered on Shulman's pedagogical

content knowledge (PCK) theory. "PCK is what makes possible the transformation of

disciplinary content into forms that are accessible and attainable by students [and]

represents the synthesis of teachers' knowledge of both subject matter and pedagogy"

(Hanuscin, 2013, p. 936). In addition, it:

> involves a dramatic shift in teachers' understanding from being able to
>
> comprehend ssubject matter for themselves, to becoming able to elucidate subject
>
> matter in new ways, reorganize and partition it, clothe it in activities and
>
> emotions, in metaphors and exercise, and in examples and demonstrations, so that
>
> it can be grasped by students. (Hanuscin, 2013, p. 936)

Hanuscin (2013) narrative inquiry study focused on Jane's desire to continue her

education through a post-baccalaureate program in which she would obtain a teaching

certificate for NOS content. Jane had a knowledge base of the NOS content, as her

husband was a scientist. Jane's amount of knowledge on the content was more than that

of her peers, and she desired to learn more to be able to teach the content on a regular

basis. Throughout the study, Jane participated in various discussion groups, answered

questions, read literature, planned and co-taught professional development for other

teachers, and eventually took over as a third grade teacher teaching the NOS content.

Data collection throughout the study came from various methods. Not only was the author of the study also served as her mentor during the process, and was able to gather data throughout her methods course, materials she used during her teaching of a summer program, various communication throughout the study and learning experiences as well as communication about the carrying out NOS through her own teaching experience. After completing the study, it is clear to see that PCK of teachers is developed in many ways. In this particular study, PCK grew through teaching, knowing, and understanding the content being taught. While having a mentor to guide her and support her teaching, Jane was able to grow her own knowledge of the NOS content. This study also showed that it is critical to allow students to guide teachers in their teaching and that professional development should include student "conceptual understandings and implications for instruction in leading to favorable impacts on student learners" (Hanuscin, 2013, p. 949). Finally, when teachers are learning content and growing their PCK towards science or any other content, it is critical for teachers to have an opportunity to teach and understand student misconceptions and frame their own goals and teaching strategies to that knowledge, just like Jane did in this study. Finally, it is critical to note that offering one course of professional development is not sufficient enough for teachers to "produce lasting changes in prospective teachers' conceptions of NOS"; it should also be noted that if teachers are expected to teach NOS, "science teacher educators must find ways to bridge the disconnect between methods courses, field experiences, and student teaching" (Hanuscin, 2013, p. 953).

Ramphele (2015) identified four necessary factors needed for successful learning (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012). Without these factors, there is no learning. These four elements are quite simple and include, wanting, seeing, doing, and getting. For the want factor, an individual must have the desire and want to learn. If there is no desire to learn, learning does not and cannot take place. A prime example given in the research was of a student learning to play the flute. The student either wanted to learn how to play the flute or wanted the praise that came from learning to play the flute (Ramphele, 2015). Either way, there was a desire and a want to learn. To play the flute, the student must see the notes of music, play the music, and get something from playing the music (Ramphele, 2015). For this particular student, learning was achieved. The reward or acknowledgment came from playing the flute. This desire to learn also occurs during reading.

Reading is an essential skill learned in life. Lacking reading skills and knowing how to read, filling out a job application, understanding current events, and even communicating with other people are almost impossible. A review of the literature shows how reading instruction has changed over the years.

Scripted Reading Instruction

Scripted reading instruction is becoming more and more common in school districts nationwide. Scripted instruction is a set of directions provided to teachers for each lesson. These lessons are prewritten and mapped out so teachers can deliver them in a particular amount of time. Teachers are expected to follow the instructions exactly as written (Dewitz & Jones, 2013). The purpose of implementing these programs is so that

lower test scores will improve. However, the downfall is that many of the schools using such programs are also schools with large ELL populations. Dewitz and Jones, (2013), explained that the state of Nebraska has 12% of the school districts using these programs mostly for reading instruction, but also uses them in other content areas as well. According to Dewitz and Jones (2013) one in eight schools in California uses scripted reading programs with an increasing number of educators teaching ELLs at the forefront (Carter, 2014; Dewitz & Jones, 2013).

Although scripted reading programs have been used in classrooms for many years, they have not always accommodated all students. The DISTAR reading program dates back to the 1970s. This particular reading program was designed to target students who struggled with reading and was designed to help these students catch up with their peers. Furthermore, this program targeted children in urban settings and mostly academically disadvantaged children (Stipek, 2013).

As a result of NCLB, more programs are starting to resurface and are designed for all students in the classrom.In 1997, New York City schools mandated the use of scripted reading programs for schools identified as low performing; the New York City schools chose to use the Success for All program (Dewitz & Jones, 2013). The trend quickly spread across the nation to California where, in 1999, the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) began implanting the Open Court program (Dewitz & Jones, 2013; Dresser, 2012; Hartnett-Edwards, 2012).

Wyatt (2014) explained that scripted reading programs are excellent for small skills but are not productive for literacy as a whole. Wyatt linked scripted instruction to a

behavioral approach to learning. When behavioral learning takes place, a need exists to focus on correct spelling of words and decoding of words until the skills are perfected enough to compose longer sentences with more meaning and structure. This type of instruction follows the small step to large step pattern in which there is a logical progression of skills taught but at the mercy of teacher education. Wyatt also argued that this type of program went against the constructivist point of view, which is the overarching theory to the conceptual framework of this study.

Although scripted instruction focuses on those micro skills and orderly progression of competencies, the constructivist approach is more of a holistic approach in which meaning is gained and shared, and spelling is less of a focus (Wyatt, 2014; Dewitz & Jones, 2013). Dewitz and Jones (2013) also pointed out that the lack of connections made with scripted instruction enables maximum learning to take place because students become disconnected with the text. These relationships are lacking because the passages being viewed and read by the students are of the context that students cannot relate to. Erickson (2016) found that similar text from another program (Reading Mastery) had simple or no plot. Stories with no plot have the potential to reduce the ability to activate prior knowledge, reduce the chance for students to ask thoughtful questions, and limit opportunities for making connections when reading.

Scientifically based reading programs are available and are being adopted by schools. Scientifically-based reading research has been conducted to ensure that scientifically-based reading programs are implemented to help young children by closing the achievement gap. Vacca et al. (2014) explained:

[Scientifically-based reading research] is the body of scientific evidence about

reading methodologies drawn from experimental and quasi-experimental work

and include rigorous data analysis and measurements that provide valid data

across observers and evaluators . . . and must be accepted by a peer-reviewed

journal or be approved by an independent panel of experts. (p. 8-9)

Scripted-reading instruction programs are by no means a new idea or even a new thought.

As previously explained, these programs were introduced before the Reading First

Initiative and NCLB (Shelton, 2010). The actual debate stemmed from the success of one

program over another. "Past independent research and evaluation of basal reading

instruction was not conducted by the time teachers were mandated to closely follow a

script" (Shelton, 2010, p. 316). In addition, a gap in the literature connecting teachers'

perceptions and scripted reading programs is present. This portion of the literature review

will show the limited stances when using a scripted reading program.

Open Court Reading Program (OCR)

The Open Court program implements reading and writing, which appears in a

script provided to the teachers. According to Lyons (2009), "Teachers are provided with

all instructional materials, including pacing guides, assessments, and teaching strategies"

(p. 12). Lyons continued to point out that teachers have opportunities for professional

development. They have to be willing to attend the trainings.

Scripted reading programs are not new to individuals who follow reading

research. One scripted reading program used in California and Maryland is the Open

Court Collections for Young Scholars: Open Court (Lyons, 2009). This particular

program is a K-6 program, which involves direct instruction from the teacher through the use of a script (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012). Key concepts include phonics, phonemic awareness, age appropriate text, and additional literature suitable for each grade (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012; Henning, 2013; Lyons, 2009). In addition, the program also includes strategies for monitoring comprehension and written communication as well as skills and strategies, which focus on inquiry (Dresser, 2012; Henning, 2013; Parks & Bridges-Rhoads, 2012). Open Court and many other scripted reading programs occupy much of the daily instructional schedule. In one study conducted by Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, (2012), it was reported that the program when implemented correctly took two to three hours each day.

In 1998, the National Report Card report identified California as low achieving. In this report, California had a high percentage of students in the fourth grade performing below proficiency in reading (Dresser, 2012; Nicholson et al., 2016). With this report public, school officials knew a change in instructional strategies was needed. Moving to a scripted program was nothing new for the state of California. Because of their poor performances already made public on the National Report Card, the state was moving to a research-based curriculum. The state had approved three particular programs for districts to consider. These programs were Reading Mastery, Success for All, and Open Court (Nicholson et al., 2016). Open Court was the chosen program by more than 80% of school districts.

The effectiveness of scripted reading programs, particularly Open Court, is mixed among researchers. According to Dresser (2012), one of the most effective reading for

economically disadvantaged children and reading abilities is the Open Court Reading

Program (Dresser, 2012). As Parks & Bridges-Rhodes (2012) described, other studies

also showed positive and negative outcomes. One urban school (the name and location

undisclosed) also used the Open Court program along with district approved teaching

instructions and achieved high marks for decoding and comprehension. Another study in

Tennessee found students who received instruction from Open Court programs performed

better than did their peers in reading comprehension. California reported showing no

improvement and no differences in reading comprehension scores for those using Open

Court and Success for All compared to those not using either one. A longitudinal study of

Baltimore children enrolled in the Success for All program showed significant

improvement in their comprehension ability on standardized tests (Parks and Bridges-

Rhoads, 2012). However, Parks and Bridges-Rhoades (2012) provided less positive

evidence in some studies.

Although the debate on the effectiveness of a scripted program is evident, it is

also important to understand the fundamentals of the program and the skills that are being

taught (Dresser, 2012). Regardless of the program used, the same criteria apply when

implementing a scripted reading program. Teachers must be familiar with the program

and the format of the program to ensure success (Lyons, 2009).

Dresser (2012) conducted a mixed method study where teachers in classrooms

with ELLs completed a survey and offered recommendations for improvements. These

open-ended responses were then analyzed. Twenty-five schools participated in the study

and surveyed teachers who were familiar with and used the Open Court reading program.

One important factor was that the teachers taught ELLs. The students were not native English speakers. This study involved teachers with and without experience in ELL classrooms and included novice and veteran teachers in general education. Because training is essential to understanding how to implement a scripted reading program, it is important to note that when asked about attending the provided trainings, 51% of those surveyed admitted they did not attend training of any type, 23% attended only one training, and only 18% attended more than one training (Dresser, 2012).

To implement a scripted program, teachers must make an effort to understand the program as a whole. A case study described by Henning (2013) focused on teacher perceptions of using a scripted program. The teachers in California were observed and interviewed for their input with using the Open Court program. While Dresser's (2012) study explored teachers of ELLs, Henning's (2013) study explored the integration of the program into the literacy block. The six participants in Henning's (2013) study, all teachers of ELLs, studied the program at great lengths prior to implementing it in their classrooms; each then chose which pieces to integrate into their current literacy block and which parts to omit. Again, the study showed that teachers used pieces of the program, eliminated the parts that they did not think were useful, and others developed the desire to eliminate the program altogether (Henning, 2013). Of the six participants in the study, none of them implemented the program exactly as it was written or incorporated all of the components identified.

Campbell, Torr, and Cologon (2014) conducted a case study, which showcased the implementation of a scripted reading program. Unlike the other two studies discussed

in whole group lessons from a teacher's perspective, this study was a pull-out program for young ELLs reading below grade level. Observations of the children in the study were conducted through different portions of the program. Unlike the other two programs where the school mandated the use of the program, this study had a different mandate. This particular study received the mandate from the Department of Education and sent videos and books to train teachers. No formal training took place, and one teacher was essentially in charge of the program at the school. The program was scripted and, again, had a strict structure. Ideally, the program was to be taught to a small group of children for 40 minutes. Ten minutes were dedicated to reading aloud and vocabulary, and 30 minutes were devoted to the phonics portion of the lesson (Campbell, Torr, & Cologon, 2014). Much like Open Court, the teacher had a specific script to follow, and the children had a particular skill to develop. Again, the researcher of this study noticed that the teacher was not following the script, cut the lessons down to 30 minutes for reading aloud, and five minutes for phonics. Through all parts of the program, the teacher deviated from the script and incorporated her efforts, strategies, and beliefs.

Valencia, Place, Martin, and Grossman (2006) conducted a multi-case, qualitative, longitudinal study, which revealed new teachers, much of veteran teachers, also deviated from the script. In their study, Valencia et al. (2006) learned that addressing all parts of the program was a concern among teachers. Of the four teachers followed in the study, one followed the script rather closely, while the other three deviated from it or generated their ideas of what to incorporate into a reading program. One teacher followed it closely and felt "insecure about teaching reading," but also felt that it "lacked authentic

literature" (Valencia et al., 2006, p. 102). All four teachers used the programs identified in their districts, but did so with reservation. Another concern the four teachers had with using a scripted program was that some of the materials were boring for themselves and the students. The teachers felt that because of the time needed to implement the program, other substantial aspects of reading were being dismissed. One teacher expressed that using such a program resulted in the elimination of sustained silent reading, omition of instruction geared toward higher comprehension levels, diminished the writing process and creating the deire, and the want to read was lost (Valencia et al., 2006).

As explained earlier, the gap in the research lies with teacher perceptions of a scripted reading program as a result of recent mandates. At the time of data collection, few studies were available that emphasized the teaching of a scripted reading program as a whole or the positive effects of using one. To understand teachers and the effectiveness of such a program, Nicholson, Bauer, and Woolley, (2016) questioned teachers in California. The documented responses did not follow a particular methodology. In 1999, LAUSD mandated a change in curriculum (Nicholson et al., 2016). The teachers of this district were required to leave their current ways of teaching behind and begin using the Open Court Program. In this study, understanding the population was important. In LAUSD, 74% of the students received free and reduced lunches, 44% of the students were ELLs, and the Hispanic population was highest in this district at 70% (MacGillivary et al., 2004).

Because California wanted to ensure success with the program, support systems were put into place, motivational strategies were implemented, and a teacher stipend was attached. Staff at schools was increased to include an instructional coach to ensure a successful delivery of the program. Although there was support put into place, the perception of teachers varied. Some teachers stated contentment with the level of professional development, integration and use of the large alphabet cards, and the fact that they had a bit of control over a single approach (Nicholson et al., 2016,). Not all comments were positive. Teachers began to take note of who was in the room and offered any adverse remarks. As identified by Nicholson et al., one teacher remarked about the program by stating,

> We just give teachers this [Open Court] manual and all they have to do is read the script and [it is assumed] that the students will learn…[The] teacher's professionalism and their ability to diagnose where a child is and what they need is not touched upon in this program because it is removed from this program.
> (2016, p. 229)

This was not the only concern these teachers had. Teachers felt that individual student achievement diminished, and some of their best efforts were dismissed. The students who struggled continued to struggle and the gap was only increasing for them. These teachers noticed the students' needs suffered.

In another qualitative study conducted by Shelton (2010), teachers were observed during a language arts block. Because most scripted programs require a lengthy period, the study was conducted during the block of time set aside for reading instruction.

Shelton focused on the fidelity of using a scripted reading program, not on the quality of

the program itself. Shelton's study took place in Florida with a diverse student

population. A large population of individuals (55.4%) benefited from free and reduced

lunches; the study involved third grade teachers who taught reading with the Reading

Mastery program. Shelton found that during the observations, little activation of prior

knowledge took place, the teachers generated the questions, and no discussion took place

at any point in the reading. Furthermore, Shelton found that students struggled to connect

to the content on a personal level. Although the degree of fidelity was high, the

instruction and teaching were limited. Teachers were required to follow the script as

written and did so faithfully. However, the instruction lacked student engagement, which

is a key to successful student learning.

The focus of Couch's (2009) qualitative study was to determine if student

achievement increased during a scripted reading program. This particular study used

student scores from the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)

assessment as baseline data. Unlike the other studies mentioned, Couch's (2009) study

involved 5th grade students because they received reading instruction in an intensive

reading group. In this particular study, Couch (2009) addressed students participating in a

second scripted program in conjunction to the Open Court program from another teacher.

Couch did not elaborate on the achievement scores of students participating exclusively

in the Open Court program, but merely those receiving the additional support from the

additional scripted instruction. He did find that these students improved their reading

scores with this extra instruction, but also recognized that he should have focused on

students who did not receive support from two teachers. Much like many of the other

studies, Couch's study also had Open Court as a curriculum used to teach reading. Just as

many other studies discussed, the students were identified as struggling students because

they were reading below grade level. Although students in the fifth grade should be

reading 125 plus words a minute, these students were attaining levels close to 80 words

per minute (Couch, 2009). After the implementation of the scripted instruction, fluency

did improve, but reading levels remained low.

Although this was a positive outcome of a scripted reading program, it leaves

teachers questioning the overall effectiveness. Effectiveness is questioned when students

receive instruction from one teacher and one program, as opposed to those receiving

instruction from two teachers and two different programs. These students were receiving

instruction from two teachers from two programs (Couch, 2009).

Although teachers are forced to follow these scripted programs, the research is

showing that teachers are not happy and are deviating from the script. Teachers are

realizing that student needs are not being met. A single program is not designed to reach

all students (Wyatt, 2014). Many of the studies discussed had one common theme:

Student needs often remained unmet with these programs. Students learn differently and

instructing them all the same is not always effective. Meeting learner needs by using one

program may not be the best idea (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012). Scripted reading

programs incorporate five components of reading. Occasionally, it is necessary to

supplement the program with additional tasks to reach all readers and all components.

Although scripted programs have a strict script, they also offer supplemental materials for

students who are struggling with reading, which include ELLs as well as gifted students (Valencia et al., 2006). Time constraints also force teachers to omit some pieces of the program.

