A REVIEW OF TEACHER SUPERVISION TRENDS AND THE INFLUENCE OF FEDERAL

LEGISLATION ON TEACHER EVALUATION IN GEORGIA

by

DANIEL THOMAS WAXTER

(Under the Direction of John Dayton)

ABSTRACT

The Georgia teacher evaluation structure has experienced remarkable changes over the last twenty years. These changes are due to outside factors that influence the framework of Georgia teacher evaluations. Supervision trends and federal legislation in education have made their impact on how teachers should be evaluated in the state of Georgia. This study examines significant historical teacher supervision practices and federal educational legislation that have affected the teacher evaluation system in Georgia.

INDEX WORDS: Teacher supervision, No Child Left Behind Act, American Recovery and
                 Investment Act, Quality Basic Education Act, Georgia teacher evaluation,
                 GTEP, TKES

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my wife Jaime foremost. It has been a long, winding road with many road blocks on the way. However, Jaime never gave up on me to finish this paper. She encouraged me to keep pressing forward, even when I was ready to quit. As Elder Jeffrey R. Holland has stated, "Don't you quit. You keep walking. You keep trying. There is help and happiness ahead. Some blessings come soon, some come late, and some don't come until heaven; but for those who embrace the gospel of Jesus Christ, they come. It will be all right in the end. Trust God and believe in good things to come." This happiness has arrived, a finished dissertation.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Teacher evaluation has become the perennial mechanism for improving the effectiveness of instruction in the classroom. Assessing how to measure teacher performance seems to be the proposed solution to many issues that arise in public education. The public policy pendulum has been moving teacher evaluation measures back and forth over time, which has made some teachers and administrators perceive these changes as trends to that period. However, in recent years, research suggests a connection between effective teaching practices and student success in the classroom (Marzano, Frontier, & Livingston, 2011; Stronge & Hindman, 2003). According to Tucker and Stronge (2005):

> We know empirically that effective teachers have a direct influence in enhancing student learning. Years of research on teacher quality support the fact that effective teachers not only make students feel good about school and learning, but also that their work actually results in increased student achievement. (p. 2)

Since teachers are an influential component of student success in the classroom setting, scrutinizing teacher performance has always been an important issue in education. However, as soon as an evaluative structure is established for teacher assessment, new policy is introduced, and the structure becomes modified or changed based on the current political or research trends (Milner, 2013).

When teacher evaluations began in schools, they were perceived as an organizational formality to satisfy the schools' needs to evaluate classroom instruction but not scrutinize the effectiveness of teaching (Tracy, 1995). Hull (2011) writes that "…teacher evaluations were little more than a bureaucratic exercise that failed to recognize either excellence or mediocrity in teaching" (p. 1). As decades have passed, the importance of teacher evaluation has remained stagnant. In 2011, Randi Weingarten, who was president of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), stated at an AFT teacher evaluation conference:

> As important as evaluation is to assessing teacher performance, what passes for teacher evaluation in many districts frankly isn't up to this important task. Way too often, teacher evaluations are superficial. They're subjective. They miss a prime opportunity to improve teacher practice and, thereby, increase student learning. And that's what it's all about, isn't it? (p. 2)

However, political and research trends have been more apparent in the last 10 years in influencing teacher evaluations. Since 2009, "…the vast majority of states have made significant changes to how teachers are evaluated for the main purpose of improving instruction" (Hull, p. 1, 2011). Some of these teacher evaluation changes now take into consideration:

> Student achievement, as measured by standardized scores, alongside traditional methods like classroom observations, lesson plan reviews and others. Combined, these measures make for a more accurate assessment while providing valuable feedback to teachers on their strengths and weaknesses. (Hull, 2011, p. 2)

Federal legislation, supervisory trends through new evaluation tools, and new research on teacher effectiveness have facilitated these significant changes to teacher evaluations (MET, 2013). These changes have ushered in formations of new teacher evaluation structures that provide a

more accurate assessment of teacher performance in the classroom based on multiple performance measures instead of an absolute satisfactory or unsatisfactory evaluation system.

Federal Legislation

Two legislative enactments have influenced teacher evaluation to change toward a more aggressive approach to assessing teacher performance: the federal Race to the Top and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Flexibility Program. These two federal initiatives turned the focus of the United States to teacher evaluation (Popham & DeSander, 2014). The Race to the Top plan promised:

> Whopping financial grants to states that were willing to undertake aggressive school reforms, including more rigorous teacher evaluation procedures. The federal guidelines said that teacher evaluation must be based on multiple sources of evidence but must include student test-score growth as a significant factor. (Popham & DeSander, 2014, p. 56)

Consequently, many states tailored their evaluation processes to the demands of the Race to the Top program. In fact, several state legislatures "…enacted laws mandating teacher evaluation procedures that coincided with the federal recommendations" (Popham & DeSander, 2014, p. 56).

The Race to the Top initiative also encouraged states and school systems to implement a teacher-student link in their teacher evaluation structures to be eligible for additional funding. This initiative strengthened the notion of employing multiple measures in assessing teacher

performance and applying value-added growth models in their teacher evaluation systems (Sass, 2008). These value-added growth models are:

> Measurements of how much a particular student learned from one point in time to another. Many factors contribute to a student's learning, but value-added growth models can measure the impact of one factor (in this case, a teacher) on the change in a student's performance. (Hull, 2011, p. 14)

The Race to the Top mandate directly influenced the addition of these evaluation tools for measuring teacher performance. These new measures have increased the accuracy of assessing teacher productivity; however, these measures are still being refined to pinpoint which approach is best and "the extent to which they produce accurate or unbiased measures of a teacher's contribution to student learning" (Sass, 2008, p. 1).

Many states were also at the point of facing sanctions due to not meeting the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, including the 2014 deadline for all students to be proficient in math and reading/language arts. In 2011, the Obama administration gave states the freedom to set their own student-achievement goals through waivers from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Flexibility Program. This federal program encouraged states that sought waivers to:

> Promise energetic school reforms, including tough teacher evaluation programs closely tied to personnel decisions. And as with Race to the Top, the lure of NCLB waivers enticed many state authorities not only to apply for such waivers, but also to establish conditions that would increase their application's chances to be approved. (Popham & DeSander, 2014, p. 56)

These conditions in exchange for the flexibility required states to "adopt standards for college and career readiness, focus improvement efforts on 15 percent of the most troubled schools, and create guidelines for teacher evaluations based in part on student performance" (McNeil & Klein, 2011, p. 1). The Flexibility program mandated states to establish basic guidelines for teacher and principal evaluation based on student progress over time. The new evaluation systems based on these new guidelines would provide clear feedback on how teachers and principals could improve student learning and eventually make personnel decisions based on student achievement (McNeil & Klein, 2011).

Georgia Legislation

The state of Georgia deemed it advantageous to implement a significant overhaul in its evaluation procedures to reap the benefits from these two federal mandates. On May 7, 2013, Georgia governor Nathan Deal, signed House Bill 254 which mandated new requirements for teacher and principal evaluations. Since this bill passed with a 52-0 vote in the Georgia senate, the majority of the law makers felt that this legislation was necessary to implement in public education. The new evaluation system is entitled Teachers Keys Effectiveness System (TKES). This new teacher evaluation structure incorporated the demands of Race to the Top and the Secondary Education Act Flexibility Program.

TKES provides an incorporation of 10 standards to measure teacher effectiveness. These performance standards deliver a comprehensive conception of teacher duties and responsibilities. The TKES standards support:

The continuous growth and development of each teacher by monitoring, analyzing, and applying pertinent data compiled within a system of meaningful feedback. A fair and solid set of performance standards can provide sufficient detail and accuracy so that both

teachers and evaluators (i.e., principal, supervisor) understand the full range of teacher

performance and identify areas for professional improvement. (Stronge & Xu, 2011, p. 1)

The state of Georgia designed TKES to fulfill the requirements from the Secondary Education Act

Flexibility Program to receive waivers from the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. The

performance standards that measure teacher effectiveness evolved from federal influences and new

evaluation instruments in teacher supervision.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to study significant historical teacher supervision practices,

federal educational legislation that has affected the teacher evaluation framework in Georgia

and to provide a chronological review of the evolution of teacher evaluation structures in

Georgia. Since teacher evaluation standards have changed over time, this study examined

possible causes for those changes and their effects on evaluative practices.

Research Questions

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What is the relevant general history of teacher supervision and evaluation?

2. What is the relevant federal legislative history concerning teacher supervision and

   evaluation?

3. How have these developments influenced teacher evaluation in Georgia?

Research Design

This study is a review of teacher supervision and evaluation trends from the U.S. colonial

period to the present, intended to provide a useful chronological history and to examine this

history to identify important developments influencing current practices.

Procedures

According to Dayton (2013), the purposes of legal research are to understand and improve the law. Legal research methods are by design, "straightforward and flexible to promote accuracy and efficiency" (p. 5). The entire research process in this study followed the IRAC method. This research practice is effective in organizing and managing the legal research process. Dayton (2013, p.12) describes it as the following:

Issue: Clearly state the legal issue.

Rule: State the rule(s) of law/legal test(s) governing the legal issue.

Application: Concisely explain the application of the rule(s) of law to the legal issue.

Conclusion: Concisely explain your conclusions based on this process.

The IRAC process helps the researcher to "organize the research findings, and then through a process of deductive reasoning reach logical conclusions based on the research findings" (Dayton, 2013, p.13). The IRAC steps make legal research a collective process. These comprehensive tasks within the IRAC method build on one another so that the final product will be based on the reliability of all four tasks and not just one.

Research for this study focused on analyzing a chronological history of teacher supervision trends, federal statutes that influenced teacher evaluation structures, peer-reviewed articles on teacher evaluations, Georgia statutes on teacher evaluation, state-issued manuals on Georgia teacher evaluation procedures and protocols, and legal commentary on both the federal and state legislation. The primary resource for supervision trends was based on the research made by Saundra Tracy (1995) in her article, *How Historical Concepts of Supervision Relate to Supervisory Practices Today.* Based on her work, supervisory trends are categorized in time

periods, which are then supplemented by various research documents that elaborate on those supervisory trends within that period.

The primary resources for the federal and state legislation reviews were extracted from the laws themselves, federal or state issued manuals, federal or state published documents, legal commentary, or peer reviewed articles. The legal research aspect of this study was straightforward, while the research on supervisory trends was subjective in some instances.

In Chapter Two, the literature review is arranged in three sections: supervisory trends, relevant federal legislation, and Georgia legislation on teacher evaluation. Each section is presented in chronological order to provide the reader with a perspective on the historical development of Georgia teacher evaluation structures. Chapter Three is an analysis of the current laws and trends pertaining to Georgia teacher evaluations. Chapter Four concludes this study with findings and conclusions.

Limitations

This study was designed to provide accurate information on how federal legislation and teacher supervisory trends affected Georgia teacher evaluation over time. The ultimate limitation of this study is the limit of scope. Although this study reviewed a chronological history of the evolution of Georgia teacher evaluation based on the two influences, other influences and factors have impacted Georgia teacher evaluation structures. Examining all influential components that have modified the framework of Georgia teacher evaluation over time would not be feasible since there are many underlying circumstances that have not been documented or researched. This study focuses on the most relevant incidents that affected Georgia teacher evaluation structures based on supervision trends and federal legislation.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Teacher evaluation has become a central theme in the education reform movement. States and local school districts, consistent with research have determined that the teacher is a significant factor affecting student performance. In fact, Stronge and Hindman (2003) have stated:

> Research shows that effective teachers are the most important factor contributing to student achievement. Although curricula, reduced class size, district funding, family and community involvement all contribute to school improvement and student achievement, the most influential factor is the teacher. (p. 48)

As the recognition of teachers' importance related to student performance increased, so did the emphasis on teacher evaluation structures to measure teacher performance. From simple beginnings based mostly on local public opinion, Georgia teacher evaluation structures have evolved to a current framework that assesses teachers' effectiveness over 10 standards with scientific measures.

This chapter is structured in three sections: Teacher supervisory trends, federal historical mandates, and Georgia legislative directives that have impacted Georgia teacher evaluation structures. This chapter begins by reviewing research by Tracy (1995) who segmented teaching evaluation practices in different time periods. During these time periods or phases, changes to teacher evaluations occurred based on the overall attitude toward assessing teachers in the

classroom. These attitudes or trends have been influenced by current research, political movements, lawsuits that affected teacher evaluation, or public demands.

This review will begin in the early years of the United States during the colonial period on the processes of teacher supervision to provide historical perspective on the development of teacher evaluation.

Section 1: Introduction to Teacher Supervision Phases

Tracy (1995) describes seven phases of supervision that have altered and influenced supervisory practice in public education. She mentions that a historical review can provide insight on how and why supervisory practices are conducted the way they are today. This review of supervisory trends in education gives a historical analysis of the evolution of evaluation practices in schools.