Ainsworth, Ortlieb, Cheek, Pate, and Fetters (2012) conducted a qualitative study where four schools participated in interviews, questionnaires, and observations. Because scripted reading programs contain five elements, the researchers found it necessary to observe each component. They used a variety of criteria to select participating schools. The participants included first grade teachers and were chosen based on their effectiveness for teaching reading. The participants in the study used the Open Court Phonics Program but Harcourt's reading program. They had "explicit and systematic phonics instruction" (Ainsworth et al., 2012, p. 83) for 30 minutes in the morning. Again, all four of the classes participating in the study spent 90 minutes focusing on reading and its components. Although all four classrooms were using this program and devoted 90 minutes to literacy instruction, the methods used in the classrooms were different. Each classroom also included spelling in the lessons, but, again, those activities varied across the classrooms. When asked about support for administration and learning opportunities available, the teachers stated they did not receive the support they needed. They divided the parts and learned the components that way. To them, this was better than an in-service. All four teachers noted they had their files of materials that were used to support learning, but they did not provide additional materials. To them, this worked. All four teachers spent the two hours needed but did not use Open Court for all components of the reading lesson.

Scripted reading programs are becoming the preferred way of teaching reading. In 2001, California used the Open Court Reading program in one out of eight schools. In comparison, Success for All was used across the nation in over 1550 elementary schools (Parks and Bridges-Rhoads, 2012). Although the debate will continue on the effectiveness of scripted reading programs, what is clear is the content of such programs. Scripted programs may not be ideal for all students, especially those struggling or gifted, research has documented the most efficient means of delivering program content. Researchers express a strong desire for implementing the five components correctly. The five elements are essential to developing strong reading skills and strategies for reading and include: "[a] Phonics, [b] Phonemic Awareness, [c] Vocabulary, [d] Comprehension, [e] Fluency" (Camahalan, 2015, p. 21). Although specific components of reading make reading instruction successful, these components do not have to be taught with a particular scripted reading program. They can be woven into regular instruction, so all students are successful. Much like any other new task a child learns, the skills need to be repeated over and over.

In a qualitative study by Pease-Alvarez and Samway. (2012), elementary teachers in the San Francisco Bay area participated in interviews. Because of the large population of ELLs and the use of the Open Court Reading Program, random selection of teachers occurred. This qualitative study aimed to understand teacher adaptations for ELLs in their classrooms. The two school districts chosen were poorly performing schools because of low test scores for two years. Teachers in both school districts were required to use the Open Court Reading program in either English or Spanish. In this study, only students in

kindergarten through second grade used the Spanish version because older grades did not

have a copy of the Spanish translation. As a result, they were taught using the English

version of the program. To ensure teachers were following protocol and administering the

program routinely, administrators monitored classrooms. In addition, each teacher was

expected to follow the pacing guides the district provided and administer a test every six

weeks to assess each of the components taught in the program.

     In all, 32 teachers participated; 13 had taught lower elementary grades, and 19

had taught upper elementary grades (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Semi-structured

interviews helped uncover teacher perspectives when using the Open Court program.

Furthermore, these interviews helped uncover how the policies implemented by the

district affected their self-efficacy and instructional practices. Teachers shared a number

of things, which included experiences, decisions, backgrounds, perceptions of the schools

and the program. In addition, teachers were asked to describe their thoughts regarding the

mandates put in place by the district and the government to implement such a program.

     Themes emerged from coded data, and the findings showed an overall negative

view of the Open Court program from the district and the government mandates (Pease-

Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Teachers expressed that they had to be creative in their

implementation as some of the components lacked interest and appropriateness. In

addition, for many of the students, English was not their native language, but was the

second language they learned. Because the majority of the students were not native

English speakers, teachers believed reading materials added an increased level of

difficulty for the students in comprehension and connections. One teacher explained:

You know, kids develop at such different paces, and it does not make sense. It is

(OCR) just too rigid, and it does not take into account where students are at…

they need to read text at an appropriate level. They need time to learn things, so

you (the teacher) need to be able to focus on What am I really teaching, instead of

having . . . ten million things that you're supposed to teach in a week. Because

kids just don't retain information that well. And then, it needs to come out of

them and their experiences and their academic levels. (Pease-Alvarez & Samway,

2012 p. 35)

Another teacher commented that her students did not have enough English to understand

the text. Furthermore, some students lacked the necessary background knowledge to

understand the stories. Those teachers teaching with the Spanish version found some

inaccurate translations in the content.

Overall, most of the teachers expressed dissatisfaction with their professionalism

as a result of these mandates (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). These teachers expressed

frustrations and felt they no longer had control over the lessons. Furthermore, they no

longer had the freedom to teach the content in a way they knew was successful. More

than 75% of the teachers felt that they should have been able to choose which

components, if any, they wanted to implement based on their classroom make-up. They

felt that this program should be a resource, not a mandated curriculum. As a result, they

felt that they needed to make changes, so everyone received the appropriate level of

instruction. They also knew that they were being held to standards and needed to increase

their students' knowledge about certain things for them to understand. As a result, they

began to do some small group activities that focused on *schema-building* so that the ELL

could understand better. They also removed portions that they felt were boring for the

students and adjusted the length of time on some lessons, so that the students could

understand the content before progression. The teachers even worked to explain the

content in Spanish to help them understand. One particular teacher stated, "Students don't

fit into a one size fits all anything anywhere, and there need to be adjustments made for

their individual needs, especially English language learners" (Pease-Alvarez & Samway,

2012, p.22). While some scripted programs claim the instruction is differentiated, it takes

a well-trained individual to make complex decisions that occur when delivering

instruction (Wyatt, 2014).

A few other findings that stemmed from their research had to do with teachers'

beliefs and the level that administrators mandated the curriculum across the schools. Ten

teachers involved in the study expressed children struggled to learn how to read when

following this program. It was not meeting the developmental needs that the students

needed (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Therefore, they were still supplementing with

guided reading groups and trying to monitor student progress through the Developmental

Reading Assessment as before and with running records. They expressed that this became

increasingly harder because of the time needed to implement fully the Open Court

Reading program. They were struggling to get them done as efficiently as they had in the

past. Furthermore, they knew that their administrators were going to be monitoring their

implementation, so they had to be careful about the amount of time they used an

additional assessment data they needed. They also noted that the administrators were

quick to reprimand anyone who was not following the script as written. The teachers felt

their job was in jeopardy if they cut lessons or deviated too much from the script.

Furthermore, there was little consistency between principals and their observations of

those who were in compliance or not. The relationship with the principal determined the

amount of flexibility given (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012).

Educational implications stemmed from these studies of the Open Court Reading

program. Schools that used this program usually have a high percentage of low-income

students (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Consequently, instruction became the focus

instead of student needs. Mandates forced the teachers to use the program as written and

designed. They made necessary adjustments to help their students but also put their jobs

in jeopardy. These findings go hand in hand with Wyatt's (2014) thinking in the fact that

professional development must be a long-term process in which teachers are trained with

appropriate and adequate materials, allowed to make decisions on how to best instruct

their students, employ proper methods, yet know which students need to have an

intervention put into place. Veering from the program is a fault of many teachers,

including experienced and inexperienced teachers as well as effective and ineffective

teachers (Wyatt, 2014).

Furthermore, what they found "underscores how policies and the processes and

conditions that shape teachers' implementation of these policies may contribute to

perpetuating a system that ultimately limits ELs' opportunities to learn in school" (Pease-

Alvarez & Samway, 2012, p. 327). They suggested, "there is a need for policies that

reflect an understanding of ELs language and literacy development and how to effective

teach" (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012, p. 327). "Instruction must be grounded in pedagogical principles informed by research on bilingualism and second language acquisition and take into account professional knowledge and agency of teachers who have expertise in working with ELs" (Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012, p. 327). Finally, Pease-Alvarez (2012) noted:

. . . investing in education for ELs that is grounded in pedagogical principles rather than standardized curricula emanates from a view of teaching as political, intellectual, and rigorous work (Pérez, 2005) via policies at the federal, state, and local level that focus on the ongoing professional development of teachers (and administrators) that enhance their ability to meet the needs of ELs. (p. 327-328)

A descriptive study by Cobb et al. (2012) investigated teachers' attitudes about the educational mandates placed upon them. The study involved four teachers who were all too familiar with the instructional, educational mandates placed upon them. The four teachers involved expressed how the mandates have impacted their teaching and their students. Best practices in the classroom are difficult to maintain as they noted the first teacher, a 6-year veteran, and reading specialist/coach participated in the study. During this study, the individual was working with young students in lower elementary grades, specifically kindergarten and first grade and expressed a requirement was in place to implement systematic phonics instruction each day, and the primary focus was on skill and drill. The second teacher had six years of experience and worked mostly with the ELLs and expressed that a lot of teacher-directed instruction was in place and with it,

knew that the students were not getting their needs met. This teacher stated, "What I am doing is not beneficial for everybody" (Cobb et al., 2012, p. 113).

Eisenbach (2012) also uncovered some teacher attitudes relating to using a scripted program for reading. In her review, Eisenbach noted that teachers struggled to understand scripted reading programs and their purpose. In addition, teachers struggled to understand why policy makers found it a good idea to change the way things had been taught. Furthermore, "the one-size-fits all approach to education. has teachers fumbling for ways to hold true to their personal ideologies while it has others heading for the hills" (Eisenbach, 2012, p. 153)

After sitting in a department meeting and listening to middle school language arts teachers talk about scripted programs in the classroom, Eisenbach (2012) decided to learn more and decided it was time to get a better feeling and understanding of teachers' beliefs and attitudes when using a scripted program. Eisenbach (2012) wondered if teachers would leave their beliefs behind and change their ways, or did they leave the mandates behind and follow their beliefs. Eisenbach (2012) noted, "Teacher beliefs regarding the acquisition of knowledge and instructional needs of students tend to affect teacher behavior in the classroom" (p. 154). As a result, Eisenbach (2012) set out to talk with teachers at a local middle school that "demonstrated a particular methodology of instruction in the face of scripted curriculum" (p. 154). Conversations occurred with the three of them to get a better understanding of how they dealt with the mandates of a scripted curriculum at the middle school level.

The first teacher, the accommodator, demonstrated the old fashioned type of classroom (Eisenbach, 2012). All of the student desks were facing one way, toward the front. The students were all busy working on their assignment waiting to begin the day. Furthermore, the scripted materials were visible on student desks, the walls, and on the cabinets and bookshelves. A traditional word wall, student work, assessments, and anything else that accompanied the program were clearly visible. There was no doubt the curriculum was followed closely. This particular teacher did not believe the curriculum was that bad, and admitted that using the college education received was far more important to guide lessons than a script was. However, this teacher also noted that the scripted curriculum was the curriculum required to use by the county and continued to express the need of putting personal feelings away to be a leader. To do this, personal feelings and agendas were dismissed and demands from the county took priority. This individual expressed that some units were tough to teach and easy to give up on because the individual knowledge learned previously was much better than the script provided. However, because the local and state demands were there, that knowledge was useless, and local and state demands were followed. The teacher did express unhappiness with the mandates and questions if following the mandates was worth staying in the teaching profession.

The second teacher, the negotiator, as identified by Eisenbach (2012), was a little different. Although this teacher was not a fan of the script at the beginning, that changed as the individual did begin to see some useful pieces and parts of the scripted lessons. The writing activities appeared to be the most useful, and this individual used ideas and

the script and taught using a hybrid method by combining teacher ideas with the script. Displayed student work looked much different as well. It was more student-centered and less scripted. The word wall contained the words from the script and the supplemental materials used in the classroom. Workbooks used were much different than the first teacher's in that they were used as assessment pieces, but in a more informal way that allowed students to respond using post-it notes. This individual noted that activities from the script were changed and developed new activities from ideas and from what the text had to offer. Hence, this is where the hybrid piece came into play. An individual workbook based writing activity became a new engaging activity by having the students complete it by making a book. "I think expecting teachers to be on the same page and doing nothing but a scripted lesson is grossly unreasonable and defies any laws of educational creativity/differentiation that exists" (Eisenbach, 2012, p. 155). This teacher admitted to picking and choosing which activities from the script to use and which ones were to be generated. At this time, this particular teacher was fine with this method because no one seemed concerned, and no one questioned the work. In conclusion, the individual noted that if or when a time came when, and individual teachers were told how to teach and what to teach in a specified way, and then it would become a problem. Right now, combining personal ideas with the script was working well, so there were no problems.

The third teacher openly admitted that following the script was not an option. Unlike the other two teachers interviewed, this teacher was vastly different. There were no signs of the scripted curriculum anywhere in the classroom. The traditional posters,

the word wall, the scripted work samples were not there. Instead, the classroom was filled

with student-centered work samples, posters about reading and writing, authors to study,

and information useful for the students. The students sat in groups of four, and an

assortment of reading materials from children's books to young novels were visible for

his students to use. No specific desk or seat was for the teacher. Instead, a rocking chair

was used and a cozy corner where the students gathered to be welcomed and for read-

aloud books were used. His classroom focused on literature read and shared by the

students. This individual also commented that scripted programs should be for those who

struggled with teaching and needed step-by-step directions, not a veteran teacher who

knew what teaching was about. This individual went on to say, "It (scripted programs)

should not be imposed on veteran educators. . . I oppose the audacity of the

superintendent to snatch away the right of language arts teachers to adopt district

curriculum and impose her choice more than the scripted curriculum" (Eisenbach, 2012,

p. 155). This teacher also admitted to trying the curriculum at one point in time but

quickly realized that the structure did not suit his students. Eisenbach (2012) noted that

this teacher believed the job was getting done, no one seemed to be concerned, and that

those who knew what and how to teach students should not be bothered.

<center>**Summary of Methodology and Relevant Studies**</center>

This study sought to explore what elementary teachers' experiences had when

using a scripted reading program for reading instruction, as well as their perceptions of

the scripted programs themselves, including what aspects of the programs they found

useful, challenging, and/or problematic. In addition to teachers' experiences with scripted

reading programs, the key phenomenon being investigated in this study was the relationship between teachers' perceived self-efficacy and the particular requirements of scripted reading instruction.

A variety of qualitative designs was available to choose from for this study. According to Creswell (2012), "The design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions, and ultimately, to its conclusions" (p. 3). Creswell (2012) further noted:

Qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. (p. 15)

Although many qualitative options were available to choose from, the phenomenological methodology was selected for this particular study. According to Creswell (2009), a phenomenological study involves the researcher identifying "the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by the participants" (p. 13). In addition, Creswell (2009) noted that a phenomenological study "involves studying a small number of subjects and the researcher sets aside his or her own experiences in order to understand those of the participants in the study" (p. 13). Furthermore, this study aimed to "describe the meaning of the lived experiences for several individuals about a concept or a phenomenon" (Creswell, 2009, p. 51).

A qualitative phenomenological study was selected as the most appropriate methodology to capture teachers' experiences using scripted reading programs, their

perceptions of these programs, as well as their views on how using these programs have affected their self-efficacy. With a qualitative approach, participants could be interviewed and additional factors used, including body language, tone, and overall attitude of the members as they shared their information during the interview process. Documenting this information was then possible. This particular methodology ensured questions were the thoroughly answered and elaborated upon if needed.

Research information relating to teachers use and interactions with scripted reading programs has only recently begun to emerge (Cobb et al., 2012; Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Sturm, 2014; Wyatt, 2014). Sturm (2014) noted scripted reading programs could actually reduce proficiency skills, self-confidence, and teacher success. In addition, these programs lead to teachers feeling powerlessness and being overwhelmed (Dresser, 2012). Furthermore, the one-size-fits-all approach of many scripted reading programs is shown to inadequately satisify all student needs in various socioeconomic, cultural, and institutional contexts (Sturm, 2014; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). Additional research was needed relating the effects of scripted reading programs for students and teachers. Administrators can make more informed decisions regarding implementation of scripted reading programs and better understand how teachers perceive and interact with scripted reading programs.

This study used a qualitative phenomenological approach to add to existing work on teachers' experiences using scripted reading programs for reading instruction in the primary grades. The study captured teachers' perceptions of the scripted programs including what aspects of the programs they found useful, challenging, and/or

problematic. Because of the top-down nature of the mandated instruction, it was important that research reflect teachers' perspectives and experiences in this area because teachers are the ones who implement instruction and directly interact with students.

Conclusion

A limited amount of research relating the opinions and perceptions of teachers using scripted reading programs to teach the process of reading exists. Furthermore, a connection to how their perceived levels of self-efficacy changes are missing. The literature review showed that research lacks in scripted reading programs, in general. These programs were a single type of scientifically-based reading programs that met the requirement for NCLB. The literature shows that teachers used the required, scripted programs to teach reading, but how implementation of these programs was inconsistent and problematic. Of the studies reviewed, teachers left out parts of the program because of time, inexperience, or the fact that they did not know what to do. The literature showed that veteran teachers were not the only educators who did not consistently use the script; new teachers also used it inconsistently. Many of the studies reviewed focused on the Open Court Reading Program and not so much on other programs. Teachers interviewed reported that the program took too much time to incorporate on a daily basis, and they just did not have the time necessary to incorporate all five parts. Other areas of the literature reviewed showed how critical it was to incorporate all five components of reading skills to be learned and mastered. Still, other studies addressed how the lack of knowledge could lower teachers' feelings of self-efficacy and could drive highly qualified teachers out of the profession. Finally, the research showed ways in which

teachers obtained new content knowledge, which may be unfamiliar to them or uncertain how to implement. This study sought to understand how teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy were impacted as a result of instructional mandates placed in schools in the Mid-Atlantic States.

Chapter 3 begins with a review of the purpose and provides an explanation of the chosen research design and why other methods were rejected. My role as the researcher was to explain the methodology, which includes sample size, recruitment of participants, and coding of data. Because this was a qualitative study, the research questions are also included. Finally, issues of trustworthiness are addressed.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand and describe teachers'

perceptions of their self-efficacy when using a scripted reading program chosen by school

officials at the elementary level. At the time of the study, scripted reading programs had

become more popular in lower performing schools and had received mixed reviews from

teachers who implemented them. Prior to this study, limited research was found that

addressed teachers' perceptions of using a scripted reading program as the primary

method of teaching young children to read. Cobb et al. (2012) expressed a need to

"determine what is essential for prospective reading teachers to know" (p. 127) to feel

satisfied with the current mandates in place.

It was my aim to understand teachers' lived experiences of their self-efficacy as

they implemented scripted reading instruction in the primary grades. Multiple studies

(Cobb et al., 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012) have indicated that it was essential

to gather information about teachers' experience of self-efficacy. With local, statewide,

and national mandates to implement scripted reading instruction to certain groups of

children, the impact on a teacher's self-efficacy was a concern. This study should

enhance administrators' understanding of educators' perspectives and allow

administrators to provide support to teachers in ways that benefit and address the needs of

the learners in each classroom.

This chapter contains the research method and data collection chosen, including a

discussion of the role of the researcher and theoretical framework.

Research Design and Rationale

According to Moustakas (1994), phenomenological research should include questions that provide social and personal relevance. The development of a research question indicates the need to understand the lived experience and meaning of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012; Englander, 2012; Hein & Austin, 2001; Laverty, 2008; Merriam, 2011; Merriam & Associates, 2002). For this study, I used a qualitative phenomenological methodology with the following research question as the focus: What is the experience of self-efficacy for teachers required to implement scripted reading instruction in the primary grades?

Government mandates for scripted instruction and teachers' lived experiences of self-efficacy were the central phenomena of this study. Because of the limited research on teachers' lived experiences of using a scripted reading program as the primary way to teach reading to young children, exploring the teachers' lived experiences was a worthy course of study. This qualitative study included a phenomenological design. A phenomenological researcher approaches a topic without preconceptions or expectations and produces a question that expands the research (Anfara & Mertz, 2006; Moustakas, 1994). A phenomenological design allows participants the opportunity to share their experiences with a particular phenomenon (Ohman, 2005). The phenomenological design allows a researcher to investigate the individual experiences and gain insight into the use of perceptive and contemplative means.

The teachers in this study were asked to share their experiences with using government-mandated scripted instruction and their experiences of self-efficacy. I used

open-ended interviews to explore and understand this phenomenon. Moustakas (1994) suggested the purpose of the phenomenological design is to describe and distill the lived experiences of individuals to derive the essence of the phenomenon of interest. Using Moustakas's model allowed me to examine the attitudes, feelings, and experiences of the teachers as they related to government-mandated scripted instruction (Davis, 2009).

A variety of research designs are employed in qualitative research (Hatch, 2002). According to Creswell (1998), "the design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the study's initial research questions, and ultimately, to its conclusions" (p. 3). Although there are many qualitative options from which to choose, the phenomenological design was the most appropriate for this study. A phenomenological study involves a small number of participants, requires the researchers to remove personal experiences, and identify participants who are able to share key experiences relating to a specific concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 2013).

Although an ethnographic study was an option for the study, I determined that because an ethnographic study focuses on a "cultural or social group or system" (Creswell, 2012, p. 58), this would not be the best choice for this study. The ethnographic study is less about individuals, particular times or places, or a program, and more about a system. I was not interested in examining the culture of the school, but rather the individuals who use the program. Furthermore, an ethnographic study focuses on behaviors, which was not an area of focus for this study. Data collection in an ethnographic study includes observations and interviews, but over the course of 6 months to a year.

Other options included the grounded theory and case study designs. A grounded theory study would result in generating a new theory. Generation of a new theory was not the aim of this study and would not have answered the research question. Therefore, this design was found to be inappropriate in this study. In addition, I did not plan to collect "detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time" (Creswell, 2013, p. 227). A case study design would require an extended exploration of the scripted reading programs for a lengthy period. Because of the shortcomings of these designs in achieving the aims of this study, a phenomenological design was the most appropriate choice.

Role of the Researcher

I assumed the role of participant observer as specified in Gold's (1958) typology. In this role, I was not a member of the group of study and had limited interaction with the group members and little or no involvement in their activities. The limited interaction and involvement were because I was not in the group. In this role, my contact with participants could have happened via a number of methods including direct observations or interviews. In this study, I limited my contact with participants to individual semistructured interviews. Higginbottom, Pillay, and Boadu (2013) asserted that the participant observer role is also useful because it averts the development of a conflict of interest, which could arise when a researcher over identifies with participants. In addition, I served as the contact person for the study and as the coder and analyzer of the data.

Some participants and I worked in the same county, while no work experience

with others was present. I had no supervisory duties with any participants. I served as an elementary teacher in the primary grades, and they served as elementary teachers in the primary grades. We did not serve on the same teams on any grade level at any point in our employment. Therefore, power differentials did not influence the collection and analysis of data in this study.

As a primary teacher in the Commonwealth of Virginia, my knowledge of the surrounding school systems was limited. At the time of data collection, I was a certified K-8 teacher with emphasis in early childhood education, as well as middle grades English and history. Although I teach in the Mid-Atlantic region, I do not teach in the same school district as the participants. I am aware of the programs some school systems use to teach reading and know what is expected of teachers when implementing these programs. I have worked in this school system, and I know what the expectation was at that time, but I am unsure as to what the expectations are presently. I realize this could have presented a bias, but I was seeking information relating to content self-efficacy and not the implementation of the program as a whole. This prevented me from having any bias regarding how the teachers implement the program. I am not licensed to teach in every Mid-Atlantic state, particularly where the focus of the study took place.

It is possible to minimize researcher bias through developing an understanding of what bias is and how it can influence the findings of the study (Norlyk, Dreyer, Haahr, & Martinsen, 2011). Basturkmen (2012) maintained that reflexivity was the primary approach used to mitigate the deleterious effects of researcher bias. Reflexivity signifies the researcher's exercise of self-reflection regarding potential biases or preconceptions

related to the research. As a qualitative researcher, I examined and acknowledged my biases and remained cognizant of these biases when drafting the interview questions, conducting the interviews, analyzing the data, and interpreting the results (see Beverland & Lindgreen, 2010). I employed Husserl's concept of *epoché,* or bracketing, to restrain the influence of my personal biases in the conduct of this study (see Tufford & Newman, 2010).

After obtaining letters of cooperation from the appropriate official, I contacted school officials for a list of potential participants. Included in this list was each participants name, email address, and phone number. From the list of suggested participants whose email I was provided, I contacted those individuals to participate in the study. I was responsible for ensuring that they completed the checklist to participate at the start. Finally, I was the sole person responsible for the data analysis.

I observed the ethical requirements stipulated by the Belmont Report. I assured participants that the interviews and data collected remained confidential. Through this assurance, participants felt more comfortable discussing their experiences openly with me. I strived to maintain an open and objective attitude as the researcher. I refrained from apprising participants of my personal views concerning the research topic. I acted in the role of transcriptionist to facilitate the transcription of the interviews. Although it is impossible to be bias free as a qualitative researcher, maintaining awareness of my personal opinions and biases helped to minimize the influence of that bias in this study (see Norlyk et al., 2011; Vagle, 2009).

Methodology

Participant Selection Logic

The sample size for this study was determined by data saturation. Saturation occurs when the information obtained from interviews no longer adds value to the data collection (Bowen, 2008). Morse (1994) suggested a minimum of six participants to achieve saturation. Boyd (2001) maintained that a sample of two to 10 participants was appropriate in phenomenological research. Mason (2010) asserted that 10 incisive and well-conducted interviews could yield more detailed information than 50 interviews conducted by an ill-prepared interviewer.

The sample for this study involved primary teachers from school systems in the Mid-Atlantic region. The participants were elementary teachers with experience using a scripted reading program in kindergarten, first grade, second grade, or third grade. At the time of data collection, each teacher was employed full time within the school system and currently used a scripted reading program to teach reading, or had used a scripted reading program within the last two years. Each teacher had a valid teaching certificate for elementary teachers.

I used purposive, criterion sampling to select potential participants. A common sampling strategy in qualitative research is purposive sampling (Creswell, 2013; Suri, 2011). Criterion sampling, a type of purposive sampling, refers to the selection of participants or cases that meet a preset criteria that is determined by the researcher (Patton, 2015; Suri, 2011). Through criterion sampling, the researcher can increase the likelihood of selecting participants who possess valuable information relative to the topic

of study (Salvador, Forza, & Rungtusanatham, 2002). This method was chosen because the individuals "represent some characteristic the investigator seeks to study" (Creswell, 2008, p. 149).

Selection criteria were used to select participants for the study. To participant in the study, participants had to be elementary school teachers currently teaching Kindergarten, first, second, or third grade. Each participant had to be employed by a local education system in the Mid-Atlantic region and had to be using a scripted reading program or have experience within the last two years. Participants used a checklist on the consent form to indicate which criteria they met. The consent form was completed prior to the first interview. The consent form included documentation of the researcher's intent to record the interviews. According to Moustakas (1994), participants should meet the essential criteria of having experience with the phenomenon, interest in the phenomenon, and willingness to participate in the study.

Because of the nature of the study, eight participants were interviewed. Saturation signifies the moment at which the addition of more participants fails to add novel or noteworthy information to the data (Bowen, 2008). Saturation was considered to be reached after the seventh interview. Similar responses were noted with the final three interviews.

Instrumentation

The goal was to have 10 participants take part in the study. Data were collected through a series of three face-to-face interviews with each participant (Seidman, 2006). With their permission, the interviews were audio-taped to ensure all information was

captured and body language observed. I typed interview responses to ensure accuracy and made notes of body language during the interviews. Typing the interviews allowed me to observe body language more closely and identify key responses with highlighters and bolded font.

The interview questions stemmed from the research and the requirements of a scripted reading program. They were my own questions and not taken from any published instrument. The questions had been reviewed by reading teachers and changed to reflect their feedback. No historical or legal documents were used in this study.

Britten (1995) argued that interviews are a flexible and dynamic tool for qualitative researchers. Through interviews, participants are permitted to share highly detailed information relative to the phenomenon of study from their distinctive perspectives (Turner, 2010). DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006) explained that interviews are used in qualitative research collaboratively to build meaning with interviewees by reassembling and regenerating impressions of happenings and occurrences. Opdenakker (2006) discussed several advantages of the use of face-to-face interviewing as a tool in qualitative research. Opdenakker (2006) cited the ability to pick up on non-verbal cues, which can inform and illuminate implicit feelings and perceptions. He also discussed the spontaneity of response that occur in face-to-face interviews as a beneficial aspect of this form of interviewing, which may yield more honest responses from participants.

By using interviews, I observed nonverbal cues as part of the data collection. Hand gestures and facial features were noted when participants provided information. In

this study, the aim was to understand and describe teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy in using a scripted reading program chosen by school officials at the elementary level, particularly in relation to perceived self-efficacy as it related to content pedagogy. Through interviewing, I elicited in-depth descriptions from participants of their perceptions and experiences (Chenail, 2011; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). This method simplified the gathering of information that substantively informed the research question in this study.

Researcher Developed Instrument

A pilot study, IRB approval #09-05-08-0326837, was initially conducted using a quantitative data collection method only to find that few participants completed the survey. Therefore, I decided to change the study to a qualitative phenomenological study, so participants could participate in interviews and more in-depth data could be gathered relative to the participants' experiences and perceptions. Perception is the principle source of knowledge in a phenomenological study because the participants' perceptions are their own (Moustakas, 1994). This particular methodology also allowed me to ensure that all of the questions were answered and elaborated upon when necessary.

To establish content validity of the interview questions, reading teachers and reading specialists in my area were contacted and asked to review the questions. Each of these reading specialists had a Master's Degree in Reading Instruction and was considered an expert in the field of study with the local school districts in which they worked. I did not work with any of these teachers directly, but did work in the same school system. They were asked to review the interview questions. Feedback was

received and the questions were revised based on their feedback. This process was repeated three times until no more changes were requested.

Once all interviews were completed and transcribed, member checking was used to ensure all responses were complete and correct. Participants had the opportunity to clarify anything that was not be clear, share any additional thoughts, and verify everything was correctly stated. Once all member checking and final transcripts were completed, data analysis ended. A copy of the final study was available to those who requested it during the study.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participants were identified based on their location of employment to ensure they were employed in the Mid-Atlantic Region and in a school system that used a scripted reading program to teach reading. It was important that the teachers involved in the study used a scripted reading program at the time of data collection, or had used a scripted program in the last two years, and currently taught a primary grade in the general education classroom.

As an employee in the desired area, I was acquainted and provided with a number of teachers in the region who had implemented scripted instruction. Of the potential group of 25 teachers, 15 had been identified as potential participants in the study. A letter of cooperation was sent to the district contact person explaining the study and asking for permission to contact individual teachers within the school system. Once district approval was granted, I contacted 10 of the identified individuals via e-mail. I explained why I contacted them and provided details of the study and data collection methods to each

person. I asked for their interest or desire to participate, and requested they fill out the

Criteria for Selection to Participate checklist (Appendix B). The checklist was essential to

determine if they met the requirements of the study. For participants who did not return

the checklist with their intent to participate within three days, I sent a follow-up email

with a new checklist. Those who did not meet the requirements in the participation

checklist or chose not to participate were thanked for their consideration and no

additional contact was made.

Once 10 teachers agreed to participate in the study and their eligibility had been

determined, the Consent Form (Appendix B) was electronically sent. Each participant

received a number to ensure identifying information remained confidential. Of the 15

potential participants, it was expected that 10 participants would agree to participate in all

interviews, leaving 5 members as reserves. Members of the reserve group were to be

contacted individually if a member of the original 10 selected participants withdrew from

the study.

Using the interview questions, which stemmed from the pilot study, data

collection took place in a location convenient to the participants. Ideally, data collection

would take place in a private room at the library or a quiet room in a participant's home,

whichever worked for each participant. As the researcher in charge, I collected all data

throughout the study. Data collection took place through a series of three interviews,

sometimes more. If transcribed data left unanswered questions or needed clarification,

additional interviews occurred. The first interview was scheduled to last a minimum of 60

minutes. This ensured enough time to become comfortable with the participant, establish

a sense of trust, and give the participant time to open up and share information. These interviews consisted of questions relating to participants' experiences of scripted programs. The questions were designed to explore the history of the participants' experiences and to elicit their perceptions concerning using government mandated scripted instruction (DeLay & Washburn, 2013). Based on the literature, the focus of the interviews stemmed from teachers' self-efficacy and how they felt their instructional deliveries were impacted based on the mandated use of scripted instruction.

The second interview lasted a minimum of 60 minutes. This allowed time to debrief from the first interview and to explore more deeply the topics discussed during the first interviews (DeLay & Washburn, 2013; Seidman, 2006). Using probing and clarifying questions, I followed-up on the previous responses of participants to explore these in greater detail (Martin & Kitchel, 2014).

The third and final interview lasted a minimum of 30 minutes, which again allowed time for debriefing of the previous interview and time to clarify any remaining questions that stemmed from the transcription and consisted of a review of the previous two rounds of interviews (DeLay & Washburn, 2013). I asked participants if they had any further experiences or comments to share, which had not been discussed during the previous interviews. As recommended by Seidman (2006), participants were asked to reflect upon the previous interviews and share any new insights resulting from this reflection.

All data were collected through the use of an audio-tape recorder, with the permission from each participant, and hand-typed notes. For additional conversations that

took place, I scheduled them on an individual basis via phone and email. Interviews were planned to last no more than one hour to ensure time of the participants was valued. Participants were always thanked for their time and the information shared.

Data Analysis Plan

The collected data were analyzed at my home in a private room. When transcribing the data, I reviewed the audio recordings line by line with my hand typed notes. This allowed me to review both for accuracy and code it for themes. After each interview, I provided participants with a transcript of the coded data to review. The data were coded for specific themes that emerged as a result of the interviews. King (2004) recommended using a "template analysis" (p. 257) to help code the data. A template analysis is "a more flexible technique with fewer specified procedures, permitting researchers to tailor it to match their requirements" (King, 2004, p. 25). Template analysis works particularly well when the aim is to compare the perspectives of different groups of staff within a specific context (King, 2004). A template analysis for this study is included in Appendix D and served as a guide, as the interviews determined the final themes. Guiding themes from a similar template created by King (2004) was considered and included: background history (e.g., inexperience and time allotted), perceived self-efficacy in the teaching of reading, and opinions of the program (e.g., program efficiency and differences in instruction style). Additional categories from King (2004) were incorporated based on the results of the interviews (i.e., professional development).

As interviews were conducted, this template grew into a more detailed list of themes that emerged from the information provided by each participant. The information

was then entered into the selected computer program to generate more in-depth analysis of the data. Furthermore, open coding was used. In open coding, "The researcher examines the text for salient categories of information supported by the text" (Creswell, 2012, p. 150). Qualitative analysis consists of a component of a study that involves "combining data units on the same topic" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 203). In addition, Rubin & Rubin noted, "To figure out what a specific concept means you look at all the data units where that concept is discussed and then bring together in one file that separate definitions, examples, and refinements" (2005, p. 203). Should discrepant data appear, these were included in the study. These data added important descriptive and explanatory value to the research. "There are strong pressures to ignore data that do not fit prior theories or conclusions, and it is important to rigorously examine both supporting and discrepant data" (Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005, p. 46). They went on to say, "The only solution may be to report the discrepant evidence and allow readers to draw their conclusions" (Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005, p. 46).

Data collected were analyzed as interviews were completed, which enabled me to begin to create categories and allowed me to probe for more information on specific subjects. Because I served as the sole collector of the data, all hand written data and typed data were reviewed line by line and compared to the audio recordings. This ensured the data were correct and transcribed in the participants' exact words. Once data were analyzed by hand, each participant received a copy of the transcribed data to review for accuracy. Once the participants were happy with the transcriptions, a subsequent interview was scheduled.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Anderson (2010) argued that "when performed correctly, qualitative research is valid, reliable, credible and rigorous" (p. 22). As Rolfe (2006) explained, "Validity in qualitative research is referred to by a variety of nomenclature, including the term credibility" (p. 305). Credibility refers to the degree to which the results reflect the true and accurate experiences of the participants. The study is said to be credible when the findings presented are sufficiently accurate in the description that an individual with similar experiences would readily express recognition of the presented phenomenon (Krefting, 1991). To assure credibility, I aimed to support participants in providing honest and candid information throughout the interviews. I encouraged participants to elaborate on responses that warranted extra details.