Tracy (1995) writes that, "each historical phase is described in relation to its purpose, focus or emphases, the personnel typically involved, the skills needed to implement supervision, and the assumptions surrounding the process" (p.320)

Those seven historical phases are:

Phase 1 (Early 1800s): The Community Accountability Phase

Phase 2 (Late 1800s): The Professionalization Phase

Phase 3 (1900s -1930s): The Scientific Phase

Phase 4 (1930s – 1940s): The Human Relations Phase

Phase 5 (1940s – 1960s): The Second-Wave Scientific Phase

Phase 6 (1960s – 1980s): The Second-Wave Human Relations Phase

Phase 7(1990s – 2000s): The Human Development Phase

As mentioned, these phases will organize chronologically the historical events and trends that have affected teacher evaluation practices in the state of Georgia.

In Table 2.1 (Tracy, 1995, p. 321), the seven phases are separated into two different sections: method of improving teaching and observation of classroom teaching. Table 2.1 provides direction on how these phases developed over time through changes in the supervisory practices of teachers.

Table 2.1: Common Elements of Supervision

Historical Phase	*Method of Improved Teaching*	*Observation of Classroom Teaching*
Community Accountability	Direct-indirect intervention	Visiting committees observed all aspects of school
Professionalization	Group interventions	County superintendent and principals observed classroom teaching
Scientific	Solve instructional problems through scientific approach	Supervisors or principals analyzed data to assess performance and student outcomes
Human Relations	Obtaining socially and psychologically satisfied and motivated teachers	Supervisors observed in order to assist teachers

Historical Phase	*Method of Improved Teaching*	*Observation of Classroom Teaching*
Second-Wave Scientific	Measurable outcomes by systematic processes	Supervisors systematically observed and measured student outcomes
Second-Wave Human Relations	Collaborated analysis of teaching patterns	Supervisor collected data after discussion with teacher
Human Development	Tailored style of supervision to best meet the teacher's needs	Routinely practiced (Tracy, p. 321)

Phase 1: The Community Accountability Phase (Early 1800s)

Table 2.2 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Community

Accountability Phase in the early 1800s as explicated by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.2. Common Elements of Supervision—1800s

Historical Phase	*Method of Improved Teaching*	*Observation of Classroom Teaching*
Community Accountability	Direct-indirect intervention	Visiting committees observed all aspects of school

According to Tracy (1995), Phase 1 began in the colonial period and continued until the early 1800s. In the book, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach*, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1998) give an accurate depiction of the responsibilities of a school teacher in a one-room schoolhouse.

> Much of what exists in beliefs and expectations about schools can be traced to the idyllic-looking, clapboard, one-room schoolhouses of pioneer times. The teacher was responsible for the total instruction of all students, the maintenance of the building, keeping the stove filled with wood, and cleaning the floors. Our first schoolteachers were seen as working in an honorable but mental profession, poorly paid but second only to the preacher in prestige. (p. 16)

During this time, teacher supervision practices rested on different members of the community due to the country's strong convictions in "local, lay control of education" (Tracy, 1995, p. 320). Supervision was administered by the local leaders of the community. Some of these leaders were mostly composed of clergy, merchants, and representatives of other professions.

Kate Rousmaniere (2013) in her book, *The Principal's Office: A Social History of the American School Principal*, explained that "community school boards or trustees acted as a combined parent association, personnel office, and supervisor that hired and evaluated the teacher and the children" (p. 8).

According to Tracy (1995), these local leaders' duties "determined the school schedule, guidelines for student discipline, and the curriculum of the school" (p.321). However, these local leaders also hired teachers and were the supervisors of the teachers' instruction. Tracy (1995) clarifies that the clergy members "played a dominant role in supervision because of their

level of formal education and the emphasis placed on religious instruction in the schools" (p. 321).

Burke and Krey (2005) asserted that the teacher was perceived as a servant to the community. The appointed committees or supervisors possessed almost unrestricted power "to establish criteria for effective instruction and to hire and fire teachers" (Marzano et al., 2011, p. 12). However, during this early phase of formal education there was no clear understanding of emphasizing the importance of pedagogical practices in the classroom. Due to this inadequate perception of effective teaching, Marzano et al. (2011) mentions that most of the feedback to teachers varied in quality and practicality. Due to a lack of training for supervisors or a clear vision of their purpose, their evaluation practices were less effective in assisting the improvement of teacher performance in the classroom.

Burke and Krey (2005) describe that the supervisor during this phase was labelled as an inspector and not as someone to assess pedagogical practices. The supervisor's role was to inspect but not evaluate. Burke and Krey (2005) explain:

> The major purpose of the supervisor was to make judgements about the teacher rather than about the instruction or the students' learning. Decisions were made based on the basis of what the supervisor or inspector observed. The nature of the remedy to be that displacing or replacing the teacher. *In fact*, the chief remedy of a failing school system or classroom was that of replacing the teaching personnel. (pp. 8-9, emphasis in the original)

Essentially, teacher pedagogical practices were not fully evaluated. It was an extreme view of teacher performance. Instead of working with teachers to improve their skills in the classroom, teachers were dismissed from their position, immediately.

Tracy (1995) concludes that there were three underlying assumptions of evaluation practices during the community accountability phase:

1. Supervisors had a right to intervene directly into the classroom.

2. Teachers were the servants of the community and should be expected to respond to the community's directives.

3. The criteria for effective instruction were established by the community. (Tracy, p. 321)

These three underlying assumptions meant that although the requirements to be a member of the committee were few, "the power invested in the committee to immediately dismiss the teacher meant that the observer's suggestions were meant to be taken seriously" (Tracy, 1995, p. 321). Teachers were inspected in this period instead of being fully evaluated. A full evaluation would have been more beneficial and advantageous to the teacher so that he or she could have improved as an educator.

<div align="center">Phase 2: The Professionalization Phase (Late 1800s)</div>

Table 2.3 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the professionalization phase that included the late 1800s as explicated by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.3. Common Elements of Supervision in the Professionalization Phase

Historical Phase	Method of Improved Teaching	Observation of Classroom Teaching
Professionalization	Group interventions	County superintendent and principals observed classroom teaching

This phase began when the mantle of teacher supervision left the community leadership to a team of professional educators. Although supervisory practices remained generally inspectorial in nature, the concept of supervision "was changing and the functions were expanding" (Burke & Krey 2005, p. 9). In the late 1800s and early 1900s, as urban and rural populations increased, new administrative positions were needed to supervise and evaluate teachers. The concept of supervision changed from inspecting the teacher to aiding the teacher for improving the instruction in the classroom (Burke & Krey 2005).

Due to perspective changes of how to measure teacher performance, the need for evaluators and supervisors to specifically evaluate teachers evolved into explicit positions for assessing teacher performance. These positions evolved from the local schools and were managed by a central office or district. This movement toward specific positions of supervision began mostly in "large urban districts and soon spread to smaller cities and rural areas" (Marzano et al., 2011, p. 13).

As these districts and school systems continued to grow, the need for meaningful and professional supervision became necessary for effective teacher evaluation. Tracy (1995) clarified that "rather than simply understanding the mores of the community, the supervisor needed to have subject area knowledge and teaching skills" (p. 323). Teacher supervisors needed to be more qualified to provide applicable instruction to teachers that would improve their pedagogical practices in the classroom.

By the mid-1800s, school systems persisted to acknowledge the complex effort that was required to teach effectively. For teachers to improve their trade, they needed to be provided

feedback and meaningful supervisory structures that would have allowed them to improve their expertise in the classroom. Blumberg (1985) wrote that:

> This opinion was widely shared among the superintendents. Much as they had faith in the mission of the schools, they also seemed to feel that they knew what to do to improve them, and the way they interpreted their experience reinforced this faith. (p. 63)

Teacher institutes or staff development sessions began to be implemented in school systems. As one 1840 superintendent explained:

> The idea (teacher institutes) is evidently gaining ground among those entrusted with the supervision of our schools, that all who will shall have the opportunity of improving, and that those who will not, shall no longer desecrate the educational temples of our land, nor disgrace a profession which ought to be as sacred as the priesthood. (Blumberg, 1985 p. 63)

Consequently, teacher supervision began to focus on improving instruction in the schools.

The positions of superintendent and principal were created in large cities and in smaller towns to support student learning in schools. As schools became larger, one teacher within a building was assigned administrative duties. Marzano et al. (2011) writes that this principal teacher "ultimately grew into the role of building principal" (p.13). Burke and Krey (2005) explained that as the supervisor's role evolved, a sole superintendent of supervision developed into a major role of managing the supervision of the teacher supervisors and that "the superintendent was considered as being primarily in charge of instruction. Supervisors, then, became responsible to the superintendent of schools when this position became so designated" (p. 10). This trend demonstrated the premise of how school districts evolved with the conventional supervisory positions within the system.

Tracy (1995) further explained that during this phase, the structure of school districts began to evolve to organize schools and to establish school policy management within schools. She explains:

This type of school organization quickly became the prevailing form, leading to the creation of a hierarchical system for overseeing instruction… Local districts began to establish their own administrative hierarchies to manage what went on in schools. The role of the principal became commonplace and was vested with supervisory responsibility. (p. 321)

Within this phase, there was a striking upsurge in the knowledge and skills set of the teacher supervisor. Teaching evaluators were required to use different abilities to assess teachers' performance in the classroom. Supervisors were required to have subject knowledge to properly measure teachers' pedagogical abilities in the classroom (Blumberg, 1985; Burke & Key 2011; Marzano et al., 2011; Tracy, 1995).

This escalation of expertise caused school districts to begin training educators professionally so that they could become effective evaluators. Tracy (1995) stated that "education was becoming too complex to be managed by lay persons; professional educators were necessary for training teachers and for improving teaching" (p. 323). Marzano et al. (2011) added that "although there was little or no formal discussion about the specifics of pedagogical skills, the acknowledgement of their importance might be considered the first step in the journey to a comprehensive approach to developing teacher expertise" (p. 13).

During this phase, the common nomenclature weaved itself in teacher evaluation structures. The autocratic relationship between the teacher and supervisor during this stage produced words such as "…conference, instruction, advice, improvement, constructive,

influence, and growth" (Burke & Krey, p. 10). This phase produced the early sentiments between teacher and supervisors as an institutionalized relationship. Arthur Blumberg (1974) in his book, *Teachers and Supervisors: A Private Cold War*, described how this relationship evolved. He writes:

> When a particular structural pattern becomes institutionalized, it develops a power-base of its own that may be informal and independent of any but the most overt constraints of the organization. Its personnel are apt to resist criticism and attempt to forestall it by communicating their successes and not their failures – if they are aware of them. This circular and self-reinforcing process is nourished by the common organizational assumption that, if a part of the structure is devoted to working on a particular problem, the level of productivity of the unit involved is satisfactory and sufficing. (p. 8)

Throughout this phase, the relationship between teachers and supervisors sways from hostile and unproductive to friendly and cooperative. This relationship between the two parties has affected the direction of each one of these phases and ultimately the design of the teacher evaluation structures.

<center>Phase 3: The Scientific Phase (1900s – 1930s)</center>

Table 2.4 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Scientific Phase that spanned from the1900s to the 1930s as explicated by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.4. Common Elements of Supervision in the Scientific Phase

Historical Phase	Method of Improved Teaching	Observation of Classroom Teaching
Scientific	Solve instructional problems through scientific approach	Supervisors or principals analyzed data to assess performance and student outcomes

During this period, there was a change in how to evaluate teachers. Frederick Taylor (1911), in his book *The Scientific Principles of Management*, began a new view of scientific management in the business world. He argued that in factories, workers' performance on their jobs should be calculated based on a measurement of their productivity. Productivity would be monitored to determine the most effective practices. Once the best practice was established, factory workers were directed to implement the practice into their skills. This idea of establishing best practices for workers became a new measuring instrument to evaluate workers' performance in the factory.

The scientific movement of measuring job performance based on best practices trickled down to education. Marzano et al. (2011) quoted a statement from Ellwood Cubberley's book *Public School Administration* (1929) that reinforces this movement entering education:

Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which the raw products (children) are to be shaped and fashioned into products to meet the various demands of life. The specifications for manufacturing come from the demands of twentieth century civilization

and is the business of the school to build its pupils according to the specifications laid

down. (p. 14)

Cubberley (1929) laid out an evaluative framework for school administrators that stressed

measurement and analysis of data to assess the productivity and performance of teachers and

schools.

Due to this new movement of assessing job performance, evaluators began to implement

scientific principles to assess teacher performance in the classroom. Tanner and Tanner (1987)

described teacher evaluators as implementing the principles of control, accountability, and

efficiency to monitor teacher effectiveness in instruction. Tracy (1995) believed that the growing

focus on measuring the most productive teacher initiated new supervisory practices by

evaluators. Supervisors' goal was "to determine the most productive ones (teachers) in relation to

student outcomes" (p. 323). Supervisors began to implement "increased attention to direct

classroom observation and data gathering, particularly through use of an observation checklist"

(Tracy, 1995, p. 323).

Tracy (1995) and Lucio and McNeil (1979) argued that the scientific phase came about

due to the chaos that existed in teacher supervision. Through managerial structures (e.g.

supervisory specialists, and through supervisory strategies and procedures), scientific supervision

established a firm base that assessed the quality of instruction. Burke and Key (2011) described

this transition as the school administrator having new supervisory roles that were specific to

teacher development:

A full-time supervisory position meant time and advisement with teachers for the

improvement of instruction that had been advocated but not realized in earlier decades.

Practically every definition generated in this period included the point that supervision

existed for the purpose of the improvement of instruction. (p. 10)

The scientific phase became a mechanism to provide meaningful supervision for teachers.