In addition, interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. Using member-checking verified the accuracy of the recordings (Harper & Cole, 2012). Each participant received a copy of his or her transcribed responses. The participants reviewed the transcriptions and verified the accuracy and depiction of what they intended to express in the interviews.

Saturation increased the credibility of the findings of the study by ensuring that the identified themes were confirmed sufficiently by the facts (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers, 2008). Discrepant cases or contradictory findings upon analysis of the data were identified. These findings were discussed along with the other identified results to ensure that the entire breadth of participant perspectives had been represented. I used

epoché, or bracketing, to cast off personal biases and experiences as much as possible, to examine the data from a more objective and unbiased perspective (Moustakas, 1994).

Transferability

Transferability refers to the ability to generalize the findings to other contexts (Tracy, 2013). Several researchers have argued that generalization is not a relevant concern in qualitative research because qualitative studies aim to describe a unique phenomenon or experience, rather than generate broad generalizations (Krefting, 1991; Seidman, 2006). Thus, the degree of transferability of the findings is determined by the reader. Through the provision of thick and detailed description, the reader is able to make personal judgments concerning the ability of the study's findings to be transferred and applied to other settings (Krefting, 1991).

Dependability

Dependability refers to the extent to which the findings are consistent. In this study, dependability was enhanced through the use of triangulation. Through the use of multiple sources of information, a more reliable, impartial, and accurate depiction of reality was formed (Cho & Trent, 2006). In this study, the responses from multiple participants produced a composite narrative, which more astutely depicted the phenomenon of study.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings reflect the participants' overall meaning and intention, rather than those of the researcher (Silva & Fraga, 2012). Confirmability was enhanced through the use of reflexivity, which refers to the continual

examination of the researcher's impact upon the development and construction of

knowledge (Malterud, 2001). I examined the ways in which personal experiences and

biases affect the research process. Through use of epoché, personal biases were set aside

to examine the data from a fresh and open perspective (Moustakas, 1994).

Ethical Procedures

IRB approval was obtained prior to data collection. Ethical considerations

regarding interaction with human beings were based on the Belmont Report and followed

the principles of justice, beneficence, and respect. Every attempt was made to ensure that

all potential participants got an equal opportunity to participate in the study. Similarly,

every effort was made to ensure understanding, comfort, and safety of the participants.

The participants were provided the opportunity to review the transcriptions to ensure that

none of the data collected was misinterpreted or misrepresented; this is known as member

checking. Participants were informed that participation was purely optional and that they

could elect to stop for a break or completely drop out of the inquiry at any time. In

addition, I set aside any bias and personal experiences; I was receptive to new

perspectives.

The recordings were and remain stored on a secure server. The transcriptions are

held on this secure server. Access to any aforementioned files is limited to me, and these

files will be maintained behind lock and key. Any participant identification has been

removed from the data, and alternative identifiers have been used in place. Throughout

the management, analysis, write-up, and presentation process every effort has been made

to ensure the protection and confidentiality of all data. Analysis did not begin until all

participants verified the transcriptions of their interviews, and identifying indicators had been removed. Any records of the participants' responses will be kept for a period of up to 5 years under the same strict security guidelines, at which point they will be destroyed and disposed of.

Summary

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to understand and describe teachers' lived experiences of self-efficacy when using a scripted reading program chosen by school officials at the elementary level. Chapter Three contained a description of the research design and the methodological procedures for data collection and analysis. The sampling frame for this study was limited to teachers of kindergarten through grade three, who were employed by a local education system in the Mid-Atlantic region, and had experience using a scripted reading program. Purposeful sampling was used to select participants from this sampling frame. Data collection in this study consisted of a series of three individual, semi-structured interviews with teachers. Template analysis was used to analyze the interview data, and extract themes, which illuminated the phenomenon of scripted reading education.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore teachers' experiences with scripted reading programs as well as their perceived self-efficacy while implementing this type of instruction. Particular attention toward teachers' views of self-efficacy in instructional delivery was included. With a scripted reading program, it is expected that teachers teach the lessons exactly as outlined. The potential significance of this study was to understand the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and mandated scripted instruction as it related to content pedagogy. Study results may inform school officials about the teachers' perspectives on their instructional self-efficacy when meeting prescribed demands. The research question used to guide this study was the following: What are teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy as they implement scripted reading instruction in the primary grades? This chapter contains a description of the setting and participants' demographics. This section also includes information about data collection and analysis methods. Issues of trustworthiness are addressed including methods used to ensure dependability, confirmability, credibility, and transferability. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the results and a final summary.

Setting

The study was conducted in one public elementary school and one charter elementary school in the Mid-Atlantic region. A breakdown of the race/ethnicity of the selected schools is found in Tables 1 and 2. The data were found from greatschools.net. The number of students eligible for free and reduced lunch was not available beyond the 2013-2014 school year.

Table 1

School 1: Suburban PK-6 Public School, 600+ students

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage
White	38%
Hispanic	27%
Asian/Pacific Islander	27%
Black	5%
Two or more races	4%
American Indian/Alaska Native	0%
Hawaiian Native/Pacific Islander	0%

Table 2

School 2: Suburban Public Charter School Governed by a 7-Member Board of Trustees Consisting of Parents and Community Members, 702 students

Race/Ethnicity	Percentage
White	2%
Hispanic	58%
Asian/Pacific Islander	1%
Black	40%
Two or more races	4%
American Indian/Alaska Native	0%
Hawaiian Native/Pacific Islander	0%

A total of 25 teachers were then invited to take part in the study. A brief explanation of the study was provided, and potential participants received a consent form and a checklist of appropriate criteria to meet. The decisions to participate were influenced by the location of the schools and the time commitment. Confusion could have also influenced teachers' decisions to participate because some of the program types were not considered scripted.

Demographics

Elementary teachers in kindergarten through Grade 3 participated in the study and consisted of a mixture of European American and African American women, which was

a representative sample for this region. The participants had experience teaching reading

and writing to young children and using a scripted program. Although the number of

years of teaching was addressed, the number of years using a scripted program was not

discussed at every interview. All participants reported using the scripted programs for at

least 3 years. Each of the participants shared her program experiences prior to the start of

interviews so I could modify the questions to fit those experiences. Demographics of the

participants are shown in Table 3 and include grade level, number of years taught, type of

school, and scripted curricula used. Table 4 includes the programs reported by the

participants and a description of each program. Participants were assigned a pseudonym

to protect their identity, which is reported in Table 5. Programs discussed included the

Leveled Literacy Intervention program, Lucy Calkins, Fundations, the Abeka

curriculums, Orton Gillingham, WILSON, Reading Mastery, Cognitive Reading

Strategies, Saxon Math, and Read Well.

Table 3

Participant Demographics

Pseudonym	Years Teaching	Grades	Scripted Programs	School Type
Amy	5	K, 2	Leveled Literacy Instruction; Lucy Calkins	Public
Beth	13	K, 1, 2, 4, 5	WILSON; Reading Mastery; Cognitive Reading Strategies; Leveled Literacy Instruction; Read Well	Public
Denise	5	Math, Coach, Basic Skills Coach, K	Leveled Literacy Intervention; A Beka Reading, Orton-Gillingham	Charter
Ella	5	2, 1, 4	Leveled Literacy Intervention; Next steps in guided reading approach by Jan Richardson	Public
Faith	14	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	Lucy Calkins, Leveled Literacy Intervention	Public
Kayla	16	K, 1, 2, 3	Saxon Reading; Lucy Calkins; Leveled Literacy Intervention Program	Public
Jennifer	13	K	Leveled Literacy Intervention; Lucy Calkins	Public
Hannah	14	K, 2	Treasures Reading Program; Fundations; Tools of the Mind	Charter

Table 4

Scripted Programs Information

Name	Publisher	Content	Grouping	Audience
A Beka Reading	Pensacola Christian College	Reading Comprehension Vocabulary Literature Novels/Biographies Phonics English Spelling/Poetry Writing/Penmanship Art Health Science History Mathematics Developmental Skills	Large Group Small Group One-on-one	PK-12
Cognitive Reading Strategies	Cognitive Reading Strategies	High frequency words and phonics rules only introduced when children encounter them in a text. Repeated high frequency words and numerous phonetically regular words. Comprehension is the goal of reading.	Small group	1-12
Fundations	Wilson	Phonemic awareness Phonics/ word study High frequency word study Reading fluency Vocabulary Comprehension strategies dwriting	Small group Large Group	K-3
Leveled Literacy Intervention System (LLI)	Fountas & Pinnell; Houghton-Mifflin	A combination of reading, writing, phonics and word study Emphasis on comprehending strategies Attention to the features of nonfiction and fiction texts Specific work on sounds, letters, and words Expanding vocabularies Explicit teaching for fluent and phrased reading Opportunities to write about reading to learn a variety of writing strategies.	Small group	K-12
Lucy Calkins	Houghton Mifflin	Foster high-level thinking, Develop and refine strategies for writing across the curriculum Support greater independence and fluency through intensive writing opportunities Performance assessments to help monitor mastery and differentiate instruction Provide a ladder of exemplar texts that model writing progressions Scaffolding	Small group Large group	K-8
Next Steps in guided reading approach by Jan Richardson	Scholastic Teaching Resources	Reading Read-Aloud Shared Reading Independent/Self-Selected Reading Guided Reading Reading Comprehension	Small group Large group	K-8
Orton-Gillingham	Educators Publishing Service, Incorporated	Personalized Multisensory Diagnostic and prescriptive Direct instruction Systematic Phonics Applied Linguistics Systematic and Structured Sequential Positive Reinforcement Cognitive approach	Small group	K-12

Name	Publisher	Content	Grouping	Audience
Read Well	Sopris West Educational Services	Reading Phonemic awareness Phonics Fluency Vocabulary Comprehension strategies	Small group	K-3
Reading Mastery	SRA/McGraw-Hill	Phonemic Awareness Letter-Sound Correspondence Sounding Out of Words Word Recognition Vocabulary Oral Reading Fluency Comprehension	Small group	K-5
Saxon Reading	Houghton-Mifflin	Phonemic Awareness Decoding Spelling and Fluency Phonics	Large group	K-3
Tools of the Mind	Lakeshore Learning	Early Literacy Learning the Alphabet Reading Comprehension Word Building Phonological Awareness Sight Words Vocabulary and Word Work Phonics Fluency Word Families	Large group	Pre K-K
Treasures Reading Program	Mifflin/McGraw-Hill	Word Cards Comprehension Cards Phonics Oral Fluency Reading	Large Group	K-6

Table 5

Participant Identification

Participant Number	Participant Pseudonym
Participant 1	Amy
Participant 2	Beth
Participant 3*	Carol
Participant 4	Denise
Participant 5	Ella
Participant 6	Faith
Participant 7*	Gina
Participant 8	Kayla
Participant 9	Jennifer
Participant 10	Hannah

* *Note*. Participants 3 and 7 started the study but left after the preinterview.

Data Collection

Twenty-five potential participants were invited to participate in the study, and eight participants made it through the prescreening and took part in the study. Of the 25 contacted, 15 chose not to participate or did not reply to my attempts. Ten participants agreed to review the study in more detail, signed and returned the consent form, and participated in a preinterview, which allowed us to devise a plan for each interview. Two participants who originally agreed to take part in the study only participated in the preinterview and then chose to leave the study. Eight participants completed all four interviews of the study. The two participants who began but did not complete the study had all data deleted. Their information was not used in the results.

Purposive criterion sampling was used to select and invite participants for the study. As noted in Chapter 3, criterion sampling allowed me to select participants who might have valuable information that would relate to the topic of study (Salvador et al., 2002). This method was ideal because all of the individuals who participated in the study had experience using a scripted reading program and were able to offer valuable information related to the implementation of each program and their self-efficacy when using a scripted program.

Once approval from IRB was granted, I sent potential participants in elementary schools in the Mid-Atlantic region the invitation to participate letter and the consent form via email. Some preselected potential participants who reviewed both documents declined to participate because of time constraints. These potential participants did not

feel they could give the amount of time required for the study. Other participants requested more detailed information about the study and wanted verification that their name would not be disclosed when providing key information regarding their thoughts and opinions. Others expressed an interest to participate and were eager to share their thoughts. However, many of the participants had time constraints, which impacted data collection. The participants did not feel they had time for three 1-hour interviews. Some participants agreed to participate only if the interviews could be conducted via email or phone. Because they could not commit to the three interviews, they were not considered for the study.

Once enough participants expressed interest in the study, each person received notification to return the consent form either personally or electronically. All participants received a copy of the consent form for their records. Some participants requested that data collection take place via phone, computer, face to face, and email. Ten participants returned the consent forms and agreed to participate in the study. According to Bowen (2008), 10 participants would permit data saturation, where the addition of more participants would not add new information to the study.

Data were collected through a series of three to four interviews with each of the participants. After data from the third interview was transcribed, questions remained or information needed clarification. Therefore, a fourth interview took place so those questions could be answered or clarification of information could be gathered. Email was used to collect consent forms and demographic information. Initial interview questions were sent to prepare individuals for the first interview. All transcribed data from each

interview were sent via email as well. Information about the location, frequency, and

duration of data collection is located in Table 6.

Table 6

Location, Frequency, and Duration of Data Collection

Participant	Interview Location	Frequency	Duration
Amy	Classroom	Once	40 minutes
	Home	Once	60 minutes
	Classroom	Twice	75 minutes, 30 minutes
Beth	Classroom	Three times	60 minutes, 60 minutes, 60 minutes
Denise	Email chat	Once	45 minutes
	Phone	Three times	65 minutes, 70 minutes, 60 minutes
Ella	Classroom	Twice	65 minutes, 65 minutes
	Phone	Twice	55 minutes, 95 minutes
Faith	Classroom	Three times	60 minutes, 65 minutes, 60 minutes
Kayla	Classroom	Four times	60 minutes, 20 minutes, 65 minutes, 65 minutes
Jennifer	Classroom	Four times	60 minutes, 65 minutes, 25 minutes, 60 minutes
Hannah	Email Chat	Twice	65 minutes, 75 minutes
	Phone	Once	25 minutes

Because of the request of two participants, phone conversations and email chat

became the primary methods of data collection. All other interviews took place at a

location convenient to each participant. All interviews were typed and a transcript of each

participant's interview was provided via email. This allowed the participants to review

the data for accuracy and reflect upon their responses. I was also able to add additional

questions to these documents, so each participant could be more prepared for the

following interviews. This also allowed me to control the direction of the questions while still giving the participants the opportunity to become familiar with the questions before the interviews commenced.

The original plan for data collection, discussed in chapter three, needed slight revision during the data collection phase. In the original plan, participant selection stemmed from employment locations to ensure potential participants were in the Mid-Atlantic Region. In addition, participants would have experience using a scripted reading program in a primary classroom within the past two years. It was proposed that teachers would be using a scripted reading program at the time of data collection. However, one participant had recently left the classroom for a promotional teaching assignment; instead of teaching one specific class, she taught many students in a smaller group setting but remained in the primary grades. After leaving the classroom, she continued to use the scripted program in a smaller setting as opposed to a larger group setting. She had recently completed graduate school for her master's degree and found that she enjoyed the smaller group setting more. She felt she could reach more students in a smaller group setting and have a greater impact.

The eight participants in the study were selected from a list of 25 eligible teachers who had agreed to participate in the study. I identified the original list of 25 eligible teachers using the following procedure: First, I sent an initial email to school officials, including principals, county research offices, and board members and explained the study in detail. Once granted approval, all potential, not eligible teachers received an email with the study outlined and the consent form attached. Each person had the option to continue

with the study and return the consent form or decline to participate in the study. Four possible participants declined to participate because of time constraints, and the remainder of possible participants was non-responsive. They felt already pressed for time during their day and did not feel that they would be able to provide the amount of time needed fully to engage in the study.

In addition to a letter of cooperation to each school system, one system also required an application to conduct research to be filed. The approval process for this application lasted eight weeks. Once approval came and the Institutional Review Board approved the study, contact was made. Each potential participant received the Criteria for Selection to Participate checklist (Appendix B). Fortunately, all contacted teachers met the criteria to participate and returned either an electronic copy or a printed copy of the consent form. All consent forms remain on file in my home and are stored under lock and key. All names and identifying information remain confidential as well.

Unfortunately, not everyone who I expected to participate chose to follow through and be interviewed. No reserve members existed, thus only interviews with eight teachers were completed. Others mentioned if participation was lacking they could participate, but data collection might be impacted because they would not be able to meet multiple times. They indicated that they would be willing to do a single interview, but as this did not follow the procedures outline in the proposal, they were not selected for inclusion in the study. A list of these participants remained on file in case additional information was needed to support the research questions. Because saturation was reached by the seventh interview, further participants were not required.

Data collection took place at a location convenient to each participant. Initially, interviews were scheduled to take place at the local library. However, the participants felt more comfortable at their own homes, in their classrooms, or by phone. Although the library would have ensured fewer disruptions and a quiet environment, the locations convenient to each participant worked well. Most of the participants had small children and the option to meet at their home or work location worked better for them.

As the researcher in charge, I collected all data throughout the course of the study. A minimum of three interviews took place after the initial pre-interview; however, the length of time varied depending on the participant's desire to provide information. Sometimes a fourth interview was necessary to answer remaining question or seek clarification after data transcription took place. Generally, the pre-interview was the shortest with subsequent meetings taking more time. The first discussion was a pre-interview, which lasted 30 minutes and allowed the participants and me to determine when to start the interview process, where they would feel most comfortable, and other basic information that would determine how the remainder of the interviews would be conducted. Although the proposal plan was to do three interviews in timeframes of 60 minutes, 60 minutes, and 30 minutes, those plans changed. The pre-interview was 30 minutes, and subsequent interviews lasted from 60-90 minutes. In addition, the original plan was to let each participant share information about some teaching experiences, but as interviews took place, this did not happen.

Establishing a good relationship with the participants took priority over data collection at that point. The first interview was spent answering questions from

participants with a few of my own questions. The second and third interviews allowed me to delve deep into the conversations. This varied from the original plan, as the third interview lasted longer than the proposed time. Many times, a fourth interview took place so to further probe the data. At times, that interview lasted longer than planned as participants started to share specific examples from teaching experiences. The interviews ranged in time from 25 to 95 minutes in length.

Because each participant had the opportunity to read the transcribed data before the second meeting, debriefing was accomplished efficiently. Furthermore, debriefing took place prior to each question, so each participant knew what the conversation would be. In chapter three, I proposed a deeper exploration of experiences and thoughts in the second interview; in reality, this occurred more in the third and fourth interviews. With the probing and clarifying questions, following up with the previous responses allowed me to explore each participant's experience in greater depth than originally planned.

Because of the first interview taking a different direction than proposed in chapter three, the third and even the fourth interviews went a different direction than proposed. No fourth interview was discussed in chapter three. However, this was a necessary addition to the process as this was a clear point in which the participants became comfortable and started to share personal experiences. The final interview was originally planned to be the wrap up interview in which final questions would be asked. However, this interviews played out differently. During this time, the participants not only shared personal stories about current experiences, but started to share past experiences and how things had been different from the first years of teaching with and without such programs.

Originally, the plan was to use an audio tape recorder. However, the recordings took place on an electronic device so they could be stored in a computer with the other pieces of information. Typing proved to be more efficient than handwriting the interviews and key points.

Finally, the original plan was to keep the interviews to one hour. However, once the participants began to share stories, ask questions, and share their passion for teaching, time quickly got away. Allowing the participants to continue past the one-hour mark was valuable in the process as their passion for educating young children became more evident.

During the data collection in the classrooms, teachers who were not participating in the study wanted to come in and join in the conversation. This was not expected, and they were asked to leave. They asked what we were talking about, and then wanted to give their opinion. I encouraged them to complete a hard copy of the consent form, and I would be happy to hear their thoughts. Many declined the offer to participate because of the time required.

The other unusual circumstance was that 15 of the original 25 eligible teachers initially agreed to participate but then never responded to my email communication, my request for a phone number to reach them, or my email chat. Of the 10 who did originally agree to participate, two participants returned consent forms and knew they could leave the study at any given time, but they chose to not respond, decreasing the number of participants to eight.

Data Analysis

Data were prepared for analysis after transcription. Initially, I read and reread the transcripts to gain an understating of the narrative from each participant. During this time patterns, words, and phrases that reoccurred were noted. These data were then uploaded into a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) known as NVivo 11®. This program facilitated the organization of data. NVivo is specially designed to assist with the analysis of large amounts of data within qualitative research data (Janesick, 2004). The collected data were analyzed at my home in a private room. These data were coded for specific themes that emerged as a result of the interviews.

I used a template analysis recommended by King (2004). A template analysis for this study is included in Appendix D and was used as a guide, as the final analysis of the interviews determined the final themes. Information included in the initial template was background history (e.g., inexperience and time allotted), perceived self-efficacy in the teaching of reading, and opinions of the program (e.g., program efficiency and differences in instruction style).

As interviews were analyzed, this template grew into a more detailed list of themes that emerged from the data provided by each participant. The templates were used to help form the themes. Each interview was individually coded. A total of 108 codes were identified during the initial coding stage. The codes that were created used words and phrases to describe the raw data in a manner that highlighted the essential meaning of what the participants said. Creating codes enabled me to begin to see connections and similarities, as well as, differences in the data.

Once the initial coding was complete, I began to sort the codes into similar groups. To be sorted into a group, the codes had to express similar content, share an emotion, or show a relationship. I looked carefully for codes that carried similar intent. For example, the codes of teaching kids, teaching experiences, teaching reading, teaching routines, and teaching skills were all combined to form the group teaching methods. This group was used to contain codes that were related to how the teachers described the actual act of teaching and included skills and experiences. This process was repeated as I worked through all the codes. The grouping of like or related codes continued until no further reduction was possible.

Once sorted, these groups were examined to see if further connections existed. Once connections were identified, groups were gathered to form themes. Groups and themes are reported in Table 7. Because this study was focused on the perception of teachers in general and some of the themes that emerged were dichotomous (i.e., Confidence and Lack of Confidence) or on a spectrum (i.e., Changes in Self-Efficacy), and the sample only contained eight participants, no discrepant cases were identified. Instead, the responses were considered to represent a range of thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, and feelings, which as a whole, described and encompassed the experiences and perceptions of the participants. An effort was made to include the various responses to display a complete picture of the experience and thoroughly answer the research question. No discrepant cases from the explored themes were noted, as the differences in responses were considered to create a complete description of the experiences of the

participants. The variations were thought to display the possible range of responses

typical to a group of teachers employing scripted reading programs.

Table 7

Groups and Themes Resulting From Analysis

Group Name	Final Theme
Self-Efficacy	Self-Efficacy Changes
Increased Self-Efficacy	
Decreased Self Efficacy	
Provide Good Instruction	
Feelings of Self-Efficacy	
Changes in Instruction	
Mixed Feelings	
Knowledge Level	Confidence and Lack of Confidence
Teaching Ability	
Content Knowledge	
Lack of Training	
Teaching Methods	
Increased Confidence	
Decreased Confidence	
Time	Teacher Perspectives on Content and Process in
Programs Used	Scripted Reading Instruction Programs
Results	
Instruction	
Pacing	
Interventions	
Lessons	
Changes to Programs	
Experiences in Using Scripted Programs	
Reading Program Strengths	Strengths of Scripted Learning
Lesson Planning	
Effective Programs	
Positive Results	
Teaching	
Increased Knowledge	
Reading Weakness	Weakness of Scripted Learning
Lack of Education/Training	
Time Constraints	
Don't Like to Follow Scripts	
Lack of Creativity	

The theme *Self-Efficacy Changes* was made up from seven groups of data. The groups were titled *Self-Efficacy, Increased Self-Efficacy, Decreased Self Efficacy, Provide Good Instruction, Feelings of Self-Efficacy, Changes in Instruction,* and *Mixed Feelings*. These groups of data were all connected to teacher remarks regarding self-efficacy. They spoke about self-efficacy in general, as related to themselves and to their teaching ability. The teachers spoke about how they felt the use of scripted reading programs effected their self-perception as teachers. The group of *Self-Efficacy* contained general remarks about self-efficacy. For example, data units included, "self-efficacy was different" and "self-efficacy hasn't changed." This information included statements about self-efficacy but did not indicate specific changes or feelings. *Increased Self-Efficacy* contained quotes such as, "it has improved my self-efficacy," and "my feelings of self-efficacy have strengthened." Other groups contained comments about how self-efficacy affected instruction, their view of themselves, and how it changed their instruction.

The theme *Confidence and Lack of Confidence* was used to describe teacher perceptions of their self-confidence. Teachers spoke in detail about the effect of the use of scripted reading programs on their level of confidence. They discussed how events, such as using the curriculum, training or lack thereof, and their feelings about teaching ability, affected their self-confidence. Self- confidence was connected to their feelings of self-efficacy and important to examine in relation to their perceptions about their personal self-efficacy. Groups that made up this theme were made up of data connected with teaching ability and self-knowledge, areas where they felt positively or negatively about their confidence as well as training and teaching methods in relations to their feelings of

self-confidence. The groups in this theme were named *Knowledge Level, Teaching Ability, Content Knowledge, Lack of Training, Teaching Methods, Increased Confidence,* and *Decreased Confidence.* Some representative quotes found in these groups included, "My confidence is high in relation to content knowledge when using a script." "I felt empowered recently when using the Lucy Calkins scripted reading program." [and] "If you don't have confidence, your students will pick up on it. I definitely have more confidence now." For some of the participants who had little experience teaching reading or little experience teaching in general, these programs were found to be very helpful. The programs gave them a guide to follow, and through use of the scripted programs they learned how to teach the information.

The theme of *Teacher Perspectives on Content and Process in Scripted Reading Instruction Programs* was employed to explore actual teacher experiences with the use of scripted reading programs. This theme encompassed participants' various experiences both positive and negative. They had many differing experiences, and as a whole, had a great deal to say about the use of the programs. The teachers had both positive and negative experiences connected with the use of these programs. One of the areas they spoke about was the amount of time saved through the use of these programs. Because scripted reading programs were in use, time teachers would have spent in creating curriculum was freed to be used in other places, such as designing interventions. The groups that were used to create this theme included *Time, Programs Used, Results, Instruction, Pacing, Interventions, Lessons, Changes to Programs,* and *Experiences in*

Using Scripted Programs. All of these groups were connected to teacher feelings, experiences, reactions, and usage of the scripted programs.

The theme of *Strengths of Scripted Programs* was used to describe teachers' views on the strong points that they believed were found with the use of scripted programming in the classroom. The participants spoke about areas where they found using scripted programming improved their teaching and student learning. This was important in relation to the research question because teachers' perceptions arose from their experiences using these programs. Understanding their viewpoint on the programs themselves was directly linked to the creation of their perceptions. The theme was made up of the following groups: *Reading, Program Strengths, Lesson Planning, Effective Programs, Positive Results, Teaching, and Increased Knowledge*. Teachers had many positive remarks about using scripted programs. They found it to be both effective in improving student outcomes and helpful in organizing and teaching in educational settings.

In the group *Effective Programs,* some of the quotes included comments such as "I think this particular program (LLI) is very effective." "I have seen very good results." [and] "When you see success in that students are progressing and enjoying reading, no matter what program you are using, then you are being effective." In the group (i.e., Lesson Planning) a comment was made, "I feel like it takes less time to plan, and less time to wonder if you are explaining something the best way." Generally, teachers enjoyed using the programs, with two teachers stating they used the programs and did enjoy certain parts, but they did not always follow the scripts. Some of the participants

felt that following scripts verbatim limited their creativity and prevented them from using their best judgement. They found many of the instructions helpful, but where they felt more detail or different wording was necessary, they departed from the prepared materials. These participants wished to infuse their lessons with their own thoughts and views, and believed the only way to do so was to add in information or instructions they believed necessary.

In *Strengths of Scripted Learning*, all data connected with an exploration of the teacher identified strengths of scripted learning programs were gathered together to create a theme. The organized groups of codes gathered to create the theme were *Reading Program Strengths, Lesson Planning, Effective Programs, Positive Results, Teaching,* and *Increased Knowledge.* All of the codes gathered together focused on why the teachers perceived that these programs were effective. The groups included teacher thoughts on the general effectiveness of the programs as well as specific quotes about areas where they thought the scripted programs displayed specific strengths. The participants found that scripted programs helped them be more effective in the classroom. The framework provided by scripted reading programs ensured that they did not miss important content, helped novice teachers feel more confident, and resulted in positive gains. The participants were especially appreciative of the ability to see and measure the academic gains made by their students. The thread that ran through all of the data in this theme was how the scripted reading programs helped their students make gains and helped the teachers be more effective. This theme was an essential component in the answer to the research question. Understanding teacher views on the strengths of the

programs enabled an exploration on why teachers perceived that these programs were useful and bolstered their abilities, which, in turn, played on their views of their self-efficacy as teachers. Some example quotes found in these groups that support the creation of these themes included: "The first time I used an LLI lesson I realized all the things my reading lesson needed to include." "It was comforting and empowering to have it all laid out for me." [and] "We saw many very positive results."

Weakness of Scripted Learning was the final theme created during data analysis. In this theme, teachers spoke about their perception regarding areas where scripted programs had issues. This also played into their perceptions of their self-efficacy by understanding areas the participants considered to be a weakness, an exploration of this could be linked to their perceptions of self-efficacy. The groups used in this theme were *Reading Weakness, Lack of Education/Training, Time Constraints, Don't Like to Follow Scripts,* and *Lack of Creativity.* Exemplar quotes from these groups included: "My own creativity as a teacher is stifled" [and] "There are activities that I often feel are not appropriate for my group at a specific time. They are just not ready." The participants were clear on the areas where they found scripted programs to be ineffective. Most of the issues they noted focused upon a lack of training in using the programs, and issues with feeling constrained by the use of scripts. The participants believed they could use scripted programs more effectively if they received initial and ongoing training in the programs. For many, the learning curve was steep and difficult because a lack of support. Other participants believed that teaching was an art and what skills the teacher possessed was

an integral part of effective teaching. They did not wish to be limited to the script and felt it was important to use their own creativity and abilities.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Credibility refers to the degree to which the results reflect the true and accurate experiences of the participants. To assure credibility, I focused on ensuring that participants were able to provide honest and candid information throughout the interviews. I was careful to create a comforting and welcoming environment. I made sure all participants had copies of the topics being covered before the interviews began to let them prepare and think about what they wished to say. I encouraged participants to elaborate on responses that warranted extra detail and asked them probing questions to elicit additional information.

In addition, interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. Using member-checking verified the accuracy of the recordings (Harper & Cole, 2012). Each participant in the study was provided with a copy of their transcribed responses. Each participant was given a copy of their transcribed interviews for review and verification.

Saturation increased the credibility of the findings of the study by ensuring that the identified themes were confirmed sufficiently by the facts (Morse et al., 2008). Upon analyzing data, saturation was reached during the seventh interview. The themes were described in detail, and data were thick and rich. No other new information arose during analysis of the remaining participants. During data analysis, discrepant or contradictory

cases were sought but not found. All findings were discussed to ensure that the entire breadth of participant perspectives was represented.

I employed epoché, or bracketing, to cast off personal biases and experiences as much as possible, to examine the data from a more objective and unbiased perspective (Moustakas, 1994). Before the interviews began, I spent time thinking about the subject under study and identifying my personal views and biases. I kept these thoughts to the side during interviews and analysis of the data. This was done to ensure that the information was gathered and analyzed free of the influence of biases or preconceived notions.

Transferability

Transferability refers to the ability to generalize the findings to other contexts (Tracy, 2013). In qualitative studies, the degree of transferability of the findings is determined by the reader. To assist in this process, many quotes that came from the interviews were used throughout this section, and the thick and detailed description of the themes and locations was provided.

Dependability

Dependability refers to the extent to which the findings are consistent. In this study, dependability was enhanced through the use of triangulation. In this study, the responses from multiple participants were used to create a complete produce narrative, which more astutely depict the phenomenon of study. The interviews were compared to each other and during the interview process, the participants were asked the same questions to ensure that the answers would be consistent.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings reflect the participants' overall meaning and intention, rather than those of the researcher (Silva & Fraga, 2012). In this study, confirmability was enhanced through the use of reflexivity. I have examined the ways in which personal experiences and biases could affect the research process. Through use of epoché, personal biases were set to the side to examine the data from a fresh and open perspective (Moustakas, 1994).

Results

The research question guiding this study was, what are teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy as they implement scripted reading instruction in the primary grades? The themes that were found are reported in this section. Analysis of the data resulted in five major themes: (a) *self-efficacy changes,* (b) *confidence and lack of confidence*, (c) *experiences with guided reading instruction programs,* (d) *strengths of scripted learning,* and (e) *weakness of scripted learning.*

Two of the terms that were explored in the themes were self-efficacy and self-confidence. Self-efficacy was defined in Chapter 1 as perceptions of how people think, feel, and motivate themselves; perception of how people behave. Perceived self-efficacy relates to the belief that people bestow upon their capabilities that yield an extremely desirable performance (Bandura, 1994; Pajares, 1992). Self-confidence was defined as trusting the soundness of one's own judgment and performance (Jeffries, 2005). Given the nature of the research question, examining changes in self-efficacy and self-confidence aided in understanding teachers' perceptions of their own agency.

Understanding the participants' viewpoints regarding the experiences, strengths, and weaknesses of scripted reading programs contributed to the understanding of their perceptions and aided in creating a robust picture of their experiences

Self-Efficacy Changes

Changes in self-efficacy that linked to the use of the various scripted reading programs are important to understand in relation to the examination of teachers' perceptions about the use of these programs and their individual self-efficacy. All of the participants indicated that using the scripted reading programs generally increased feelings of self-efficacy. They believed that the programs were useful and provided a great deal of guidance and planning assistance. Amy specifically spoke about how she felt the use of the program helped her transition from one activity to another in leveled literacy intervention (LLI) when working with struggling readers. She said:

I felt/feel very self-efficient while using scripts. When you are not using the script, sometimes it's harder to find the smooth transition from reading to writing to phonics. When something is scripted like LLI is, you don't need to worry about those things. I feel like it takes less time to plan, and less time to wonder if you are explaining something the best way. When I see the progress being made and how easily the kids are understanding what I'm reading/saying, it definitely helps me have more faith in the program I'm using.

She could see the effect she was having on her students' achievement levels and did enjoy being able to make a difference. She found it to be a relief to use the programs because it freed her to focus on delivering instruction rather than planning out every

aspect of an instructional block. This enabled her to focus more on the delivery of the instruction and make sure the proper anchor charts, books, and materials were ready each day instead of focusing on the flow of the lesson. This also allowed for smoother transitions and she did not have to worry about behavior problems taking place during that time or the students not understanding the expectations. For young children maintaining focus is a task and improving the flow of the lessons is easier with a scripted program.

Amy used guided reading selectively in her classroom. She grouped her students by need and not by reading level. She believed that although the children at were at different reading levels, it was more important to group them based on deficits similarities. She spoke about using scripted reading instruction and stated, "My self-efficacy is better because I am extremely familiar with the program. I have always felt pretty efficient but I feel more so since I've been doing it so long." She spoke about how she used the program for whole group lessons and said, "I feel most confident with the book introduction. I feel that I have been able to carry that over from LLI [Leveled Literacy Instruction] to GR [Guided Reading] to whole group lessons. I find the kids more excited about reading when given a proper book introduction." She was able to internalize some of the scripted activities and use them to the benefit of all of her students. Despite my efforts to understand this in each interview, she did not elaborate further on her thinking. According to Amy, seeing her students' engagement with the material proved the effectiveness of the instruction and made her believe in her power to make a difference for her students.