Through the new supervisory procedures, based on scientific principles, teachers were "best

assisted by direction from those who knew the best procedures to use for any given educational

task, namely, supervisors" (Tracy, p. 323)

Within the timeframe of this phase, teacher evaluation practices also converted to a

professionalized structure that eventually required a supervisory specialist for teacher evaluation.

These supervisory positions evolved mostly due to "the increased size and complexity of school

organizations, a situation that increased the number of tasks to be accomplished" (Tracy, 1995, p.

323). As school organizations continued to grow, a broader range of subjects were taught to

students. For example, Burke and Krev (2005) wrote:

The inclusion of fine arts and extracurricular activities in the total curriculum was

followed by an emphasis on foreign languages, mathematics, science, and guidance.

When fine arts and physical education became a significant part of the curriculum new

aspect of supervision was created, special area supervision. (p.11)

This phase increased the need for evaluation structures that were specific to the teachers' subject

and methodologies used in the classroom. This growth expanded the scope of teacher supervision

due to the specified areas of content being taught. In fact, due to the increase of new curriculum

content, there is evidence that the "number of special-area supervisors increased much more

rapidly than the number of general supervisors" (Burke & Krey, p. 11).

Phase 4: The Human Relations Phase (1930s – 1940s)

Table 2.5 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Human Relations

Phase that spanned from the1930s to the 1940s as explicated by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.5. Common Elements of Supervision in the Human Relations Phase

Historical Phase	Method of Improved Teaching	Observation of Classroom Teaching
Human Relations	Obtaining socially and psychologically satisfied and motivated teachers	Supervisors observed in order to assist teachers

The Human Relations Phase experienced a shift in supervisory practices. Following the

Scientific Phase, supervisors began to take more of a human relations approach to teacher

evaluations. Instead of focusing on the organization as a whole, supervisors focused on the

individual. According to Tracy (1995), there were three main causes that encouraged this shift.

Since this phase began in the early 1930s, the depression prompted supervisors to be more

personable and caring to the teachers. Second, an increased awareness grew highlighting societal

inequalities within their communities. Also during this time, the development of social sciences

evolved that steered supervisors more to the teachers' needs as an individual and not as a

member of the organization.

During this phase, the main purpose of supervision was to assist the needs of the teacher.

Tracy (1995) positioned that the motivation theory evolved from the Hawthorne studies during

this phase. This theory suggested that "workers' efforts and morale increased when employers

paid increased attention the work environment" (Tracy, 1995, p. 323).

In an article, "The Supervisory Visit," Elsie Coleman (1945) provides a perspective of the change of teacher evaluation practices. The teacher's self-worth as an individual became the center point of the evaluation. Coleman writes:

> The supervisor today recognizes the complexity of a visit to the teacher, and utilizes every possibility to make it a mutually satisfying and worthwhile experience. Such a concept of the supervisory visit involves understanding the individual teacher…The first fundamental in understanding the teacher is making a continuous study of every affective factor, keeping in mind the principle that the teacher is a person, different from any other person, living in an environment which affects and in turn is affected by that person. (pp., 164-165)

Coleman (1945) solidifies her stance by quoting Walt Whitman: "There was a teacher went forth every day, and what she saw that she became," (p.165). The idea of the teacher as an individual was paramount during this phase.

Most of the new supervisory practices to improve instruction deviated from the scientific practices and turned toward the personal satisfaction of teachers. During the Human Relations Phase, supervisors argued that teachers would excel in a supportive environment. Supervisors encouraged cooperation with teachers by having teachers participate in decision making on curriculum or policy changes.

Supervisors made a point to focus on the social and psychological need of teachers so that they became effective in the classroom. Positive relationships between the two parties became a priority for supervisors as well. Henderson (1945) described the process of supervision between teachers and administrators. Her perspective on supervision, especially

during this phase, was that teachers and supervisors' relationships should be comparable to the relationship between teachers. She explains:

> Supervision and teaching are complementary. The teacher-to-pupil, teacher-to teacher, and teacher-to-supervisor relationship should be the same. It should be a relationship of guidance, counseling, and cooperation. It should be a relationship which brings people together to work on a common problem concerning the needs of all, and the welfare of each individual. (Henderson, 1945, p. 155)

This attitude of equality between teachers and supervisors gained momentum during the Human Relations phase, due to the uprising of democratic cooperation and the teachers' voice being heard more loudly. The relationship became essential for the successful evaluation of teachers. Tracy (1995) indicated that one of the outcomes of the human relations perspective was that "supervisors sometimes feared upsetting the relationship by conducting direct classroom observations. This all too often equated with hands-off supervision, where little assistance was required" (pp. 323–324).

During the Human Relations Phase, teachers expressed discomfort with any type of evaluative structure that resulted in a rating scale on which they would be graded. Teachers felt that these rating devices could wound the relationship between them and their supervisors. In the article, *Supervisory Visits and Teacher Rating Devices*, McGinnis (1934) conducted a survey to assess teachers' perspectives on teacher ratings. Out of 2,848 teachers polled, most of them objected to having their classroom procedures subjected to measurement by check list and rating devices.

> The fact that 86.2 percent of these teachers think the use of check lists and rating devices represents good supervisory practice to only a low degree or very low degree is strong

evidence that there is something decidedly wrong with such devices as now used.

(McGinnis, 1934, p. 47)

Although these rating mechanisms were unpopular with teachers, supervisors felt that they were helpful in assessing teacher performance in the classroom However, the nourishment and reinforcement of the relationship between the teacher and supervisor was paramount during this phase. Dunn (1945) in her article, "*How Should We Supervise?*" concluded:

It is commonly assumed to be deeply distasteful to teachers, and to interfere with the mutual understanding, confidence, and helpfulness essential to wholesome teacher-supervisor relationships. As *teacher* rating is conducted today, there is no evidence that it serves supervisory ends, but rather that it is a hindrance to effective supervision. (p. 163)

The main tendency of the Human Relations Phase was to establish, maintain, and stretch the teacher-supervisor relationship by repelling any factors that would debilitate that relationship.

Phase 5: The Second-wave Scientific Phase (1940s – 1960s)

Table 2.6 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Second-Wave Scientific Phase that spanned from the 1940s to the 1960s as described by Tracy (1995). As school districts continued to change over time due to size and political influences, teacher evaluation frameworks changed as well. In the years that followed, the evaluation systems established in Phase 5 (Second-wave Scientific) were a stark contrast to those used throughout Phase 4 (Human Relations Phase).

Table 2.6. Common Elements of Supervision in the Second-Wave Scientific Phase

Historical Phase	*Method of Improved Teaching*	*Observation of Classroom Teaching*
Second-Wave Scientific	Measurable outcomes by systematic processes	Supervisors systematically observed and measured student outcomes

By the end of the 1950s, there was a revival of scientific supervision which had previously been conducted in Phase 3 (Scientific Phase). However, Phase 5 possessed different characteristics of those in Phase 3. According to Tracy (1995), the main characteristics of this Second-wave Scientific Phase were as follows:

1. The use of complex observation systems to measure effective and ineffective teacher behaviors.

2. Increased reliance on standardized testing of students.

3. Emphasis on a behavioral objective basis for instruction that strove to achieve measurable and observable outcomes. (p. 324)

Although these main characteristics are similar to those principles that were applied in Phase 3 (Scientific Phase), there were few instances in which the "techniques for observing and recording what occurred in the classroom provided data that could stimulate instructional improvement" (Tracy, 1995, p. 324).

In this Second-wave of Scientific Supervision, the required skills to assess teacher performance were more technical than in other phases. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) contended that during this phase that there was more importance placed on the technical aspects

of supervision. Classroom observations, standardized testing, recorded classroom instruction, and other procedural tools emphasized the importance of outcomes and lessened the significance of the teacher and supervisor relationship.

During this phase, the supervisor's role and responsibilities expanded to satisfy the demands of the school. In her article, "So Begins – So Ends the Supervisor's Day," Ethel Thompson (1952) elaborates how the responsibility list grew during her time when she wrote her article. She provided a list of activities that were generally found on a supervisor's calendar. That list included, "staff conferences, observations in a classroom, working with parents, working with a group of principals, desk work, committee work, conferences, recruitment, professional meetings, demonstration teaching, and acting as a resource person or speaker (pp. 83–84).

Phase 6: The Second-wave Human Relations Phase (1960s – 1980s)

Table 2.7 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Second-wave Human Relations Phase that spanned from the 1960s to the 1990s as described by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.7. Common Elements of Supervision in the Second-wave Human Relations Phase

Historical Phase	Method of Improved Teaching	Observation of Classroom Teaching
Second-Wave Human Relations	Collaborated analysis of teaching patterns	Supervisor collected data after discussion with teacher

During Phase 6 (Human Relations Phase), teacher input was encouraged to assess their own effectiveness as an instructor; however, teachers lacked the mechanisms to evaluate themselves effectively with their supervisor. Phase 6 became a fusion of the scientific principles

for supervision along with the human relations aspect to assess teacher performance by both parties together.

In the late 1950s, Morris Cogan and a group of colleagues working in the Harvard MAT program argued the idea that the current teacher evaluation structures and supervisory strategies were not providing the supervisor helpful information on teacher performance in the classroom. Both the teacher and the supervisor felt that a standard observation of a lesson did not yield the necessary information to assess the teaching in the classroom. Through trial and error coupled with feedback from colleagues, supervisory practices evolved into clinical supervision (Cogan, 1973). Stotko, Pajak, and Goldsberry (2005) explained that clinical supervision is:

> The subset of supervision in schools that is sharply focused on providing meaningful feedback on teaching performance with the specific intent of helping teachers reflect upon and improve their own practice. (p.124)

According to Reavis (1976), the clinical supervision process takes an approach as a procedure for observation in the clinic of the classroom. "It rests on the conviction that instruction can only be improved by direct feedback to a teacher on aspects of his or her teaching that are of concern to teacher" (p. 360). The clinical supervision sequence is a process that is structured and layered to guide both the teacher and supervisor through the practice. Reavis (1976) provides a clear description of expectations on how the clinical supervision process should applied. The three steps, pre-observation, analysis, and post-observation, are described in detail.

Pre-observation

> The clinical supervision sequence begins with a pre-observation conference between supervisor and teacher. The purposes of this conference are to establish or reestablish rapport, get an orientation to the group the supervisor will be observing, receive

information on the lesson to be taught (objectives, procedure, evaluation), suggest minor changes that might improve the lesson, and develop a contract, that is, an agreement between teacher and supervisor about the purpose of the observation. Both teacher and supervisor contribute to the contract. The contract must be specific and becomes basis of the remainder of the remainder of the clinical supervision pattern. Following the pre-observation conference, the supervisor observes the specific lesson previously discussed with the teacher. During the observation, the supervisor writes down verbatim as many of the verbal exchanges in the classroom as possible. These notes become the basis of the analysis. (p. 361)

Analysis

The supervisor analyzes the data collected, looking for recurring patterns in the exchanges…Upon completing the analysis, the supervisor must decide on a strategy, a method of presenting the results of the analysis in a manner most likely to result in improved teacher performance. The decision about strategy depends on the supervisor's knowledge of the teacher. The conference between supervisor and teacher follows. During the conference the supervisor attempts to implement his or her strategy. Generally, the conference is positive and productive because it focuses on aspects of instruction because it focuses on aspects of instruction previously identified as areas of instruction previously identified as areas of concern by the teacher. (p. 361)

Post-Conference

The supervisor reviews actions taken in each of the preceding steps with regard to whether they facilitated improved instruction and teacher growth toward self-supervision, the two primary goals of clinical supervision. (Reavis, p. 361)

Clinical supervision was a new perspective that provided influential data that improved teaching in the classroom when implemented correctly. Clinical supervision became a marriage between the human-relations phase and the scientific phase. It evolved as a supervisory tool to assess the teaching in the classroom and not the teachers.

According to Stotko, Pajak, and Goldsberry (2005), the three essential qualities of clinical supervision that distinguishes it from other types of evaluative structures are:

1. Providing regular and meaningful feedback to individual teachers based on observed teaching

2. Addressing the pedagogy and learning climate of the teacher's setting, that is, it is context-specific

3. Modeling good teaching in keeping with the stakeholders' views of good teaching, but at the same time demands reflective assessment of those practices. (p. 125)

This ongoing interaction between the supervisor and teacher were expected to be conducted during pre- and post-observation conferences. These conferences provided the teacher and supervisor opportunities to reflect on the data that had been collected through scientific methods to assess the teacher's performance in the classroom.

Teachers were given the tools to assess themselves appropriately while the supervisor was able to provide meaningful feedback to the teacher. It also provided the teacher the

opportunity to clarify any confusion that may have occurred during observations made by the supervisor. Clinical supervision requires sustained teacher and supervisor interactions to "mutually solve classroom problems" (Tracy, 1995, p. 324).

Tracy (1995) writes that there were some key expectations during this phase for the procedural framework and the abilities of the supervisor. The two key assumptions of this type of structure were that "a sustained cycle of assistance is necessary for teaching to improve and that the analysis of teaching behavior patterns can lead to useful insights" (p. 324). The ongoing interaction between the parties provided feedback that was beneficial for both.