Denise had slightly mixed feelings about the effect of scripted programs on her self-efficacy. She spoke about the program and reported that she was told to use it by her school officials. She employed the program when she was in the classroom with all of her students as well as in small group instructional settings. When asked about it, she stated:

I felt that prepping was easier with scripted materials; however, I didn't own the program because I just read from a script. I made sure all of my materials were ready, I went through the program, and because I had classroom management the students flourished. For materials that were not scripted, I studied the materials more thoroughly so that I could adequately teach it.

For her, the use of the programs made teaching easier, but she did not feel ownership because she did not create the materials. She felt her students did well, and she was able to make a difference.

Ella spoke about how the use of scripted reading programs affected her instruction. She said, "A scripted program actually makes me feel much more effective as a reading teacher." Her self-efficacy increased because of the use of the program. She reported, "When I plan my lessons for my non-scripted lessons, I often wonder if I have highlighted all of the skills correctly." When she worked with scripted programs, she was confident that she was covering the most important information necessary for student success. She did not have the same level of confidence in her ability to make sure this occurred with unscripted lesson planning. For her, the use of a scripted program increased her level of confidence in the material she was teaching as she said, "With the scripted program, I feel much more confident in the material I am teaching, specifically

the phonics pieces of the program. With the phonics piece, I knew exactly how to teach the students vowel sounds and endings, but in a sequential order. I felt that I had direction and that my lessons had a purpose and flowed and included all of the components needed to really teach students how to read."

Beth had a slightly different view on her self-efficacy. She chose to use an older scripted program that she felt was more effective than a newer adoption, and she was criticized for that decision. She stated:

What's frustrating is while I know that some programs are not officially accepted by the county, I choose to implement them to improve my own self efficacy when teaching kids the process of learning to read. What I don't like is when admin or other teachers *report me* as using materials not up to date (i.e., older version, same program different pacing) or county approved because of the circumstances from the author.

Beth did not clarify which version of the program she was using. She also did not specify anything about the pacing. What she did elaborate on was that she was frustrated because the school did not purchase newer versions of the scripted program that she had used previously, because school officials in charge of purchasing such materials did not care for this particular program. However, she knew the program worked and because there was no money for a newer version, she used an older version to help students understand the skill they needed to move forward in their learning. When asked who in the county made the decisions and what qualified him or her to make the decisions, Beth replied:

> We have a reading specialist who makes the decision on which programs to use. The cognitive reading strategies [program] is no longer county approved, but it is an amazing program that allows for great success and progress to be made. The county decided to no longer use this program because it is not a research-based program.

She continued and stated that she knew it worked and she still used it to support her students. She expressed frustration because the school refused to purchase newer materials for these programs because they were not approved for use by the county. However, she believed the program worked and continued to use it in spite of all opposition. Although she pointed out her frustration with having to use older materials, Beth stated that she knew in her heart the power these programs had. Therefore, she continued to use the materials she had to support the students and their learning needs, but also continued to improve her own self-efficacy by following a script that was written to help students be successful.

Kayla was quite enthusiastic about the effect of scripted programs on her self-efficacy. She said, "The implementation of the scripted reading program has strengthened my feelings of self-efficacy. The scripted program helps me to sometimes think outside of the box and it gives me additional ideas, activities and ways of teaching that I might not have thought of myself." She felt that she had learned many things from the program and was able easily to add to her level of knowledge. She believed using the program taught her how to structure her reading block so that she had a balance of independence, guided instruction, phonics, and writing.

Ella spoke about her feelings of self-efficacy and the learning curve she dealt with when teaching reading. She took children's literature in college, but she was never formally trained on how to teach reading to children. She had knowledge of the different parts of reading, but did not know how to teach reading. She stated:

It has taken me five years of teaching reading, three of which were with a scripted program as part of my instruction, to feel somewhat confident in my [abilities]. It has helped me to become a better reading teacher, since I had never been able to teach reading prior to this. It's not something they teach you in college. You have to adapt the program to meet the needs of the learners. It has improved my self-efficacy as a whole because this program is research [based].

She felt the use of scripted learning helped her teach reading and provided the necessary background she needed for teaching the subject. She learned about the prerequisites for effective reading instruction and how to identify areas of weakness in children's foundation for reading. She found that some children needed more phonics instruction before they could read, while others needed more background knowledge. Other issues she identified included children needing sentence frames to write and some children needed letters to move around and charts to identify letters. Once she felt more comfortable with the information she learned through the use of these programs, her feelings of self-efficacy increased.

Hannah felt that her self-efficacy increased with the use of scripted learning. She said it took some time for her to understand how the program worked. She spoke about this when she said:

My self-efficacy is definitely higher now compared to when I first started

using Tools of the Mind. The first year implementing the curriculum I

didn't understand the purpose for certain activities. It was eye opening to

see how the activities/literacy games led my students to work

independently in centers. They had developed a love for writing and

reading in kindergarten.

Once Hannah began to understand the program and see results, she felt as if she had

helped her students, and her self-efficacy rose.

Confidence and Lack of Confidence

All of the participants spoke about their confidence. They had some differing

viewpoints about whether their confidence increased, decreased, or was unaffected by the

use of a scripted program. Jennifer was quite confident in her teaching practices.

Although she did not follow the script exactly how it was written, she felt that she had a

good understanding of the process of teaching students to read and finding ways to meet

school mandated benchmarks. She also noted that the scripted model made the teaching

routine easier in terms of the planning her classes. She said:

I think that you have to be much more inventive and creative when coming up

with the appropriate activities for each group when you are not working with a

scripted program. You may have seven groups in your classroom and each needs

a lesson catered to its unique needs. This requires a lot of thought and planning

and it is time consuming.

Thus for her, the use of a scripted program freed up time and energy, and enabled her to work on the act of teaching rather than creating lessons. She used the scripted program more as a guide and less as a script. She expressed, "As a teacher, you have to know what your kids needs and what skills they need help with. If you don't have that understanding the script isn't going to help you much." She expressed that she used the script to help her focus her lessons on specific skills and concepts based on the needs of the students. She said she followed the book walk, reading, and comprehension exactly how it was written and often followed the phonics at times if it was a skill the students needed. Sometimes she looped back to previous skills taught to reinforce them at that moment. She followed the writing less because the grade level she worked with writing was still a challenge. She would rather use that time working on phonics and reading skills.

Kayla felt quite confident in her skills. She loved teaching reading and felt comfortable with or without a script. She said:

> Reading is truly my strong suit! I work hard researching programs that I can use to help my struggling readers become successful readers. I have always studied my curriculum and content to make certain that I am knowledgeable pertaining to what I need to teach my students. My lessons are carefully planned and differentiated according to my student's needs. I also plan centers and activities that will reach all learning styles. I work with my students one-on-one or in a small group in order to strengthen areas of weakness. I am extremely confident in providing reading instruction to my students.

She believed in taking the best of everything she had ever learned and using it for the benefit of her students. She chose to spend time learning new information to ensure she stayed current on the use of the curriculum. Kayla built her confidence on a bedrock of confidence and knowledge. She used the scripted reading programs because she found them valuable and felt that the information made her a more effective teacher. Despite my efforts to gather more specific examples of ways she differentiated instruction, Kayla offered minimal examples. When asked for specific ways she differentiated instruction, Kayla responded by saying:

> You know, they do independent word work activities to support the skill or strategy learned in the mini-lesson, or they practice reading skills taught in the mini-lesson by either reading to self or partner reading. We spend a lot of time on how these activities work and sound so when the students practice these skills I know they are working on the skill. This also gives me time to work with reading groups and focus on specific strategies or even read with kids based on their level.

Amy spoke about her use of the scripted learning programs. She reported that her use of the programs greatly increased her self-confidence. She described her use of the programs when she said:

> I feel very confident in using LLI and the scripted program. I have been using it with many different populations of students for the past 5 years of my teaching. I have seen it bring kids from not knowing their alphabet letters to being on grade level in one year, showing MORE than a year's worth of growth. Because of what I have seen it do, I feel very confident in the program and I enjoy using it in my

intervention groups. I have also started using some of the same language in my

own regular guided reading groups.

She found the program's technique so powerful that she chose parts of the program to use

with all of her students, not just the students who were struggling. Amy watched children

gain skills quickly and believed that she caused the changes to occur because of her use

of the scripted programs. Interestingly, this level of confidence and self-efficacy did not

translate to other teaching settings. Amy spoke about the scripted program and said:

It's not about confidence. I feel I do a good job but also feel I could do better. I

don't feel the script teaches me how to be a better teacher. I feel it teaches me

how to teach them skills. The introduction part is the best part, which allows me

to carry it over into my guided reading and whole group reading…. I am new to

the grade and not really knowing the perfect spot, there's been no training and I

did not get a degree in [a specialization suited for] a reading teacher. I am a self-

taught reading teacher. I am going on experiences and my own teaching to guide

it. I piece parts together but still question my methods and if I am doing it right.

She worried that without the scripted reading program, she would be unable to teach as

effectively. She thought that she did not gain any generalizable teaching skills; rather, she

just learned how to use the program and how to teach the program. One of her biggest

concerns was the fact that she did not have any education about teaching reading. She

was self-taught, and she felt that was a weakness.

For other teachers, the issues in using scripted reading programs differed, and that

affected their confidence. Beth had issues with being unable to adjust the program to suit

her classroom. She stated, "I feel impeded when I do not have the support from others in a building to use my professional judgment as the teacher to tweak the program/grouping/pacing as my students require." She looked at the mandate to use a specific program as a judgment on her professionalism and was frustrated by the lack of control she had over these decisions.

Denise had yet a different issue. Her self-efficacy and self-confidence were not strong when it came to teaching reading on her own. She felt dependent on the program. Denise reported struggling with her levels of confidence. She worried about how she was implementing the scripted programs and if she was doing it correctly. She felt that without a script, she could not be effective. She stated, "When doing lessons without a script I felt apprehensive because I wasn't sure if I were teaching the program to fidelity. I conferenced often with my mentor to make sure I was on point with the standard I was set to teach." For her, the script became the ultimate guide to how to teach, and without it, she felt insecure. Ella also struggled with confidence issues and stated:

> I was not trained properly. I watched the DVDs and trained myself. I didn't fully
>
> understand the components to what I was doing. I did my best to follow it and I
>
> was reading the script. I did not feel that I ever had any real training.

Her lack of confidence sprung from a lack of formalized training. She was frustrated with both a lack of formal reading training and a lack of training in implementing the scripted reading program. She did not receive any formal training in the use of the guided reading program until her third year of teaching. Because she was self-taught, she was not sure of how well she implemented the program. She continued on to state, "I am least confident

in my ability to teach reading above all other subjects. Therefore, I struggle to plan my own lessons." A lack of training coupled with the fear of teaching reading made this area of instruction a struggle.

Hannah believed that the use of a scripted program had no impact on her confidence level. She did not believe that the use or lack of use of a scripted program should affect confidence. She said:

> I believe because you have to exhibit confidence in what you are teaching. If you don't have confidence your students will pick up on it. I definitely have more confidence now. For her, confidence came from experience in teaching. It was not connected a program, instead it was something that came from within.

Amy also had some issues with using the scripted learning programs. She spoke about the scripted learning reading program she used and stated, "[I'm] not as confident. I feel I do a good job but also feel I could do better. I don't feel the script teaches me how to be a better teacher." For her, the program created a sense of confidence only for the specific lessons taught, without generalization to other teaching situations. She did not feel the programs made her a better teacher, it simply enabled her to teach a subject she did not know well. She went on to speak about her training and said:

> I am new to the grade and not really knowing the perfect spot, there's been no training and I did not get a degree in a reading teacher. I am a self-taught reading teacher. I am going on experiences and my own teaching to guide it. I piece parts together but still question my methods and if I am doing it right.

Amy worried that she was teaching what the programs said; however, she was never sure if she was teaching the material completely correctly. She also felt that this lack of training and knowledge hampered her as a teacher and said:

> I feel like I am a better just moving along but not really solving their problems to be. I don't feel that I have the knowledge to push them into reaching their goals. I know that introduction to a book is key, writing after reading is key, words/word families and sounds are essential. I only feel confident but I don't think that I have enough information to be empowered.

Although she was confident in teaching, she did not feel that she knew enough about teaching reading to support her students completely. She worried that her lack of knowledge could have a negative effect on her students and prevent them from learning everything they needed. Jennifer, unlike Amy, was quite confident in her skills. She used the pieces of scripted learning that she found helpful but tended to focus on using her own curriculum and skills. She said it was generally the word work piece she used the most. She mentioned that she could have multiple groups working on different skills, so she used a variety of levels to address those skills. She stated that it could be a lot of work to create activities to meet all of the needs of each student. For example, she stated, "This year, we had 30 at-risk students who needed an intervention. I had to look at who already had the letter and sound concepts to group them according to their skill need. Not everyone was ready, but those who were needed specific letter/sound combination practice." She felt that she had a good handle over the process of teaching students to read and finding ways to meet those [mandatory] benchmarks.

Overall, some teachers felt a degree of freedom in using the materials for specific needs they knew their students needed as opposed to being told when and with whom to use the programs. Others felt more compelled to follow the script as it was written and felt they had less freedom. Those who felt less freedom were observed by their administrators and leadership teams to monitor their work. Data were charted for each student to monitor their growth through the program. Social pressure was not an issue. The expectation at the school was that they would use the programs with fidelity and monitor the student growth. Those who felt they had more freedom were monitoring student progress twice a month but were not under the same constraints as those who were observed using the program. Discussions took place with teachers and administrators to ensure the programs were a good fit for the students. If progress was not made as expected, other discussions took place to ensure those students were getting the necessary skills in another manner.

Teachers found themselves, transformed themselves, and learned certain ways to share the information with their students in other ways outside of the curriculum. Teachers described how they used the book introductions across the language arts block because they allowed the students to get more background information about a particular topic. Some children had little to no background knowledge about particular events or information, and with a proper book walk or introduction, they were able to have something that would help them understand the content in some way.

Teacher Perspectives on Content and Process in Scripted Reading Instruction Programs

All of the participants were eager to share information about their experiences with reading instruction throughout the course of their careers. They had a wide variety of experiences and spoke at length. Kayla stated that her typical Language Arts block lasted for two hours and did not include the dedicated time set aside for intervention groups in which she used in a different scripted reading program. With the children in interventions groups, she reported using the Leveled Literacy Intervention Program.

Kayla wanted to discuss the Lucy Calkins program that she used because she believed that it had affected her teaching and her self-efficacy in a greater degree. When asked to compare the LLI program with the Lucy Calkins program, she stated "I like how she breaks down the lessons. She starts with a short, 15 minute, easy to follow format for the kids to understand. It includes reading and writing and it rotates units."

Kayla believed that the reading program was more solid than was the writing program. When using the program, she indicated that she would do a reading unit and then a writing unit. She did not combine the units and do them together. When asked to compare Saxon reading with Lucy, she replied:

> It [Saxon] is more phonics rich and phonics based, and the Lucy program does not get into phonics at all. It is assumed the kids already have that knowledge. If they don't, I have to teach it before I can move forward with the script since it is not in there.

She found the programs she used to make a difference for her students and felt that the programs were both helpful and effective. At the same time, Kayla said:

> When I first started teaching, I felt that I needed the scripted programs, but now I definitely know that I don't have to use a scripted program. I actually prefer not to use the program. I like to teach students using my own materials and knowledge of the curriculum. I feel the scripted program slows me down in a sense if I use it appropriately.

When questioned further about this and her endorsement of the Lucy program, she elaborated:

> I don't leave it [the script] behind . . . I add to it to beef it up. The script might not apply to the majority of the children high ESOL population to reach the children who need more or something else to better their learning. There are certain things that she will reference, and I would rewrite the script based on their knowledge. You really have to know and understand the kids and what they need and their experiences or their prior knowledge. For example, she wanted to use Amelia Bedelia, and I changed it to Junie B Jones. I changed it to Junie B because they have the background knowledge of it.

For this participant, it was more a matter of content and the overall picture. She would use what she thought was effective and modify the remainder of the script to adapt it for her students' experiences and needs.

Denise had been using the LLI for almost two years. She described the program in detail in the following:

This program is an intervention program designed for students who are not

making benchmark. The program dives deep into reading comprehension with a

phonics piece as well. Each lesson is scripted with specific wordage and verbiage

to use with the students to help close the achievement gaps. Each lesson consists

of a re-read of a book, a new book, word work, a writing piece, and phonics work.

Each lesson may be slightly different, but it always follows the same pattern. This

helps the students to become familiar with the program and become comfortable

with the program. We have seen great gains in our low students ever since

adopting this program.

She was pleased to note the changes that the scripted programs made it easier for lower

achievers. The program was direct and easy to follow. Because of the nature of the

program and the repetitive pattern, she believed that students did well because they knew

what to expect and could move forward and focus on the content rather than learning a

new method of delivery. This increased her feeling of competence and enabled her to

continue to focus on her students.

Denise also spoke about the use of multiple Abeka curricula for the past five

years. She described the programs as scripted with specific wordage and verbiage to use

with the students to aid them in understanding the lessons being taught. She focused on

speaking about the Abeka reading comprehension and phonics programs. Some of the

strengths associated with the program were the materials and handouts that came with the

program, which helped to reinforce the concept being taught. She liked the structure and

as with other programs and believed this made it easier for students to follow and focus

on the material being taught. For her, this helped increase her belief in the effectiveness of this type of instruction, and helped her to feel as though she was being an effective teacher.

Finally, Denise spoke about the Orton Gillingham program. She noted that this program was scripted as the other programs. She said that Orton Gillingham was originally designed for use with individuals with dyslexia primarily in tutorial settings; however, it was found to be appropriate for use with a variety of students. Denise provided a rationale for using the Orton Gillingham materials for a wider variety of students than those for which the materials were originally designed. She reported that national studies had shown that more than 30% of children were not reading at grade level when they entered third grade, and those students required direct, explicit instruction to become successful readers. Denise finished by saying that it had been found that all learners benefit from this program.