As teachers analyzed their performance, supervisors learned different ways of approaching the evaluation process due to teachers' insight. The supervisors' abilities had to provide an effective atmosphere for the supervision to be successful. Supervisors had to be able to "maintain a positive relationship with the teacher, be highly skilled in data collection, provide informative feedback, and relate to people" (Tracy, 1995, p. 324).

In his book, *Clinical Supervision: Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers*, Goldhammer (1969) thought that what was most essential in clinical supervision was the observation of teacher and student interaction related to student learning. Goldhammer believed that enriching dialogue between the teacher and the supervisor would build trust between the two parties and serve to support the implementation of effective instructional practices in the classroom. Over time, the process of clinical supervision has evolved from an enriching process of professional development to a checklist of completing the required steps. However, as Marzano et al. (2011) has concluded, the clinical supervision model became "the de facto structure for the evaluation of teachers" (p. 20).

During the 1980s, the RAND Group conducted a study to determine the evaluation practices that were being implemented in different school districts across the nation. This report's purpose was to provide accurate data to the educational world on how districts were designing and implementing their teacher evaluation structures in their local districts. The extracted information provided feedback regarding the current status of teacher evaluation nationwide.

In the report, *Teacher Evaluation: A Study of Effective Practices* (Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, & Bernstein, 1985), RAND findings provided informative feedback for educational leaders regarding the effectiveness of teacher evaluation systems from the educators' perspective. The Robert Marzano et al. (2011) analysis of the study in his book titled, *Effective Supervision: Supporting the Art and Science of Teaching,* concluded that teachers felt that "the supervisory and evaluative approaches that were developmental and reflective were sometimes viewed as not specific enough to enhance pedagogical development" (p.23).

Although Tracy (1995) mentioned that during this phase, teachers and supervisors strived to develop a meaningful relationship throughout the evaluation process, and teachers supported procedures that were more systematized within the evaluation structures. Teachers felt that a narrative approach to evaluation provided inadequate results on how they were being assessed against those standardized measures and norms (Wise et al., 1985).

Based on Marzano et al. (2011) and Wise et al. (1985), there were four constant issues with supervision and evaluation that evolved from the study. The teachers from the study felt that administrators "lacked sufficient resolve and competence to evaluate accurately" (Wise et al., 1985, p. 22). The second obstacle was teacher resistance to feedback (Marzano et al., 2011). Marzano et al. also mentions that the third challenge was a lack of uniform evaluation practices.

Out of all the districts that participated in this study, only one district had a system built on a "set of teacher competencies" (Marzano et al., 2011, p. 23). The last hindrance was that teachers felt there was a lack of training for their evaluators. This lack of training influenced teachers to develop a feeling of being undervalued since their evaluators were not trained in conducting a valid evaluation.

The RAND study provided valuable information that propelled teacher evaluation to the next phase. Although evaluation systems shifted to having a more humanistic approach, teachers advocated for a standardized structure that would evaluate them scientifically on the standards and principles on which they were being assessed (Wise et al., 1985).

Phase 7: The Human Development Phase (1990s – 2000)

Table 2.8 highlights the common elements of supervision found in the Human Development Phase that spanned from the 1990s to approximately 2000 as described by Tracy (1995).

Table 2.8. Common Elements of Supervision and the Human Development Phase

Historical Phase	Method of Improved Teaching	Observation of Classroom Teaching
Human Development	Tailored style of supervision to best meet the teacher's needs	Routinely practiced

During this last phase, a different approach evolved to teacher supervision. The argument was that supervisors needed to recognize teachers as adult learners, not just instructors. Supervisors should be concerned with the teacher's personal needs as an adult learner and then

determine what would be the best tools to use to assess the teacher's performance and growth as a professional (Tracy, 1995).

As this notion of teachers as adult learners expanded, new methods of evaluating teachers evolved. In her article, *A Proposal for Evaluation in the Teaching Profession*, Darling-Hammond (1986) reinforced this perception of teachers as adult learners. She claimed that teacher evaluation should be structured to improve teaching and not be ritually completed by a bureaucratic administrator. She proposed structuring teacher evaluations around five main elements that would serve to then improve the evaluative process:

1. Selection and induction into teaching should be rigorous and peer dominated so that standards of practice can be effectively transmitted and the public can have confidence that teachers are competent.

2. Periodic reviews of individual teachers' performances should be conducted by expert peers and administrators using a wide range of indicators that deal with both the substance and process of teaching. The results of these reviews and of self-evaluation should guide professional development.

3. Special forums and support systems should exist for the referral and redress of apparent cases of malpractice, incompetence, or unprofessional performance.

4. Peer review of teaching practice should be ongoing and include all teachers so that standards of practice can be continually developed and improved.

5. Teachers should collectively control technical decisions about the structure, form, and content of their work. (p. 544)

The proposal of peer review of teaching practices and observations, induction into teaching should be peer dominated, forums, and support systems are all alternative approaches to what the model of clinical supervision had offered. The focus on teaching had rotated to the needs of the teacher. In a study that polled classroom teachers to collect their perspectives on how teacher evaluative systems are understood, Peterson and Comeaux (1990) concluded from their study that teachers:

> Placed an importance of developing teacher evaluation instruments that are positively viewed by teachers whose support is necessary if evaluation is to be considered fair and valid … administrators and policy-makers should consider seriously the possibility of tailoring teacher evaluation systems to serve different needs of the teachers. (p. 23)

The developmental phase "combines the concern for a teacher's personal needs with the concern for the productivity of the organization" (Tracy, p. 324). This unique combination created a shift in the perception of teacher evaluation. In the past, the emphasis of a teacher's evaluation was the teacher's performance in the classroom. In the Human Development Phase, the needs of the teachers and the needs of the organization are both considered in evaluating a teacher's practices in the classroom. Tracy (1995) concluded that a variety of models can be used to measure a teacher's ability in the classroom. However, this variety would require "a range of skills as well as a knowledge of adult learning and development to determine which model to use" (Tracy, p. 324).

Phase 8: The Student Achievement Phase (2000 – Present)

In the 21st century, the focus of teacher supervision has changed from teacher evaluation to changing teacher behavior in the Human Development Phase. The main focus of teacher

evaluation today is based on student achievement. In their book, *Linking Teacher Evaluation and Student Learning*, Tucker and Stronge (2005) explained that teacher evaluation systems that determine teacher effectiveness in the classroom should implement evidence of student gains in learning in a teacher's evaluation. Along with the teacher's observations, the data from student learning should support the behaviors observed in the classroom.

Tucker and Stronge (2005) believed that student achievement was directly connected with teacher effectiveness. They declared:

Given the clear and undeniable link that exists between teacher effectiveness and student learning, we support the use of student achievement information in teacher assessment. Student achievement can, and indeed should be, an important source of feedback in the effectiveness of schools, administrators, and teachers. (p. 102)

The movement to include student achievement in teacher evaluation continued to gain momentum. In 2009, a study was published called, *The Widget Effect* (Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, & Keeling) that critiqued teacher evaluation structures in education. The Widget Effect can be described as "…the tendency of school districts to assume effectiveness is the same from teacher to teacher" (p. 32). This tendency is embedded in the teacher evaluation systems:

The Widget Effect is characterized by institutional indifference to variations in teacher performance. Teacher evaluation systems reflect and reinforce this in several ways:

1. All teachers are rated good or great

2. Excellence goes unrecognized

3. Inadequate professional development

4. No special attention to novices

5. Poor performance goes unaddressed. (p. 33)

Weisberg et al. (2009) believed the number one factor to change the Widget Effect would be to adopt a comprehensive performance evaluation system that fairly, accurately, and credibly differentiates teachers based on their effectiveness in promoting student achievement. The argument for student gains in learning would be the variable that would differentiate teacher effectiveness:

> Teachers should be evaluated based on their ability to fulfill their core responsibility—delivering instruction that helps students learn and succeed. This demands clear performance standards, multiple rating options, regular monitoring of administrator judgments, and frequent feedback to teachers. It requires professional development tightly linked to performance standards and differentiated based on individual teacher needs. The core purpose of evaluation must be maximizing teacher growth and effectiveness, not just documenting poor performance as a prelude to dismissal. (Weisberg et al., 2009, p. 34)

Section 2: Federal Educational Mandates

In this section of the literature review, selected federal legislative directives or mandates are discussed that have had an impact on teacher evaluation practices at the state level. The regulations will be analyzed chronologically. As new laws and phases developed, based on the current environment in education, teacher evaluation structures changed to meet the demands of the current legislative climate of education. Only the federal legislation relevant to this study is examined in this review.

A Nation at Risk – 1983

In 1981, Secretary of Education T. H. Bell created the National Commission on Excellence in Education. This commission's directive was to "…examine the quality of education in the United States and to make a report to the Nation" (A Nation at Risk (ANAR), p. 7). In this imperative for education reform, Secretary Bell made several specific charges to the commission to research and analyze. One of these charges was to "…assess the quality of teaching and learning in our Nation's public and private schools, colleges, and universities" (ANAR, p. 7). This document specifically "…addressed the arena of accountability, focusing on the need for accountability on educator's actions. This report's information was the impetus that led state-level policy-makers to create reforms for improved teacher evaluation" (Veir & Dagley, 2002, p. 1). Goldberg (1984) summarized that one of the recommendations from A Nation at Risk was teacher status.

> The report says that teaching is not an honored profession in American society and that it won't be until it can provide teachers with adequate status (meaning more money), less disruption from essential tasks, differentiated salaries, and some way to recognize outstanding performance. Unless we address the question of teacher status in American society, the other reforms are most unlikely to be accomplished. (p.15)

A Nation at Risk triggered teacher evaluation reform in legislative dialogue at the federal level. The evolving accountability movement of public education in the 1980s:

> Viewed teacher evaluation as one of the problems in the school system. During the1980s, the inadequacy of teacher evaluations stifled efforts to improve teaching and learning in the school system. In the hopes of improving student performance, many state

legislatures implemented accountability measures for educators. (Veir & Dagley, 2002, p. 2)

Since most evaluation processes were largely left to the discretion of local school boards, A Nation at Risk placed teacher evaluation practices on notice due to poor performance on student achievement. This document was the impetus that led to state reformed legislation.

<center>No Child Left Behind Act – 2001</center>

In 2001, congress passed with bipartisan support the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act. On January 8, 2002, President George W. Bush signed NCLB into law. This Act was the renewal of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. According to NCLB (Klein, 2017, para 7-10) the four key features of the law were:

1. States must test students in reading and math in grades 3 through 8 and once in high school. And they must report the results, for both the student population as a whole and for particular "subgroups" of students.

2. States were required to bring all students to the "proficient level" on state tests by the 2013-14 school year, although each state got to decide, individually, just what "proficiency" should look like, and which tests to use.

3. Schools are kept on track toward their goals through a mechanism known as "adequate yearly progress" or AYP. If a school misses its state's annual achievement targets for two years or more, either for all students or for a particular subgroup, it is identified as not "making AYP" and is subject to cascade of increasingly serious sanctions.

4. The law also requires states to ensure their teachers are "highly qualified," which generally means that they have a bachelor's degree in the subject they are teaching and state certification. States are also supposed to ensure that "highly qualified' teachers are evenly distributed among schools with high concentrations of poverty and wealthier schools. (Klein, 2017, paras 7-10)

The fourth feature of NCLB affected teacher evaluation structures in the state of Georgia due to the required credentials for being classified as a highly-qualified teacher. According to NCLB, a highly-qualified teacher meant that a teacher was certified and demonstrated proficiency in his or her subject matter. To qualify for proficiency, teachers had to demonstrate a high level of competency in their subject matter by completing one of the following:

1. Passing a state test in each subject in which they teach; or

2. Successfully completing an undergraduate major/coursework equivalent to an undergraduate major/a graduate degree/advanced certification or credentialing, in each subject they teach; or

3. Using an individual professional development plan (i.e., High Objective Uniform State Standard of Evaluation, or HOUSSE, plan)—an option available only to veteran teachers. (Karelitz, Fields, Levy, Martinez-Guddapakam, & Jablonski, 2011, p. 2)

The NCLB mandate provided states a pathway to seek highly qualified teachers based on competency; however, there is no emphasis placed on teacher performance in the classroom. The highly-qualified teacher "May know their subjects but not much else about teaching and learning" (Barnett, Hoke, & Hirsh, 2004, p. 4). The NCLB began discussion on how to implement more thorough teacher evaluation structures to measure teacher proficiency in the

classroom. These multiple proposed measures would gauge teachers' knowledge of students, teaching, and community throughout the academic year (Barnett et al., 2004).

American Recovery and Reinvestment Act 2009

President Barack Obama signed into law the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) on February 17, 2009. Although the name of the Act makes no mention of education, this historical Act has been influential in changing how teachers are evaluated in the state of Georgia. The design of this federal legislation was to stimulate the economy, support job creation, and invest in critical sectors, including education (U.S. Dept. of Education, 2009).