Beth went back to school to get a master's degree in reading. She believed that the need for trained reading instructors was critical. She has taught multiple grade levels and used multiple scripted reading programs. Some of the programs she had used included WILSON, Reading Mastery, Cognitive Reading Strategies, Leveled Literacy Instruction, and Read Well. She had also trained to use a new program, Language! but did not use it in the classroom at the time of data collection. She did not know it well enough to be able to explain the program clearly. She did state that with such a variety of scripted programs at her fingertips, she did not get to use them all. Beth said that she often worked with students using a scripted reading program in a small group as opposed to a larger group

setting. For Beth, the ability to have many different programs was helpful in meeting student needs. However, because of the plethora of material she had available, some programs were not used or fully integrated into her daily practice.

Jennifer had been teaching kindergarten for the past 13 years. She had not taught any other grade level during that time. When she first started teaching, kindergarten was only a half-day long. She had no specific reading instruction during that time because the day was much too short. She did incorporate guided reading into her day once full day kindergarten was implemented. However, she was unsure if it was from the beginning of the lengthened school day. She indicated that she used the Leveled Literacy Intervention program in her classroom at the time of data collection. In addition to this scripted instruction, she incorporated writer's workshop, literacy stations, and guided reading into her daily schedule.

Jennifer spoke further about the Leveled Literacy Intervention Program. This program was used with kindergarten students who did not meet the fall Developmental Reading Assessment Word Analysis (DRA2WA) benchmark. The benchmark for this test was a score of 61. The DRA2WA is administered one-on-one with the teacher, and portions of the assessment include oral responses. The assessment contained 11 tasks including the following skills: (a) alliteration, (b) rhyming, (c) upper case letter identification (d) lower case letter identification, (e) recognition of high frequency words (f) writing high frequency words (g) segmenting sentences into words (h) identifying name and letters in name, (i) producing initial sounds in words (j) reading with one-to-one and identifying words in a passage, and (k) identifying letter sounds and words. Once

reading levels were determined, she stated that students with similar needs were grouped together.

Although Jennifer stated that she saw the benefits of a scripted reading program and found it helpful to have a guide for instruction, she did not follow it to the letter. She felt that it made planning much easier because she was already planning so many different parts of the day. She stated:

> I may not think that an activity is *right* for my group, so I use my discretion. I also think the pacing depends on the group of children you are working with. I tend to supplement with sound activities as these are not a big part of LLI.

All of these participants found the scripted programs to be very helpful. They believed the programs were effective and helped students to learn. Most of the participants reported followed the programs, but many also did modify the curriculum when they believed it was necessary.

Strengths of Scripted Learning

All of the participants had positive remarks regarding the use of scripted learning programs. Many of the participants had positive experiences with the use of scripted teaching programs. Four of the participants spoke about the fact that using scripted programs made planning lessons much easier. Jennifer felt that it made planning easier and gave her time to plan other parts of the school day. Amy went into detail about this and said:

> The lessons are organized into folders, and I do a folder a day. I have a teacher's manual with a script, and I just go. This saves an immense amount of time. I can

truly just focus on the lesson itself and my kiddos, and not the planning, copying, and searching for resources, books, teaching points. It makes me feel extremely prepared, which makes me feel very efficient.

She enjoyed being able to focus on her students and their progress instead of spending time trying to organize lesson plans. Kayla said that each day before the children arrived, she mapped out the day planning, who she needed to see in a conference, and who she needed to meet with in a group. She indicated that the script provided her with questions to ask the students during their conference time. Thus, Kayla was able to maximize her time and focus on asking students effective questions based on the scripts rather than having to search through each assignment and create questions.

Kayla went on to speak about using the scripted programs when she first began teaching. She said:

They [scripted programs] were awesome. As a brand new educator, the scripted programs helped me plan and organize my lessons. I was able to use the information provided and add my own knowledge to make the lessons my own. Reflecting back, I now realize the scripted lessons helped me to think deeper about the lessons that I was teaching and step outside the box of mundane lessons and activities that I might have taught my students.

She found the use of scripted programs facilitated her planning, gave her creative teaching methods that she may have not known, and helped her be comfortable with the content. Kayla believed that as a first year teacher, it provided excellent support and structure for her as well as for her students.

Denise had a similar experience, and said that she felt more comfortable teaching using the scripts because she believed they enabled her to cover the required material without forgetting anything. Denise praised scripted programs and stated, "Most are easy to follow, which makes it easy." She went on to say, "I felt that prepping was easier with scripted materials." It saved her time and helped her to focus on managing her students rather than managing the curriculum. Denise also credited scripted learning programs for teaching her to understand what students should learn. She remarked, "I have come to have a deep understanding of specific questions that should be asked and how to ask them to students in the most effective manor for the students."

Hannah spoke about how scripted learning helped her learn the purpose of some of the methods used in the classroom. She stated:

> The first year implementing the curriculum, I didn't understand the purpose for certain activities. It was eye opening to see how the activities/literacy games led my students to work independently in centers. They had developed a love for writing and reading in kindergarten.

She was able to connect activates to outcomes and learn how different experiences enabled students to learn information.

Ella found the use of scripted learning programs helped her ensure that all required content was covered. She felt more confident in her teaching because she was able to teach and feel secure in the knowledge that the students were receiving the necessary information. She found scripted learning programs especially effective for her when it came to reading instruction. Ella stated, "I am least confident in my ability to

teach reading above all other subjects. Therefore, I struggle to plan my own lessons." She went on to say that the first time she used a scripted learning program, she could relax because everything she needed was at her fingertips. She said, "It was comforting and empowering to have it all laid out for me." Ella also felt positive about the structure of the materials and remarked that she like the program because she could be, "Fairly confident that I am targeting skills in a logical sequence." Thus, she was able to teach the content and teach it in a manner she felt was efficient logical and well thought out. Ella concluded by saying:

> I have found that every single year, I am better able to wrap my head around what
> I want my students to know and understand at the end of the day. Using this
> program has really helped me to be a better teacher. I never really understood it in
> college or in high school, and it was not something that stuck with me, but after
> using this program for five years, I have been able to become a better teacher to
> know and understand what students need [from me].

At the time of data collection, she reported feeling like an effective teacher who was able to teach reading and understand how to teach the subject. The scripted learning programs helped her schedule her day, and ensure that she was able to be effective in teaching reading.

Weaknesses of Scripted Learning Programs

All participants had some challenges with the use of scripted learning programs. Although Kayla initially loved using scripted programs when she was a novice teacher, as

time passed, she began to chafe at some of the restrictions imposed by simply following a script. She said:

> Over the years, I have felt impeded when using a scripted reading program. For example, I have felt that I could include certain types of content in with a lesson to speed up the teaching/learning, but the scripted program had the information separate or on a different day. I have felt like the scripted program slowed me down a bit in teaching a particular lesson, concept or skill.

At the time of data collection, she remarked that she preferred to not use the programs because she preferred to use her own materials and knowledge. She said, "I feel the scripted program slows me down in a sense if I use it appropriately." She wanted to use her own skills and materials to help her students and felt it was important to do so.

Denise said that although she liked using scripted programs, she believed that her creativity was stifled, and she did not have ownership over the curriculum. She also criticized the use of scripted programs:

> I also feel that there are times when I need to deviate from the program to make sure a foundational piece that the student is missing is taught to them. I also feel that there are times that a scripted reading program is not appropriate for all students.

She believed that an education was not a one-size-fits-all proposition, and that students sometimes needed individualized attention, and the scripted programs did not allow for this to occur. She specifically talked about those students who did not have enough English language to benefit from this particular program. She knew they needed another

type of program that would give them the foundational skills necessary, so they could eventually benefit from the specified scripted program mandated by the school.

Summary

All of the participants in this study indicated that using the scripted reading programs led to increased feelings of self-efficacy. The teachers believed that the scripted reading programs were useful and provided a great deal of guidance and planning assistance. Although they might not always use the scripts as written, they did take what they found useful, and some reported using the program information across settings. All of the participants spoke about their confidence. They had different ideas about their confidence, with some reporting an increase, and others reporting a decrease. The participants spoke about both the strengths and weakness of the scripted learning programs and were detailed in their descriptions of their use of the programs. All of the participants were eager to share information about their experiences with reading instruction throughout the course of their careers and were open and honest in their responses.

Chapter 4 has been a report of the results of this study. Included in this chapter are the key themes that surfaced from data analysis. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the results, implications of this study, and recommendations for further research. Chapter 5 also includes social change implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

In this qualitative phenomenological study, I explored the self-efficacy of teachers who implemented a scripted reading program in their classrooms on a daily basis. The purpose of the study was to explore teachers' self-efficacy using scripted reading programs as a result of the legal mandates with which teachers must comply. Exploring teachers' experiences when using a scripted reading program was important because the use and implementation of these programs can lead to negative outcomes for teachers, including feelings of powerlessness, lack of autonomy, and feelings of being overwhelmed (Costello & Costello, 2016; Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). In addition, better understanding of teachers' experiences with scripted reading instruction was needed to help administrators make informed decisions regarding implementation of reading programs that serve the needs of teachers and students.

The research question guiding the study allowed me to explore the experience of self-efficacy for teachers required to implement scripted reading instruction in the primary grades. Eight primary grade teachers in elementary schools in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States participated in the study. Five themes became evident: (a) self-efficacy changes, (b) confidence and lack of confidence, (c) teacher perspectives on content and process in scripted reading instruction programs, (d) strengths of scripted learning, and (e) weaknesses of scripted learning. This chapter contains interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for further research, implications for practice and social change, and a conclusion.

Interpretation of the Findings

Self-Efficacy Changes

Many of the participants reported that using the scripted reading programs generally increased feelings of self-efficacy. Many felt that the programs were useful and provided a great deal of guidance and planning assistance for them. Participants noted in using the programs over the course of time that their confidence and self-efficacy increased not only through the use of the specific program but also through the routine of implementing reading and writing instruction. In addition, some participants reported that scripted reading programs helped them in areas in which they had previously struggled: transitioning between lessons, selection of material, and the use of additional supplementary materials for reading aloud and for whole group and small group lessons. One participant expressed how a scripted reading program challenged her to extend her own thinking beyond the program, which gave her additional ideas, activities, and ways of teaching she might not have thought of otherwise.

This finding suggested that the use of scripted reading programs helped some teachers build self-efficacy through meeting challenges and supported Bandura's theory that mastery experiences (e.g., meeting challenges) are necessary to enhance self-efficacy (Cornick, 2015). Difficult tasks are viewed as challenges, and confident individuals develop ways to meet those challenges instead of avoid them. When individuals possess confidence, they approach tasks differently than those who do not possess confidence (Sharp, Brandt, Tuft, & Jay (2016).

When teachers view a task as too difficult, however, they may miss the opportunity to develop their self-efficacy (Sharp, et al., 2016). One participant, Ella, felt her self-efficacy and self-confidence were not strong when it came to teaching reading on her own. Consequently, the scripted program helped to diminish her self-efficacy because she felt overly dependent on the program, and it did not allow her the opportunity to build confidence. She did not have formal training on how to teach reading, and without the script she felt unprepared and as if she was not teaching reading correctly. She had a perception that there was a right and wrong way to teach reading, and without the script she felt she was teaching the children incorrect skills and strategies. She felt that without the script she did not have the tools in her toolbox to allow her to carry out the lessons. She became dependent on the script and felt that if she had to teach without it, her teaching would suffer. She was never given strong instruction on how to teach reading and what to expect when teaching reading.

The program she used gave her the confidence to know what to teach and exactly how to teach, but gave her no foundation for a sense of teaching efficacy. She indicated that she had become so dependent on the script that the thought of deviating from it made her feel less confident in her teaching as if there was suddenly a right or wrong way to teach children how to read. She indicated that she adapted the script as she went, but also felt that if something was not working, she could always refer back to the script as a safety net. Being too dependent on the script and worrying about what might happen if she deviated from it did not allow this teacher to meet challenges on her own and thus build self-efficacy.

According to Sharp et al. (2016), those who have low self-efficacy are their own worst enemies. They distress themselves and impair their level of functioning through ineffective thinking wherein they magnify the severity of possible problems and worry about negative situations (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). In addition, individuals need challenges and mastery experiences to build self-efficacy (Cornick, 2015).

Confidence and Lack of Confidence

All participants spoke about how the use of a scripted reading program influenced their confidence. In addition, participants reported differing viewpoints about whether their confidence increased, decreased, or was unaffected by the use of a scripted program. Teaching reading is about more than teaching students to identify the words on a page; it is also about teachers feeling they possess the skills and abilities needed to explain complex processes involved in reading (van Kuijk, Deunk, Bosker, & Ritzema, 2016).

One participant, Kayla, reported that the use of a scripted reading program increased her feelings of confidence in teaching reading because the program provided a plan that freed up time and energy for teaching that she usually spent planning lessons. She felt that she needed to have something for everyone to do all throughout the reading block. She did not realize that students could be working on different skills at the same time with a group of books. She was constantly trying to find ways to keep students engaged with supplemental materials to support their learning while still trying to do guided reading and meet with all students at least once during the week. With the script, she learned ways to leverage her time, which allowed her to teach to every student and work with small groups while others were still working independently.

Amy reported that her confidence using the program stemmed from her 5 years of successful experience with the program. Her hands-on experience gained through scripted instruction included having students interact with this teacher during a read-aloud, having students point to words as they worked on shared reading, having students read and share their writing, and having students point out when she was making mistakes, and having them tell her why. This finding supports that of van Aalderen-Smeets (2012), who found that concrete hands-on experiences and experiential learning helped build teachers' confidence levels.

Ella indicated that self-initiated professional development was crucial to her feeling confident and learning how to use a scripted reading program. This self-initiated professional development included watching instructional videos she found on YouTube on her own time and attending professional development activities in another district. These activities allowed the participant to understand how the scripted reading program worked, which enhanced her confidence. This finding supports those of Al Otaiba, Lake, Scarborough, Allor, & Carreker (2016), who found that professional development helped support learning and promoted confidence in preservice and novice teachers.

Some participants felt that professional development was necessary, but they were not provided adequate professional development support. As a result, some participants sought out their own professional development and expressed a desire for professional development support to be offered more consistently. One individual in charge of teacher training indicated that she was not doing the teachers justice because she was not providing enough program training.

According to Al Otaiba et al. (2016), teachers of reading should be confident in their knowledge of the phonemes, syllables, and morphemes so they can provide effective and appropriate reading instruction. Some participants spoke of the phonics and phonemic awareness pieces, and spending more time manipulating phonemes. These teachers knew the languages their students spoke, so they knew that some of the blends and digraphs would be difficult for these students. They had to modify what they taught at this time. They also spoke of comprehension and how using the lower level text was difficult for the students to comprehend because of lack of plot. Lower level texts increased students' fluency because they afforded time to build confidence and allowed students to see themselves as readers.

Teacher Perspectives on Content and Process in Scripted Reading Instruction Programs

Concerning the process and content of scripted reading programs, administrators are often concerned about teachers' fidelity to scripted programs and expect teachers to adhere closely to the script (Costello & Costello, 2016; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012). However, Henning (2013) found that ELL teachers integrated the parts of a scripted program into their literacy blocks that they felt were effective for their students and omitted the parts that they determined were not as effective. Of the six participants in Henning's study, none implemented the program exactly as it was written or incorporated all of the components identified. However, they were using the Open Court program and added additional stories, comprehension tasks, and activities; context to blending and segmenting components of the programs; and a writer's workshop. Some participants

eliminated the writing component based on the needs of the students and replaced it with the writer's workshop.

In a longitudinal study, Stefanski (2016) found that both novice and veteran teachers deviated from their program scripts and noted that the programs lacked authentic literature and included boring materials for students and teachers; the time needed to implement the programs detracted from other substantial aspects of teaching. Campbell et al. (2014) found that teachers altered the time spent on reading aloud and teaching phonics from what was recommnded by their scripted program.

Sturm (2014) also found that when using scripted programs, teachers preferred some degree of autonomy in what and how they taught, and they wanted to modify instructional delivery based on their judgment of what would be most effective for their students. The findings of the present study supported the findings of Sturm's study that although teachers used the script to guide their instruction, they also modified or adapted it. Several participants in the present study reported modifying their scripted programs by using material and activities they felt were better suited to their students' needs. These participants expressed that they felt more comfortable and empowered when making modifications that deviated from the script to meet the needs of their students. One participant indicated that she liked how the lessons of the program were broken into units, but said she changed the required reading material to a book series with which the students were already familiar. Another participant felt it necessary to change reading material for students to connect with story content in ways that were meaningful to them. This participant believed that her students did not have the background knowledge to

understand the material, and noted that such disconnects made it difficult for students to engage with the material learning. Another participant liked the program she was using and found it helpful to plan her day, but indicated that she did not follow it to the letter because she thought some of the activities were not a good fit for her students. She indicated that she felt comfortable and confident using her discretion when making decisions to deviate from the program. Another teacher knew that her students did not have the background of letter-sound combinations to do the word work task as scripted, so she modified it by changing either the task or the combination of letters and sounds.

Although some teachers seemed bothered with the restrictions of scripted programs, they did not give up on the task of using a scripted reading program. Four of the participants modified the programs based on the needs of their students and felt their instructional delivery and understanding of content was better because of the modifications. Although scripted reading programs are becoming more and more popular, some of the basic skills and strategies needed to develop stronger reading and writing skills have not changed (Camahalan, 2015). Students still need to have a firm grasp and understanding of the five essential elements of reading: (a) phonics, (b) phonemic awareness, (c) vocabulary, (d) comprehension, and (e) fluency (Camahalan, 2015). However, scripted reading programs are not the only way to teach these concepts, and teachers in the present study made adjustments to the program to meet the needs of learners. The finding that teachers modified programs supports the work of Pease-Alvarez and Samway (2012) and Costello and Costello (2016), who reported that

teachers made adjustments to reading programs in good faith and with students' needs in mind.