The ARRA provided $4.35 billion for the Race to the Top Fund, a competitive grant program designed to:

> Encourage and reward states that are creating the conditions for education innovation and reform; achieving significant improvement in student outcomes, including making substantial gains in student achievement, closing achievement gaps, improving high school graduation rates, and ensuring student preparation for success in college and careers. (U.S. Department of Education, 2009, p. 2)

ARRA proposed that these changes be made in four core areas of education. Within these four core areas, states could design developmental plans and programs and implement them into their local state educational systems. These four core areas are:

1. Adopting standards and assessments that prepare students to succeed in college and the workplace and to compete in the global economy

2. Building data systems that measure student growth and success, and inform teachers and principals about how they can improve instruction

3. Recruiting, developing, rewarding, and retaining effective teachers and principals, especially where they are needed most

4. Turning around our lowest-achieving schools. (U.S. Dept. of Education, 2009, p. 2)

These four points of interest changed teacher evaluation structures in the state of Georgia. Under the ARRA, the state of Georgia developed a completely new evaluation system that would meet the new criteria that the federal government demanded. The selection criteria for The Race to the Top funding is based on a points system. The total number of points that a state can receive is 485 points. These points are the selection criteria on how the federal government will select the states that are participating in ARRA. Once those states design and implement new legislation that meets the criteria, it becomes a race among the states to receive the federal funding. The selection criteria are based on six sections. Those sections and their point systems are:

A. State Success Factors (125 points)

B. Standards and Assessments (70 points)

C. Data Systems to Support Instruction (47 points)

D. Great Teachers and Leaders (138 points)

E. Turning Around the Lowest-Achieving Schools (50 points)

F. General Selection Criteria (55 points). (U.S. Department of Education, 2009, p. 5)

Each section provides an area where states can develop and improve programs in their state education that would evolve over time. As their education programs improved, states would

be able to move ahead in the race to receive funding from ARRA. Tables 2.9 through 2.13

provide detailed information on how the states may accumulate the 138 points through state-

centered initiatives. Along with each table (Tables 2.9 through 2.13), there will be discussion on

how the state of Georgia is fulfilling those requirements.

Since this research is analyzing teacher evaluation structures, Section D of the ARRA

will be the primary focus of discussion on how it has impacted teacher evaluation systems in

Georgia. Section D of the selection criteria of ARRA focuses mainly on developing and retaining

effective teachers and leaders. Out of all the sections that accumulate points for Race to the Top

funding, Section D (see Table 2.9) contains the most points at 138, roughly 29% of the total

points. This section also focuses on teacher improvement and evaluation procedures that states

implement.

Table 2.9. Race to the Top funding, Section D

(D)(1) Providing high-quality pathways for aspiring teachers and principals (21 points)
The extent to which the State has—
(i) Legal, statutory, or regulatory provisions that allow alternative routes to certification (as defined in this notice) for teachers and principals, particularly routes that allow for providers in addition to institutions of higher education;
(ii) Alternative routes to certification (as defined in this notice) that are in use; and
(iii) A process for monitoring, evaluating, and identifying areas of teacher and principal shortage and for preparing teachers and principals to fill these areas of shortage. (U.S Department of Education, 2009, p. 9)

The necessary teacher evaluative reform measures that must be met by the states through policies and programs would need to yield and satisfy the requirements mentioned in Section D. Those requirements and demands are laid out in five additional segments.

According to Georgia's Race to the Top Application, submitted in 2010, the state of Georgia established different pathways (see Table 2.10) for teachers and principals to reach certification in their respective fields.

Table 2.10. Improving Teacher and Principal Effectiveness

(D)(2) Improving Teacher and Principal Effectiveness Based on Performance *(58 points)*

The extent to which the State, in collaboration with its participating LEAs (as defined in this notice), has a high-quality plan and ambitious yet achievable annual targets to ensure that participating LEAs (as defined in this notice)—

(i) Establish clear approaches to measuring student growth (as defined in this notice) and measure it for each individual student; (5 points)

(ii) Design and implement rigorous, transparent, and fair evaluation systems for teachers and principals that (a) differentiate effectiveness using multiple rating categories that take into account data on student growth (as defined in this notice) as a significant factor, and (b) are designed and developed with teacher and principal involvement; (15 points)

(iii) Conduct annual evaluations of teachers and principals that include timely and constructive feedback; as part of such evaluations, provide teachers and principals with data on student growth for their students, classes, and schools; (10 points) and

(iv) Use these evaluations, at a minimum, to inform decisions regarding— (28 points)

(a) Developing teachers and principals, including by providing relevant coaching, induction support, and/or professional development; (b) Compensating, promoting, and retaining teachers and principals, including by providing opportunities for highly effective teachers and principals (both as defined in this notice) to obtain additional compensation and be given additional responsibilities; (c) Whether to grant tenure and/or full certification (where applicable) to teachers and principals using rigorous standards and streamlined, transparent, and fair procedures; and

(d) Removing ineffective tenured and untenured teachers and principals after they have had ample opportunities to improve, and ensuring that such decisions are made using rigorous standards and streamlined, transparent, and fair procedures.

(Georgia Department of Education, 2010, p. 94)

Under the "A Plus Education Reform Act of 2000," Georgia state law:

> Authorizes alternative routes to certification that permit LEAs and Regional Educational Service Agencies (RESAs) to provide Educator Preparation programs for classroom teachers independently of institutions of higher education. It also gives the Professional Standards Commission (PSC) authority over traditional and alternative preparation programs for educational personnel and empowers PSC to recommend standards and procedures for preparing educational personnel as well as to approve programs of alternative certification. (Georgia Department of Education, 2010, p. 90)

The alternative state sponsored route for teacher certification is the Georgia Teacher Academy for Preparation and Pedagogy (GaTAPP) program. This alternative program meets all the requirements of Race to the Top directive. Candidates are required to have advanced degrees, receive individualized instruction while teaching, to be monitored by a supervisor to monitor the candidate's progress, and complete the program with a certification that is awarded to candidates completing traditional preparation programs (Georgia Department of Education, 2010).

These programs will be evaluated and held accountable by the Georgia Statewide Longitudinal Data System (SLDS) which will allow the state to develop and apply effectiveness measures for the preparation program. "These measures will be tested for reliability and then reported publicly, and will serve as key indicators in determining which programs are the most promising and should be enhanced" (p. 91).

This section has been the most influential to teacher evaluation frameworks in the state of Georgia. These requirements began the trend for a more comprehensive evaluation system in Georgia. In 2009, the state of Georgia developed a Teacher Effectiveness Measure (TEM) that included four key components:

1. Qualitative, rubric-based evaluation tool with multiple rating categories.

2. Value-added score, which measures the effect of a teacher or a school on student learning.

3. Reduction of the student achievement gap at the classroom/student roster level (for teachers) and the school level (for principals).

4. Other quantitative measures, to be developed, tested and evaluated by the State in collaboration with participating LEAs. (Georgia Department of Education, 2010, p. 98)

The four components of the TEM will be discussed further in this chapter when the new Georgia teacher evaluation system is analyzed. These four components provide the outlining framework for the current teacher evaluation system. Although Georgia already had mandatory annual evaluations, The GA Department of Education took additional steps to "…ensure that the annual evaluations were timely, meaningful and constructive" (Georgia Dept. of Education, 2010, p. 101). Some of those steps include:

(1) Conduct face-to-face annual evaluations of teachers.

(2) Provide timely and constructive feedback to all teachers as part of the evaluation process.

(3) Share all data with teachers relevant to their summative annual evaluations. (Georgia Department of Education, 2010, p. 101)

The state of Georgia instituted a completely new teacher and administrator evaluation platform to assess teachers and administrators' performance in their schools. Since this segment of the ARRA is worth 138 points, the state of Georgia made a drastic change on how teachers and administrators were evaluated in its new evaluation system called the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES). TKES assesses teachers' performance based on research strategies that are proven to be effective in measuring teacher performance. The framework of TKES will be discussed later in this chapter on how the changes from ARRA affected the teacher evaluation system in Georgia.

The equitable distribution of effective teachers and leaders is examined in Table 2.11 and this is especially important given the wide-range of demographics in the state of Georgia.

Table 2.11. Ensuring Equitable Distribution of Effective Teachers and Leaders.

(D)(3) Ensuring equitable distribution of effective teachers and principals (25 points)

The extent to which the State, in collaboration with its participating LEAs (as defined in this notice), has a high-quality plan and ambitious yet achievable annual targets to—

(i) Ensure the equitable distribution of teachers and principals by developing a plan, informed by reviews of prior actions and data, to ensure that students in high-poverty and/or high-minority schools (both as defined in this notice) have equitable access to highly effective teachers and principals (both as defined in Race to the Top Executive Summary Page 10 this notice) and are not served by ineffective teachers and principals at higher rates than other students; and (15 points)

(ii) Increase the number and percentage of effective teachers (as defined in this notice) teaching hard-to-staff subjects and specialty areas including mathematics, science, and special education; teaching in language instruction educational programs (as defined

under Title III of the ESEA); and teaching in other areas as identified by the State or

LEA. (10 points)

 (U.S Department of Education, 2009, pp. 9-10)

Georgia's plan, which addresses both (D)(3)(i) and (D)(3)(ii) of this criterion is four-

pronged:

1. Retain effective teachers and principals already working in high-poverty and high-

   minority schools and in shortage subject areas.

2. Encourage effective teachers and principals to move to high-poverty and high minority

   schools.

3. Grow the pipeline of effective teachers and principals entering the profession, both in

   high-need schools and shortage subject areas.

4. Improve the capacity of existing teachers and principals through targeted professional

   development. (Georgia Department. of Education, 2010, p. 120)

The state of Georgia also promised to put in place a performance-based compensation system

which included student growth as a significant component in teacher evaluation, and in teacher

pay. Teachers who would meet high effectiveness standards would be eligible for varying levels

of individual bonuses (Georgia Department of Education, 2010).

The state of Georgia pledged to make the following initiatives to meet the demands of

improving the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs:

1. The mission of Georgia's teacher and leader preparation programs must be to produce

   better outcomes for students**.**

2. Teacher and leader preparation programs must provide sustained, systematic and diverse clinical experiences that are integrated with classroom theory.

3. Teacher and leader preparation programs must prepare candidates to use data to differentiate instruction and boost student learning.

4. Teacher and leader preparation programs must carefully track and evaluate the student achievement impact of their graduates to identify and strengthen preparation practices.

5. Teacher preparation programs must create robust partnerships with LEAs in which distinguished teachers mentor student teachers and teacher candidates, including clinical experience in high-need settings.

6. Teacher preparation programs must conduct a legitimate examination of their candidates' ability to produce student learning before candidates are permitted to graduate.

7. Georgia will consider the link between Georgia Assessments for the Certification of Educators (GACE) results and student achievement over time, revising licensing requirements as appropriate. (Georgia Dept. of Education, pp. 132–134)

The provisions for improving teacher and leader preparation programs was also important for the application process for Race to the Top funding. These provisions are examined in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12. Improving Teacher and Leader Preparation Programs

(D)(4) Improving the effectiveness of teacher and principal preparation programs (14 points)
The extent to which the State has a high-quality plan and ambitious yet achievable annual targets to—
(i) Link student achievement and student growth (both as defined in this notice) data to the

> students' teachers and principals, to link this information to the in-State programs where those teachers and principals were prepared for credentialing, and to publicly report the data for each credentialing program in the State; and
>
> (ii) Expand preparation and credentialing options and programs that are successful at producing effective teachers and principals (both as defined in this notice).

(U.S Department of Education, 2009, p. 10)

If teachers and leaders are to engage in the work needed to support student learning, they need assistance in the form of professional learning and development. Table 2.13 examines the criteria for how applicants would be assessed for the provisions of appropriate professional learning for teachers and school leaders.

Table 2.13. Providing Effective Support for Teachers and Principals.

> **(D)(5) Providing effective support to teachers and principals (20 points)**
>
> *The extent to which the State, in collaboration with its participating LEAs, has a high-quality plan for its participating LEAs to—*
>
> (i) Provide effective, data-informed professional development, coaching, induction, and common planning and collaboration time to teachers and principals that are, where \ appropriate, ongoing and job-embedded. Such support might focus on, for example, gathering, analyzing, and using data; designing instructional strategies for improvement; differentiating instruction; creating school environments supportive of data-informed decisions; designing instruction to meet the specific needs of high-need students (as defined in this notice); and aligning systems and removing barriers to effective implementation of practices designed to improve student learning outcomes; and

> (ii) Measure, evaluate, and continuously improve the effectiveness of those supports in order to improve student achievement (as defined in this notice).

(U.S Department of Education, 2009, p. 10)

To fulfill these demands, the state of Georgia assured that it would "measure, evaluate, and continuously improve its efforts in order to continue only those strategies which truly assist educators in improving student outcomes" (Georgia Department of Education, 2010, p. 137). The Georgia Department of Education planned to implement these efforts through the following:

1. For implementation of common core standards and high-quality assessments, the State will develop high-quality instructional materials, resources, and assessments.

2. Through implementation of data systems to support instruction the State will assist by encouraging and helping districts to provide educators with the technological tools and training necessary for accessing and using data to improve instruction.

3. To provide great teachers and leaders, the State will provide continuous monitoring to ensure that districts conducting annual evaluations of teachers and principals provide timely and constructive feedback to teachers and principals.

4. The State will provide numerous supports to turn around the lowest-achieving schools in participating LEAs. In addition to funds which will flow to the LEAs through Race to the Top, these supports will include structural initiatives and programmatic initiatives.

   (Georgia Department of Education, 2010, pp.139-140)

Section 3: Georgia Mandates and Legislation in Education

This section reviews the major mandates and legislation that have directly affected the Georgia Teacher Evaluation Structures. The timeline of teacher evaluation reform can be divided into three-time periods. The first-time period is the longest and extends from the colonial times to the early 1980s. This section discusses early reforms within the Georgia state board of education. The second-time period ranges from the mid-1980s to 2010. During this time period, the state of Georgia begins to design a state mandated teacher evaluation process for all teachers in the state of Georgia. From 2010 to the present, the Georgia state Board of Education has reformed its teacher evaluation process again including value-added measures that assess teacher effectiveness. Each section analyzes and addresses and state legislature that affected teacher evaluation.

Time Period 1 - Early Developments

After the Revolutionary War, Georgia ratified the first state constitution which provided for public schools to be erected in each county and supported by the general expense of the state. The state constitution permitted the legislature to establish local schools and by 1850 Georgia had 219 chartered schools (Walker, 1991). After the civil war, Georgia's teachers united together to form the Georgia Teachers' Association in an effort to establish a system of public education. Through contributions from George Peabody, this association lobbied for educational reform and worked effortlessly to gain support from the state legislators (Walker, 1991). Consequently, the state constitution of 1868 provided for:

1. The establishment of a system of general education to be free for all children of the state and to be paid from tax funds.

2. The governor to appoint the State School Commissioner.

3. Taxes levied on shows, carnivals, "spirituous liquors," and poll tax to be used for public education. (Joiner, Bonner, Shearouse, & Smith, 1979)

The state government did not begin to develop a standardized teacher evaluation until the mid-eighties due to local school boards assuming most of the administrative responsibility. In 1937, a state Board of Education, composed of laypersons rather than educators, was established to supervise and coordinate the delivery of education (Grant, 2003). Up to the early 1970s, most of any education reform was outlined to address integration in schools. Georgia continually attempted to resist federal mandates that required schools to integrate all students. After its failed attempts to defy federal integration policies, the state government realized that the largest cost in the state's budget was K-12 education. However, "actual operating policy for K-12 education remained largely the domain of local governments" (Grant, 2003, para 2).

Time Period 2 - Georgia's Quality Basic Education Act 1985

In 1984, in reaction to A Nation at Risk, Governor Joe Frank Harris designed an education review Commission to analyze the current education legislation and to reform the obsolete laws (Walker, 1991). This commission played a major role in the development of the Quality Basic Education Act (QBE). The Georgia General Assembly passed the Quality Basic Education Act in 1985. This act was designed to reform education in the state of Georgia. The issue that compelled the passage of QBE was the inequality in funding among school systems in the state.

The state has traditionally funded a portion of local school system budgets, and the

remaining support came from local taxes. Before QBE, school systems received state

allocations on the basis of the number of students enrolled, without any adjustment for

the fiscal condition of the school system or its ability to raise revenues on its own. Rural

systems could not generate as much local funding as suburban districts could. By the

early 1980s urban school systems with shrinking tax bases were also having difficulty

keeping funding at already established levels, and legislators from both urban and rural

counties called for funding equalization. (Grant, para 3)

As quoted from the (1985) Georgia Department of Education QBE Summary report:

The major goals relate to teachers and students. The number of teachers leaving the

profession because of dissatisfaction will be reduced. The need for teachers holding

emergency certificates or teaching out of field will be eliminated…The major needs and

goals to be met by the public-school program include: improved statewide standards of

performance, improved status and rewards for teaching, and quality professional

development and incentive programs. (p.1)

While the QBE is mostly known for its impact on Georgia public school funding, it also

triggered the initiative to reform teacher evaluation structures in Georgia. There are 14 parts

within the legislation that cover a variety of factors that affect education. In Part 6, the education

act prescribes provisions for "recruiting, certifying, classifying, evaluating, employing, paying

and rewarding public school personnel" (Georgia Department of Education, 1985, p. 8). It also

states that "teachers who were currently certified, were tested for competency and had their job

performance evaluated when they pursued a renewal of their teaching certificate" (Georgia State

University Law Review, p. 306). In Part 6, the Georgia General Assembly laid the groundwork on how to structure a teacher evaluative system.

> All personnel employed by the public schools or regional agencies must be evaluated each year, including elected or appointed school superintendents. When deficiencies are identified, a plan for eliminating them must be provided and evidence of progress toward completion of the improvement plan shall be a part of the next annual evaluation. (Georgia Department of Education, 1985, p. 9)

The QBE Act also petitioned to the Georgia Board of Education to design a salary schedule for teachers that was based on teacher performance:

> A career ladder program which has as its purpose providing salary supplements to teachers who consistently demonstrate outstanding competency and performance. Such performance may include the achievement of students beyond the level typically expected for their ability. (Georgia Department of Education, 1985, p. 9)

The QBE Act began to trail-blaze a path towards a more rigorous teacher evaluation system in Georgia. This Act initiated the conversation of measuring teacher effectiveness more effectively through annual teacher evaluations with standardized areas of focus sponsored by the state. Local school system had to report to the state any staff members that were identified as needing improvement to the Georgia board of Education.

> Each local school system must develop and submit to the Georgia Board of Education an annual comprehensive staff development plan. The plan shall provide for programs to address deficiencies of school and system personnel identified through personnel evaluation, staff development needs identified through evaluation of the instructional

program, and other development needs deemed necessary by the state or local board.

(Georgia Department of Education, 1985, p.11)

However, local boards of education assumed the responsibility on how to design their local teacher evaluation systems through the QBE's direction.

Time Period 3 – A Plus Education Reform Act of 2000

The A Plus Education Reform Act of 2000 revised the QBE Act of 1985. Governor Roy Barnes sought to make schools more responsible for the quality of education they provided. Previously, educational systems were evaluated based on the "amount of time and resources invested in individual students" (Ordyna, 2000, p. 148). The A Plus Education Reform Act; however, is a standards-based reform system. It is a system that focuses on "teacher, administrative, and parental responsibility for student performance" (Ordyna, p.148).

Standards-based education reform evaluates the process through which educators teach and how students perform comparatively. Policy decisions and standards are determined at the state rather than the local school board level, as they would be under older educational models. (Ordyna, p.149)

Within the reform act there were new approaches to tackle some of the issues facing education. The main intention of the A Plus Education Reform Act was to provide for "comprehensive reform of the delivery of education services in Georgia. Specifically, the legislation is designed to increase student academic performance and to hold local schools accountable for student progress" (Lumley, 2000, p. 221).

To increase student academic performance, this law also issued changes to teacher evaluation structures in Georgia. The QBE Act established general parameters on how teacher evaluations should be perceived and structured. However, the A Plus Education Reform Act provided direct instructions on how the teacher evaluation framework should appear and how to implement it in the schools. The Reform Act developed criteria that should be implemented in the annual teacher evaluations:

1. The role of the teacher in meeting the school's student achievement goals, including the academic gains of students assigned to the teacher

2. Observations of the teacher by the principal and assistant principals during class time

3. Participation in professional development opportunities and the application of concepts learned to classroom and school activities

4. Communication and interpersonal skills as they relate to interaction with students, parents, other teachers, administrators, and other school personnel

5. Timeliness and attendance for assigned responsibilities

6. Adherence to school and local school system procedures and rules

7. Personal conduct while in performance of school duties. (Lumley, 2011, p. 246)

Lumley (2011) also notes that a teacher would not receive credit for any year in which the teacher received an unsatisfactory performance evaluation. Furthermore, any teachers who had received two unsatisfactory annual performance evaluations in the previous five-year period would not be re-certified until the recognized weakness was remedied.

Another change in the teacher evaluation process was the value-added measure of student improvement who were designated to that teacher.

A change in the state-required evaluation of teachers was the provision requiring the

consideration of "academic gains of students assigned to the teacher" as a component of

the teacher's evaluation. Student achievement is determined through a number of

assessments, including norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests. This component

elevated student assessment to a high-stakes area because continued teacher certification

can now be linked to student performance on assessments in core academic areas. (Eady

& Zepeda, 2007, p. 1)

As noted, these requirements of the teacher evaluation were more specific to the expectations of

the A Plus Education Reform Act than to the generalized requirements of the QBE Act.

Georgia Teacher Evaluation Process (GTEP)

In 2004, the state of Georgia developed a new evaluation instrument to measure teacher

performance in the classroom. The Georgia Teacher Evaluation Process or GTEP was developed

in response to the Quality Basic Education Act or QBE. This Act required:

All personnel employed by local units of administration shall have their performance

evaluated annually by appropriately trained evaluators. Certified professional personnel

who have deficiencies and other needs shall have professional development plans

designed to mitigate such deficiencies and other needs as may have been identified

during the evaluation process. (O.C.G.A. § 20-2-210)

This performance assessment was an annual evaluation to measure teacher effectiveness in the

classroom. This supervisory initiative was driven by three main purposes:

1. To identify and reinforce effective teaching practices

2. To identify areas where development can improve instructional effectiveness

3. To identify teachers who do not meet the minimum standards so that appropriate action can be taken. (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p.1)

This supervisory tool has two types of processes to measure the teacher's effectiveness. First, there is the standard evaluation process. This process is implemented for teachers that meet the following criteria:

1. Teachers with fewer than three years of teaching experience

2. Teachers with three or more years of teaching experience who are newly employed with a local unit of administration

3. Teachers not in categories (1) or (2) whose previous year's performance was unsatisfactory under the standard evaluation process

4. Teachers eligible for the formative evaluation process who are placed into the standard evaluation process as determined by the principal

5. Teachers with three or more years of experience who are not newly employed with the local unit of administration and who have a satisfactory Overall Evaluation Summary rating following two years in the formative process. (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p. 7)

The other evaluative process is known as the Formative Evaluation Process: This process is designed for teachers that meet these requirements:

Teachers with three or more years of teaching experience who are not newly employed with the local unit of administration and whose most recent overall GTEP rating was satisfactory under the standard evaluation process. (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p. 8)

If a teacher accumulates 5 or more Needs Improvement (NI) scores during the observations, then the teacher will be required to participate in the Extended Phase. This phase requires more conferences and observations with his or her assigned supervisor. Within the GTEP process, there are eight basic steps in the process as identified by the Georgia Department of Education (2005, p. 4) to complete the evaluation which are displayed in Figure 2.1.

Within this evaluation instrument, the supervisor implements two tools to measure teacher effectiveness in the classroom. There is the Georgia Teacher Observation Instrument (GTOI) and the Georgia Teacher Duties and Responsibilities Instrument (GTDRI). The GTOI is organized into three broad areas called teaching tasks to ensure that the teacher:

1. Provides Instruction

2. Assesses and Encourages Student Progress

3. Manages the Learning Environment

Within each teaching task, the supervisor measures the teacher's performance based on measurable components that describe the expectations within each teaching task. These teaching tasks are explained in detail on the observation form.

GEORGIA TEACHER EVALUATION PROCESS

ORIENTATION

PRE-EVALUATION CONFERENCE
(if requested)

| GTOI:
CLASSROOM
OBSERVATIONS | GTDRI:
ONGOING
OBSERVATIONS |

```
         ↓                                        ↓
┌─────────────────────────┐
│    SCORING AND          │
│  WRITTEN COMMENTS       │
└─────────────────────────┘
         ↓
┌─────────────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────────────┐
│   POST-OBSERVATION      │      │  WRITTEN NOTIFICATION,  │
│     CONFERENCE          │      │    DOCUMENTATION        │
│    (if requested)       │      │   AND A CONFERENCE      │
└─────────────────────────┘      └─────────────────────────┘
         ↓                                        ↓
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         ANNUAL EVALUATION SUMMARY REPORT                  │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          ↓
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         ANNUAL EVALUATION SUMMARY REPORT                  │
│  (optional if satisfactory in formative evaluation process)│
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          ↓
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN                     │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Figure 2.1. Georgia Teacher Evaluation Process

Source: Georgia Department of Education (2005, p. 4)

There are two types of forms: the Standard Form is considered formative and is intended for short unannounced observations, and the Extended Form is used for full-lesson observations that are announced. The Standard Form is made up of 10 measurable components to assess the teacher's abilities. The overall rating within each teaching task is either Satisfactory (S) or Needs Improvement (NI). Appendix A has an example of the Standard Form for evaluation (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p. 76).

The Extended Form is for a full-lesson observation. Within this instrument, supervisors provide a more-detailed observation that pinpoints specific aspects of the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. While the Standard Form measures 10 areas during the observation, the Extended Form assesses 15 areas of teaching as displayed by the (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p. 78) in Appendix B.

After teachers have been observed through either process and have arrived at the end of the process, Step 7–Annual Evaluation Conference must be conducted to summarize the results on the GTOI and the GTDRI. The main purposes of the Annual Evaluation conference are:

1. To communicate the overall evaluation results for the school year

2. To review specific areas of strength and areas identified for improvement

3. For the teacher and the primary evaluator to sign, date, and receive copies of the Annual Evaluation Summary Report.

Appendix C illustrates the Annual Evaluation Summary Report (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p. 80).

Time Period 3 - Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES)

In 2013, Georgia passed House Bill 254 in response to the state's Race to the Top application requirements. The intention of the bill was to "revise certain provisions relating to annual performance evaluations; and to provide for the development of evaluation systems for teachers of record…" (Georgia General Assembly, 2015). House Bill 244 became law on July 1, 2014. The new designed evaluation system was called The Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES).

According to the Georgia Department of Education, "TKES is a common evaluation system designed for building teacher effectiveness and ensuring consistency and comparability

throughout the state" (Georgia Department of Education, 2016a, para 1). TKES is divided into three key components that provide different sources of information on teacher performance that can be used to assess teacher competency. The three components are Teacher Assessment on Performance Standards (TAPS), Professional Growth, and Student Growth. These three components are described in the following figure:

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Teacher Keys Effectiveness System     │
│  (Generates a Teacher Effectiveness Measure) │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