Strengths of Scripted Learning

Participants reported that the major strengths of using a scripted reading program included both content- and noncontent-related issues, which included making planning easier, clarifying the purpose of activities, and ensuring all content was covered. Depaepe et al. (2013) argued that effective planning was an important component of good pedagogy and clear content delivery. Although planning is not content related, it does have consequences for how content is taught. The scripted nature of reading programs allowed some teachers to focus their time and energies on teaching and content and less on planning, which helped some teachers feel more confident in their teaching abilities.

In addition, after using a scripted program over time, some participants felt their students had a better understanding and ability to read and comprehend a story, perhaps, as a consequence of teachers being able to devote more time and energy to teaching. These participants felt more confident both in the ways they were teaching and with the content they were teaching. Without the programs, teachers felt they were spending too much time planning for lessons and ways to teach content. In addition, they did not feel they were being effective in their lessons because not all students were understanding the information. With these scripts, lesson planning was more productive because these participants knew exactly how they would carry out their teaching plans. They also knew how they could adapt the lessons to target all learners and not just those who seemed to understand the content the first time.

Some participants also reported feeling more effective and comfortable in their teaching because they better understood the purpose of learning activities and also did not have to worry whether they had covered all of the required content or not on their own. One particpant indicated that the program she used helped to clarify the purposes of activities used in the classroom, the purposes of which she did not understand before. Similar to mentioned findings, not having to focus on certain non-content areas (e.g., planning, preparation, organization, classroom, and curriculum management) helped to increase teachers' confidence because teachers could focus more of their time and energies on delivery and content.

Regarding content, a number of studies reviewed in the literature review revealed dissatisfaction with the plots of reading material in scripted programs. Erickson (2016), Kamps, Heitzman-Powell, Rosenberg, Mason, Schwartz, & Romine (2016), and Simmons, Kim, Kwok, Coyne, Simmons, Oslund, Fogarty, Hagan-Burke, Little & Rawlinson (2015) found that the simple plots of the reading material in the reading programs they studied were a weakness. Erickson (2016) pointed out that the stories in the Reading Mastery Program contained simple plots that left students feeling disconnected. Erickson (2016), Kamps et al., (2016) and Simmons et al., (2015), also found that simple plot structures led to deficiencies in students making connections with the material, activating prior knowledge, and engaging in meaningful questioning. Findings from the present study, however, did not consistently support these views about plot structures. Some participants of the present study reported that simple plot structures were a benefit, because they allowed students to work on decoding and comprehension

skills simultaneously. Simple plots allowed students to grasp the concepts being taught while learning comprehension and decoding skills. Simple plots also made it possible for the students to focus on decoding while still understanding the story. In addition, some participants reported that using books repeatedly increased student confidence, which then increased student engagement and movement through levels and understanding reading as a whole.

Weaknesses of Scripted Learning

All participants also reported some challenges using scripted reading programs. One participant indicated that although she found the structured nature of reading programs helpful as a novice teacher, she began to view such structure as limited and restrictive as she gained more experience as a teacher. This suggests that teachers may come to view scripted programs as less helpful and effective as they acquire more teaching experience and more confidence as teachers. Although scripted programs may help teachers gain confidence and self-efficacy by helping them master challenging experiences (Sharp, Brandt, Tuft, & Jay, 2016), teachers may need to rely on scripted programs less as they gain more confidence and self-efficacy with experience. This finding also supports those of Eisenbach (2012) who found that scripted programs were helpful for those who struggled with teaching and needed step-by-step directions (e.g., novice teachers or teachers with limited experience in a new field) but not for veteran teachers.

Another participant, Jennifer, reported feeling that scripted programs stifled her creativity in teaching and impeded her sense of ownership over her teaching and over her

approach to the curriculum. This notion that teacher creativity can be important to teacher self-efficacy was also supported in previous studies. For example, Pan et al., (2013) found that teachers with higher self-efficacy exhibited more creative teaching methods compared to teachers with lower levels of self-efficacy. In a review of scripted reading programs, Eisenbach (2012) concluded that scripted programs stifled teachers' educational creativity, a challenge that teachers sometimes met by adapting or modifying scripts to allow for more creativity in their teaching. Scripted reading programs have been shown to have adverse effects on teachers, including feelings of disempowerment, lack of autonomy over material, and their being overwhelmed (Dresser, 2012; Pease-Alvarez & Samway, 2012; Costello & Costello, 2016). Consequently, teachers may need some degree of autonomy to feel empowered and capable, despite administrative requirements for fidelity to a scripted program (Sturm, 2014).

Teachers' fidelity or adherence to scripted programs, however, is a major concern of administrators, who may be concerned about getting the most from their purchases (Sturm, 2014). Still, fidelity to scripted programs does not always ensure successful student learning. Kamps et al., (2016), and Simmons et al., (2015), found that although third grade teachers in Florida faithfully adhered to their scripted reading program, the instruction lacked student engagement, which can be key to student learning. In addition, it could be that one program or a one-size-fits-all approach simply cannot meet the needs of all students (Wyatt, 2014).

Many teachers of the present study felt that because the programs were research-based, they would help students succeed and make progress. However, they also

mentioned that these programs sometimes did not address the needs of all learners, and modifications had to be made along the way. As Parks & Bridges-Rhodes (2012) pointed out, using one program to meet the needs of all learners may not be the best approach.

One participant, Denise, of the present study was allowed to use multiple scripted programs, unlike many of the other participants. She indicated that she enjoyed having multiple programs to choose from because she felt she could meet the needs of students differently with different programs. Other participants also mentioned that it was necessary to use the supplemental materials provided and find additional resources to meet the needs of the students. Although these teachers used the script to guide their instruction, they altered delivery based on the needs of their student groups. Additional examples included participants changing script-suggested books to books with which participants were more familiar and books that better matched students' background knowledge. Other participants included additional word work pieces because they saw that the suggested stories had challenging words that needed to be previewed.

Limitations of the Study

Because the focus of the present study was limited to K-3 teachers employed in school systems in the Mid-Atlantic Region at the time of data collection, and who had used a scripted reading program within the last two years, results obtained from this study may not transfer or generalize well to teachers at other grade levels or in other socioeconomic environments, cultural contexts, or geographic regions. Higher grade levels and other content areas involve particular content requirements and, perhaps, different teaching strategies. In addition, socioeconomic and cultural contexts can affect

students' preparedness and performance, and, consequently, teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy. However, qualitative researchers seek to explore the rich and in-depth experiences of particpants, and are willing to sacrifice statistical certainty and generalizability to explore these experinces. Should other researchers want to duplicate this study in other areas or regions of the country or with a different population, changes in the population and considerations of geographic area would need to be considered when determining the potential for transferability.

For phenomenological research, researchers use bracketing, member checking, and triangulation to ensure the trustworthiness of results. I used bracketing to help examine data from a more objective and unbiased perspective. For example, before starting interviews, I spent time thinking about the subject under study and identifying my personal views and biases. I kept these thoughts to the side during interviews and data analysis. In addition, after each interview, participants were provided with a transcription of the data and asked to verify the information for accuracy and completeness. In addition, the responses from multiple participants were used to create a complete narrative that more astutely depicted the phenomenon of study. Using triangulation, the interviews were compared to each other, and during the interview process, the participants were asked the same questions to ensure that the consistency of the questions asked.

Recommendations

In the event this study be repeated, it would be critical to interview upper grade elementary teachers as well. The current study included elementary teachers in the

primary grades (K-3). Although these participants gave insightful information into the delivery of scripted reading programs for younger children, it would be interesting to see how older students react to these programs but also how teachers feel about the programs. The focus of reading instruction is different between upper and lower elementary grade students. The content knowledge necessary to teach reading to children is also different. It would also be helpful to see how content knowledge and self-efficacy related to one another when the focus of reading instruction was different.

Another recommendation would be to replicate the current study with a sample of special education teachers. With many schools having inclusion classrooms, special education teachers are often present in many classrooms at any grade level. Some programs are specific for special education students and teachers that are not available to most general education classroom teachers. It would be helpful to see how the growth of the students is impacted, but also how the instruction is impacted when the needs of the students change.

Another recommendation is to remove the predetermined amount of time necessary for each interview. Some participants in this study withdrew once they learned of the time commitment. It would have been more beneficial to gather data in shorter chunks of time because teachers expressed that giving up multiple hours was difficult for them. Although interviews took place in various places, it was difficult for teachers to give up their time outside of school because that was when they spent time with their families. Future researchers might conduct case studies that would allow for more

interviewing flexibility and for information collected from interviews to be supplemented with classroom visits, observations, and a review of teaching materials.

In addition, it would be beneficial to see how students responded to the instruction from an outside perspective. Many of the participants knew they needed to adapt the instruction for the students, but there was no indication that teachers understood how the students were responding. Researchers might also conduct longitudinal studies to examine teachers' adherence to and perceptions of reading programs over longer periods of time.

Although this study aimed for three interviews, there were times that more time was needed. It seemed that participants were trying to find their most critical points to share. Once I shared with them that more interviews could be conducted and more time could be devoted to interviews, the tone and the pace of the interviews slowed down and teachers were truly able to reflect on their teaching practices. A recommendation would be to set a goal of three interviews, but not limit the study to three. In reality, three hours seemed like enough time to visit with teachers, but when they started talking about their classrooms and their passion behind their work, I could have easily spent more time with them. More time may have given participants the opportunity to share key information.

Implications

Findings from the study may have both practical and social implications. As several teachers described, the lack of training for some scripted programs was a problem. They felt that their knowledge and implementation were limited because of improper training. It is important to note that teachers are training themselves when using

these programs by watching videos found online. With proper training, the impact for positive self-efficacy changes exists. Based on the findings, however, policies concerning the use of scripted programs might be differentiated based on teachers' teaching experience and familiarity with content material and instructional delivery. This is supported by findings from the study in which a participant indicated that she taught herself how to use a scripted reading program correctly from online videos, and from the work of Al Otaiba et al., (2016) in which professional development supported the learning and confidence levels of novice teachers but also pre-service teachers. Furthermore, more experienced or expert teachers could be provided more flexibility in using scripted materials to draw upon their own teaching resources, knowledge, and experience since this came up during the interviews with Kayla and Jennifer. During Kayla's interview she expressed how she preferred not to use a scripted program because it gave her the option to draw upon her own knowledge and experiences. Jennifer also expressed that she used her own resources to support her students when using the LLI program. In addition, there should be more directed professional development from administration, as well as encouragement and direction from administration for teachers to engage in professional development on their own.

For organizations, it is critical it appears important for administrators to realize the impact that these programs have on teachers in the classroom. Although there are positive and negative experiences with each program, overall, teachers who participated in the study appeared to be happy when using reading programs, and they are likely to adapt them, with some modifications. Teachers liked the consistency between lessons and

from day-to-day, but they did not like the inflexibility to include their own materials and resources. Fidelity is important to administrators, and programs can help teachers; however, research shows that teachers modify and adapt programs according to students' needs. Teachers in this study also modified programs to feel a sense of ownership of their teaching approaches and to feel a sense of autonomy. Implications include having teachers and administrators explore hybrid and flexible program options, which have opportunities for teacher choice built in. Future researchers might also focus on the use and effectiveness of hybrid reading programs that allow for flexibility and teacher-program interaction.

Although some teachers complained about the rigidity of the programs, the interviews suggested that teachers were able to spend more time on student directed activities, meeting with student groups based on needs, and conferencing with individual students as they felt necessary. Kayla was the exception as she felt the scripted program slowed her down. Scripted programs allowed most teachers more time for content and teaching because programs helped teachers with non-content related matters such as planning and organization. In addition, by providing greater insight about teacher confidence and scripted reading programs, study findings may help teachers and administrators understand what works and what does not work in reading programs. This might contribute to positive social change by effectively developing students' reading skills, leading to a solid foundation in reading, as well as future academic success and potentially a more literate populace.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to explore teachers' self-efficacy using scripted

reading programs. It was important to explore how teachers experienced and used

readings programs to understand whether reading programs diminished or enhanced

teachers' confidence in their teaching. Reading programs can help bolster teachers' sense

of self-efficacy because reading programs can help teachers streamline the planning

process, which allows them to focus time and energy on teaching. For example, reading

programs help ensure teachers cover all required material and can provide structure for

planning. Reading programs can also provide guidance in areas in which teachers may

struggle and help them build self-efficacy through meeting challenges such as

transitioning between lessons, selection of material, and the use of additional ideas.

It is also important for administrators to understand that teachers adapt and

modify reading programs to meet the needs of students. Such modification is well-

intentioned and based on teachers' knowledge of their own students. A one-size-fits-all

approach may not be the ideal way to teach students reading, something that teachers

may be keenly aware of. Simply put, different learners have different needs. Another

reason teachers often adapt reading programs is to feel a sense of ownership over their

curriculum. Scripted programs can stifle creativity and leave teachers feeling

disconnected and disempowered, especially as teachers grow professionally and gain

more teaching experience and confidence in their teaching abilities. Although scripted

reading programs may provide needed guidance for teachers, scripted reading programs

may require modification and adjustment to ensure that teachers are teaching to the needs

of their students, and that teachers feel connected to the methods they employ and to the

material they teach.

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Appendix A: Interview Questions

Pre-interview questions	Pre-interview Questions: 1) How long have you been teaching reading at the primary level? 2) How long have you used a scripted program such as Open Court, Success for All, Leveled Literacy Intervention, or another program? 3) What other programs have you used in the past? 4) Please write down your daily schedule for reading subjects taught and/or attended by students.
RQ: What are teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy as they implement scripted reading instruction in the primary grades?	Interview Questions: 1) Would you describe, in as much detail as possible, a situation in which you used a scripted reading program for reading instruction in primary grades? What grades specifically. 2) Would you describe a time when you were not mandated to use a scripted program? 3) Would you describe how your self-efficacy was different (if at all) from using a script to not using a script? 4) How do you feel when using a scripted reading program for reading instruction? 5) Would you describe how your confidence was in relation to content knowledge when using a script? 6) How was your confidence in relation to content knowledge without the script? 7) Can you describe a time in which you have felt empowered when using the scripted reading program?

	8) Would you describe a time in which you have felt impeded when using the scripted reading program?
	9) Would you describe your feelings of self-efficacy in providing reading instruction in as much detail as possible?
	10) How has the implementation of the scripted reading program had on your feelings of self-efficacy?
	11) How has the implementation of legal mandates had on your feelings of self-efficacy?
	12) Would you tell me which scripted reading program you are currently using and which grade? How long have you been using the program? How different is your self-efficacy now than when you first started using it? If not, can you describe what impacted your decision to leave the classroom?

Appendix B: Invitation to Participate and Consent Form

Hello _____,

I hope your school year is off to a wonderful start and you are excited for another year. I know I am. A room full of six year olds is always an adventure.

As you all know I am currently working on my dissertation which focuses on teacher perceptions and teacher self-efficacy when using a scripted reading program. I am reaching out to you because you are an elementary education teacher whom I would like to invite to participate in my study.

The study will consist of three interviews and all information will remain confidential. The first two interviews will last a minimum of sixty minutes and the third interview will last 30 minutes. Each interview will focus on you, your thoughts of using a scripted reading program, and how your self-efficacy is impacted when using such a program to teach young children reading. You will be given a transcript after each interview is complete. This will give you time to proof it for accuracy. I will be the only person collecting data from you and you will be allowed to leave the study at any time. I will work with your schedule and will come to you. There will be little to no travel expected from you. A formal consent form will be provided prior to the study.

If you would be willing to participate in the study, please complete the following checklist. This checklist will ensure you meet the established criteria to participate. Once completed, please return it to me via email at xxx@waldenu.edu. Should you have any questions about the study or the consent form, please feel free to contact me at xxx.

As always, please let me know if you have any questions.
Misty Mukherjee
PhD Candidate, Walden University

_____

In order to participate in this study, the following criteria must be met. Please check each statement that describes your current teaching assignment. If any statement does not describe your current situation, please leave it blank.

_____ I currently teach in an elementary school.

_____ I currently teach Kindergarten, First Grade, Second Grade, or Third Grade.

_____ I am employed with a local education system in the Mid-Atlantic region.

_____ I currently use a scripted reading program OR I have used a scripted reading program within the last two years.

You are invited to take part in a research study to explore the perceptions of teachers using a scripted reading program in local public schools. You were selected as a possible participant for the study because you teach elementary children or have taught elementary children and have experience using a scripted reading program.

Background Information:
As a teacher with 13 years of experience in the classroom and using a scripted reading program, I have become interested in other teacher's perceptions and opinions of using a scripted reading program. In addition, I am interested in learning how students are impacted. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to evaluate teacher perceptions of using a scripted reading program when teaching young children to read.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:
1. Share your opinions of using a scripted reading program.
2. Share your opinions relating to differentiation and student impact when using the program.
3. Share your opinions of how closely you follow the script.
4. In a follow-up interview participate to confirm interview results if necessary.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Your participation in this study is voluntary. This means that everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you want to be in the study. No one at will treat you differently if you choose not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. If you feel stressed during the study, you may stop at any time. You may skip any questions that you feel are too personal.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
There are minimal risks associated with this study. All information obtained will remain confidential. The benefits of this study will help school officials understand how teachers feel when using a scripted reading program and how student success is impacted.

Compensation:
No compensation will be given for participating in the study.

Confidentiality:
Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in any reports of the study.

Contacts and Questions:
The researcher's name is Misty Mukherjee. The researcher's faculty advisor is Dr. Amie Beckett. You may ask any questions you have now. Alternatively, if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via phone at xxx or via email at xxx@waldenu.edu. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Director of the Research Center at Walden University. Her phone number is 1-800-xxx, extension xxx.

The researcher will give you a copy of this form to keep.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have received answers to any questions I have at this time. I am 18 years of age or older, and I consent to participate in the study through interviews and audio recordings.

Printed Name of Participant	
Participant's Written or Electronic* Name	
Researcher's Written or Electronic* Signature	Misty Mukherjee

Electronic signatures are regulated by the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act. Legally, an "electronic signature" can be a person's typed name, their email address, or any other identifying marker. An electronic signature is just as valid as a written signature as long as both parties have agreed to conduct the transaction electronically.