```
┌──────────────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────────┐
│   Teacher Assessment on      │      │   Professional Growth    │
│  Performance Standards 50%   │      │          20%             │
│  Observations and Documentation │   │                          │
└──────────────────────────────┘      └──────────────────────────┘
```

```
┌────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                      Student Growth                         │
│                         30%                                 │
├───────────────────────────────┬────────────────────────────┤
│ Teachers of SGP Grades and Courses │ Teachers of Non-SGP Grades and │
│   Student Growth Percentiles       │           Courses             │
│                                    │    LEA Determined Measures    │
└───────────────────────────────┴────────────────────────────┘
```
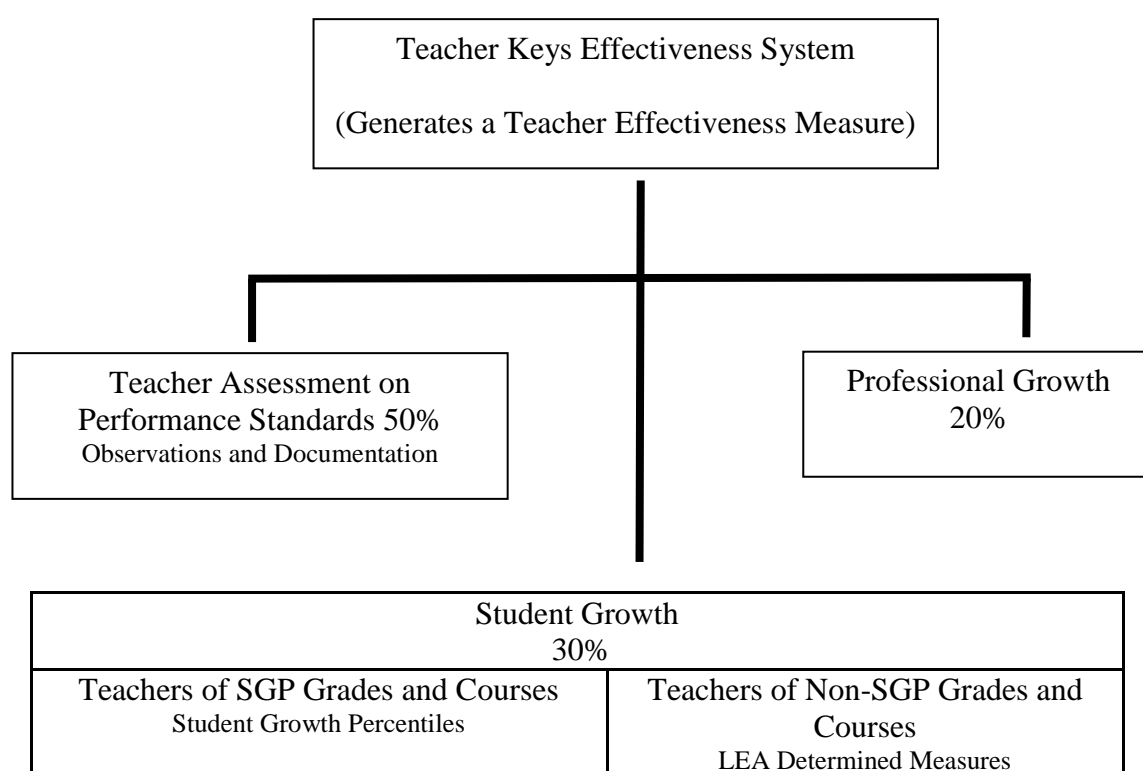
Figure 2.2. Teacher Keys Effectiveness System

Although in the GTEP process the teacher's evaluation was divided into three separate teaching tasks equally, the TKES platform is divided into three sections by percentage. The GTEP classroom observation portion in the new TKES process is 50% of the evaluation. The

other 50% percent comes from two areas outside of a teacher's observation. Student growth and

professional growth are two components that are results from the teacher's performance in the

classroom (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b).

Component 1: Teacher Assessment on Performance Standards (TAPS) – 50%

Since the GTEP implementation, there had been an increased, emerging alignment

between teacher-effectiveness research and teacher evaluation. Stronge and Xu (2011) explained

that "such connection between research and practice facilitates the development of evaluation

systems that are based on realistic, research informed performance standards, therefore, making

the measurement of teacher performance and feedback more accurate and useful" (p.1). From

the QBE Act to the establishment of the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System, the Georgia teacher

evaluation structure had evolved into a thorough organization of different components that

assessed teachers in different areas of expertise.

Georgia's teachers' quality of instruction began to be measured on these 10 performance

standards within the TKES framework. The current perfomance standards assess a wide array of

teacher attributes and responsibilities in and outside the classroom. These 10 performance

standards are separted into five different categories on which the teacher is assessed as described

in Table 2.14.

Table 2.14. TKES Performance Standards

Category	Performance Standards
Planning	Professional Knowledge Instructional Planning
Instructional Delivery	Instrutional Strategies Differentiated Instruction
Assessment of and for Learning	Assessment Strategies Assessment Uses
Learning Environment	Positive Learning Environment

	Academically Challenging Environment
Professionalism and Communication	Professionalism Communication

These standards' significance and specificity are further explained:

> Performance standards are used to collect and present data to document teacher
> effectiveness that is based on a comprehensive conception of the job responsibilities for
> teachers. Standards are intended to provide a balance between structure and flexibility.
> They also define common purposes and expectations, thereby guiding effective
> professional practices. The ultimate goal is to support the continuous growth and
> development of each teacher by monitoring, analyzing, and applying pertinent data
> compiled within a system of meaningful feedback. A fair and solid set of performance
> standards can provide sufficient detail and accuracy so that both teachers and evaluators
> (i.e., principal, supervisor) understand the full range of teacher performance and identify
> areas for professional improvement. (Stronge & Xu, 2011, p. 1)

Teachers are assessed on these standards based on the Performance Appraisal Rubric. These
rubrice provide a comprehensive assessment on each standard. The rubric's role in the evaluative
process is described:

> The performance rubric is a behavioral summary scale that guides evaluators in assessing
> how well a standard is performed. It states the measure of performance expected of
> teachers and provides a qualitative description of performance at each level. The resulting
> performance appraisal rubric provides a clearly delineated step-wise progression, moving
> from highest to lowest levels of performance. Each level is intended to be qualitatively
> superior to all lower levels. The description provided for Level III of the performance

appraisal rubric is the actual performance standard, thus Level III is the expected level of

performance. Teachers who earn a Level IV rating must meet the requirements for Level

III and go beyond. (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b, p. 9)

The process of Teacher Assessment on Performance Standards (TAPS) consists of of 8 steps:

STEP 1 : Orientation

STEP 2: Familiarization

STEP 3: Self - Assessment

STEP 4: Pre – Evaluation Conference

STEP 5: Full Formative Assessment Process / Flexible Process

STEP 6: Mid - Year Conference

STEP 7: Summative Performance Evaluation

STEP 8: Summative Conference (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b, pp. 11 -14)

During STEP 5, the teacher is observed in the classroom (15 minutes to 30 minutes) a

certain number of times based on years of experience in the state of Georgia. Also, if a teacher

changes his or her subject area, that teacher is placed on a full plan for one year. The

administrator or supervisor assesses the teacher on the performance standards based on the

observations or professional interactions that have occurred throughout the year with the teacher.

During STEPS 5 – 7, the administrator scores the teacher on the performance standards based on

the performance rubric (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b)

Once all performance standards have been assessed and scored, the total of the leveled

scores on each performance standard is calculated to determine the Teacher Effectiveness

Measure (TEM) score. This score determines the effectiveness of the teacher based on his or her

performance on the 10 perfomance standards. In Table 2.15, the summative scores are broken

down into the appropriate levels (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b p.14).

Table 2.15. TAPS Summative Cut Scores

TAPS Summative Cut Scores

Final Ratings	TAPS Summative Cut Scores
Level I	0 – 6
Level II	7 – 16
Level III	17 – 26
Level IV	27 – 30

The expectation for all teachers is to earn a Level III TEM score. This score is interpreted as a

teacher being proficient in his or her field. The TEM score is the first component that counts as

50% of the total teacher evaluation.

Component 2: Professional Growth – 20%

The professional growth measure is monitored based on the teacher's progress "toward or

attainment of professional growth goals or plan" (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b

p.14). The teachers' professional growth goals or plan should be approved and monitored by the

local education agency. This component is rated based on progress toward attainment of the goal.

The Georgia Department of Education recommends that these professional growths or plan

address the following:

- Weaknesses identified through the TAPS process,

- Teacher's individual professional goals,

- School Improvement Goals,

- District Improvement Goals, or

- Any other district or school identified need. (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b, p. 15)

Component 3: Student Growth – 30%

The last component of the TKES evaluation is comprised of Student Growth Percentiles (SGP) for teachers of SGP grades and courses. According to GA DOE, this Student Growth Percentile is calculated annually by GA DOE for student growth based on state assessment data.

For the teachers who teach a non-SGP grade or course, the local education agency (LEA) determines the growth measure. The LEA Determined Measure may include Student Learning Objectives, the School or District Mean Growth Percentile, or another measure identified or developed and implemented by the LEA (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b, p. 16).

CHAPTER 3

ANALYSIS

Chapter 3 presents an analysis of the legal and historical materials reviewed in chapter 2, including a model historical timeline of the development of teacher supervision, an analysis of stuctural changes to teacher evaluation, and an analysis of supervisor practices.

The timeline is divided into 3 separate categories: federal mandates, teacher supervision phases, and state mandates. The timeline highlights important events or significant changes in state and federal legislation within each teacher supervision phase. One observation from the timeline reveals that the federal government's involvement in Georgia teacher evaluation began to pick up steam in the late 1980s as Georgia legislation responded to the demands and implications of *A Nation at Risk.*

Another observation is the Georgia teacher evaluation structure became more complex in the Human Development Phase. This was due to increased involvement from federal government funding and the evaluation structure's focus on the improvement of the teacher in the classroom. From the timeline, the most active time for change in evaluating teachers in Georgia was during the Human Development Phase as a result of supervision trends and the federal government's interest in public education.

Federal Mandates   **Teacher Supervision Phases**   **GA Mandates**

Phase 1:
Community

`

Phase 2:
Professionalization

1850
Georgia had 219 chartered schools

1868
Georgia constitution establishes free general education to all students

Phase 3:
Scientific

Phase 4:
Human Relations

1937
Georgia state board of education is established to supervise delivery of education

Phase 5:
2nd Wave Scientific

1983
A Nation at Risk

Phase 6:
2nd Wave Human Relations

1985
Quality Basic Education Act

2000
A Plus Education Reform Act

2001
No Child Left Behind

2004
GA Teacher Evaluation

Phase 7:
Human Development

2009
American Recovery & Reinvestment Act

2013
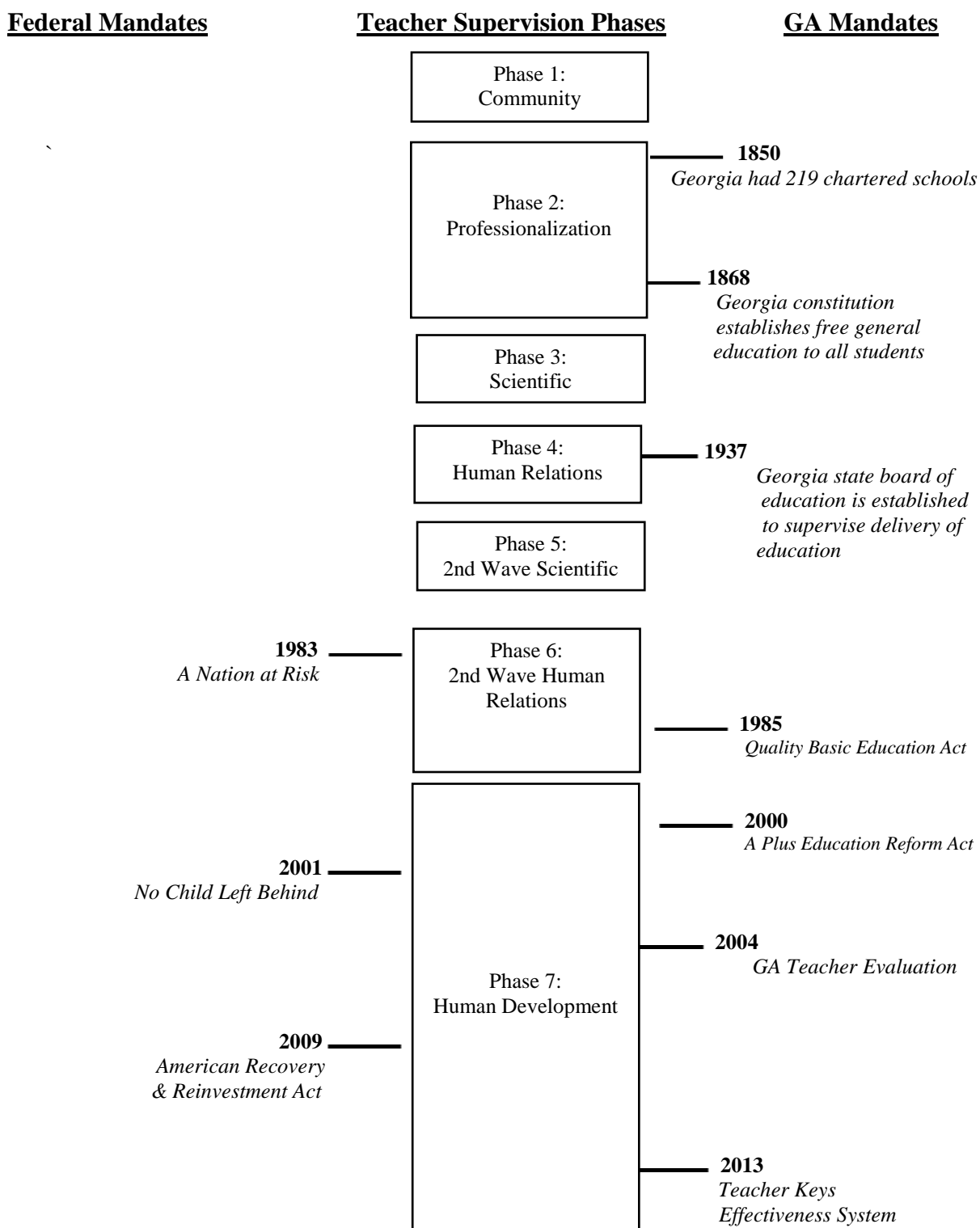*Teacher Keys Effectiveness System*

Figure 3.1 Historical Timeline

An Analysis of Structual Changes to Teacher Evaluation

The structural findings are associated with the Georgia structure of teacher evaluation. These findings highlight how the evaluation structure has transformed due to changes in supervision practices and federal legislation. Those findings are:

1. Federal legislation influenced Georgia legislation to change teacher evaluation structures.

Since the publishing of *A Nation at Risk* to the implementation of the educational mandate *Race to the Top*, federal commentary and legislation have had a direct impact on Georgia legislation in education. Georgia legislation in education has changed due to federal mandates. Federal funding for education at times was strapped to Georgia's compliance of the federal legislation. As mentioned in chapter 2, NCLB and Race to the Top completely transformed teacher evaluation practices by making the evalaution process more thorough with emphasis on teacher growth.

2. Georgia teacher evaluation measures changed after a new mandate from the federal government.

After the passing of NCLB, discussion began on how to implement more thorough teacher evaluation structures to measure teacher proficiency in the classroom (Barnett et al., 2004). Georgia teachers were evaluated differently through the GTEP process. This instrument was developed to:

1. To identify and reinforce effective teaching practices
2. To identify areas where development can improve instructional effectiveness

3. To identify teachers who do not meet the minimum standards so that

appropriate action can be taken. (Georgia Department of Education, 2005, p.1)

Following the GTEP process, the state of Georgia developed a completely new

evaluation system that would meet the new criteria that the federal government demanded from

the next educational federal directive. In 2013, Georgia passed House Bill 254 in response to the

state's Race to the Top application requirements. The intention of the bill was to "revise certain

provisions relating to annual performance evaluations; and to provide for the development of

evaluation systems for teachers of record…" (Georgia General Assembly, 2015).

3. Georgia teacher evaluation has become more detailed-oriented, standard specific over the

years.

According to the historical review of Georgia teacher evaluations, after the revolutionary

war and up to the mid-eighties, local school boards assumed the administrative responsibility to

evaluatate teachers. The QBE Act of 1985 was the catapult of designing more complex teacher

evalaution structures. This Act was the first in Georgia to clearly state teacher expectations.

All personnel employed by the public schools or regional agencies must be evaluated

each year, including elected or appointed school superintendents. When deficiencies

are identified, a plan for eliminating them must be provided and evidence of

progress toward completion of the improvement plan shall be a part of the next annual

evaluation. (Georgia Department of Education, 1985, p. 9)

Following this ACT, the GTEP instrument was introduced to evaluate teachers at

the state level. This Act also initiated the conversation of measuring teacher effectiveness more

effectively through annual teacher evaluations with standardized areas of focus sponsored by the state. Currently, Georgia now has a more complex evaluative structure, TKES. This evaluative structure was introduced in 2013. Although in the GTEP process the teacher's evaluation was divided into three separate teaching tasks equally, the TKES platform is divided into three sections by percentage. The GTEP classroom observation portion in the new TKES process is 50% of the evaluation. The other 50% percent comes from two areas outside of a teacher's observation. Student growth and professional growth are two components that are results from the teacher's performance in the classroom (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b).

The TKES observation measures a teacher on 10 standards by ranking the teacher on a one to four scale based on his or her performance on that standard. With the GTEP instrument, the teacher has a final evaluation of satisfactory or unsatisfactory. While the TKES final evaluation is a TEM score based on the teacher's performance on the standards. The TEM score ranks the teacher's performance. The TKES evaluation process is a more thorough systematic approach to measuring teacher performance.

An Analysis of the Social Influences on Teacher Evaluation

The next category is the social category. The findings in this category are related to societal influences, social relationships, and perceptions of the roles of the evaluator and teacher. This study revealed the following findings:

1. The perception of the teacher's role has become more significant over time.

The teacher's role in a child's education in the early stage of education was responsible for the total instruction of all students, the maintenance of the building, keeping the stove filled with wood, and cleaning the floors. (Glickman et al., 1998, p.16) Burke and Krey (2005) asserted that the teacher was perceived as a servant to the community. As time passed, the teacher's role and influence became more valuable to society. As urban and rural populations increased, the perception of the teacher's responsibilities widened. Student performance became connected with teacher pedagogical practices. Currently, teachers are seen as the most influential factor to student performance. As mentioned earlier, Tucker and Stronge (2005) have stated:

> We know empirically that effective teachers have a direct influence in enhancing student learning. Years of research on teacher quality support the fact that effective teachers not only make students feel good about school and learning, but also that their work actually results in increased student achievement. (p. 2)

The perception of the teacher's role has taken tremendous steps that have widened the scope of his or her influence in the classroom.

2. The perception of the evaluator's role has become more influential to teacher performance.

Burke and Krey (2005) described that the supervisor was labelled as an inspector and not as someone to assess pedagogical practices. The major purpose of the supervisor was to make judgements about the teacher rather than about the instruction or the students' learning. Decisions were made based on the basis of what the supervisor or inspector observed. The supervisor's role was to inspect but not evaluate. (Burke and Krey 2005, pp. 8-9) In the late

1800s and early 1900s, as urban and rural populations increased, new administrative positions were needed to supervise and evaluate teachers. The concept of supervision changed from inspecting the teacher to aiding the teacher for improving the instruction in the classroom (Burke & Krey 2005).

As time passed on, the perception of the evaluator's role was to help the teacher improve his or her pedagogical practices in the classroom. In the Human Development Phase, the needs of the teachers and the needs of the organization were both considered in evaluating a teacher's practices in the classroom. No longer were evaluators inspecting teachers; evaluators were improving teaching by improving teachers' areas of deficit.

3. The relationship between the supervisor, teacher and student outcome have changed back and forth.

The fluid relationship between supervisor and teacher fluctuated back and forth over time during the different phases. (Tracy, 1995) This relationship influenced how evaluation structures should be designed, how teacher conferences should be facilitated, and how student outcomes should be perceived in relation to student performance. As the relationship would focus more on the teachers' needs, student performance was not the overlying factor in a teacher's evaluation.

The Human Developmental Phase created a shift in the perception of teacher evaluation. In the past, the emphasis of a teacher's evaluation was the teacher's performance in the classroom. In the Human Development Phase, the needs of the teachers and the needs of the organization are both considered in evaluating a teacher's practices in the classroom. (Tracy,

1995) Prior to this phase, emphasis on student outcomes was essential to evaluate teachers. In the Scientific phases, teachers were evaluated by:

1.   The use of complex observation systems to measure effective and ineffective teacher behaviors.

2.   Increased reliance on standardized testing of students.

3.   Emphasis on a behavioral objective basis for instruction that strove to achieve measurable and observable outcomes. (Tracy, 1995, p. 324)

Currently, the classroom observation portion in the TKES process is 50% of the evaluation. The other 50% percent comes from two areas outside of a teacher's observation. Student growth and professional growth are two components that are results from the teacher's performance in the classroom (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b). The relationship between supervisor and teacher and student outcomes are both considered important factors in Georgia teacher evaluation.

An Analysis of Supervisor Practices

The last category is supervisory methods. Within this category, the findings are connected with the supervisory practices that have influenced changes in the Georgia evaluation structure. This study uncovered the following findings:

1. Supervisory practices evolved as teacher performance expectations changed.

As teacher expectations changed, so did the supervisory methods to measure teacher performance. In the beginning, teacher supervision practices rested on different members of the

community due to the country's strong convictions in "local, lay control of education" (Tracy, 1995, p. 320). Supervision was administered by the local leaders of the community. Tracy (1995) mentions that "teachers were the servants of the community and should be expected to respond to the community's directives." (Tracy, p. 321)

However, the supervisor's role evolved due to the expectations of a teacher. There began to be an upsurge in the knowledge and skills of a teacher. Student outcomes became a factor in measuring teacher success. Supervisors began implementing scientific principles to measure teacher performance. These practices developed into necessary measures to gauge teacher effectiveness. In the Student Achievement Phase, Tucker and Stronge (2005) explained that teacher evaluation systems that determine teacher effectiveness in the classroom should implement evidence of student gains in learning in a teacher's evaluation. Along with the teacher's observations, the data from student learning should support the behaviors observed in the classroom. Due to this reasoning, supervisory practices now include reading data, measuring student outcomes, and promoting data-driven instruction to their teachers.

2. Environmental factors shaped teacher evaluation measurements.

This finding is made due to the development of the evalaution measures from environmental factors. This finding is made mostly in the early years of supervision. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, as urban and rural populations increased, new administrative positions were needed to supervise and evaluate teachers. The concept of supervision changed from inspecting the teacher to aiding the teacher for improving the instruction in the classroom (Burke & Krey 2005).

As these districts and school systems continued to grow, the need for meaningful and professional supervision became necessary for effective teacher evaluation. Tracy (1995) clarified that "rather than simply understanding the mores of the community, the supervisor needed to have subject area knowledge and teaching skills" (p. 323). Teacher supervisors needed to be more qualified to provide applicable instruction to teachers that would improve their pedagogical practices in the classroom.

The growth of populations in communities forced school systems to acknowledge the complex effort that was required to teach effectively. For teachers to improve their trade, they needed to be provided feedback and meaningful supervisory structures that allowed them to improve their expertise in the classroom. Teacher supervisors needed to be more qualified to provide applicable instruction to teachers that would improve their pedagogical practices in the classroom.

Chapter 4

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to review significant historical teacher supervision practices, federal educational legislation that affected the teacher evaluation framework in Georgia and to provide a review and analysis of the evolution of teacher evaluation structures in Georgia. This was accomplished by analyzing state and federal relevant legislation, providing a general historical overview of teacher supervisory practices in schools, and studying how the Georgia teacher evalution framework evolved over time. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relevant general history of teacher supervision and evaluation?

2. What is the relevant federal legislative history concerning teacher supervision and evaluation?

3. How have these developments influenced teacher evaluation in Georgia?

Chapter 2 provided a review of the general history of teacher supervision and evaluation. It also covered the impact of federal and state legislation on teacher evaluation structures in Georgia.

Findings

This study made the following findings:

1. Georgia teacher evaluation structures are directly affected by federal legislation.

2. Historically, Georgia teacher evaluation structures have become more standardized to meet teacher and student needs.

3. Societal perceptions of teachers and evaluators have impacted Georgia teacher evaluation design.

4. As teacher expectations have changed, so have supervisory practices when evaluating teachers in Georgia.

5. Political, societal, and environmental factors have influenced the landscape of Georgia teacher evaluation designs.

Conclusion

Over the last twenty years, the influence of the federal government to the Georgia teacher evaluation structure has increased significantly. With the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act to the latest Race to the Top mandate, the Georgia teacher evaluation structure has been molded to meet the demands of the federal iniatives. Before the federal government's involvement, Georgia teachers' evaluations were performed based on local government policies. After the publication of the Nation at Risk in 1983 and the enactment of the Quality of Basic Education Act in 1985, this study found that the evaluation structure of Georgia teachers became the indicator to assess the correlation between the state and federal educational mandates.

This study also found that the changing of supervision trends manipulated future designs of teacher evaluation structures. As supervisory practices swayed more toward the development of a teacher instead of the inspection of his or her work, Georgia teacher evaluations became more specific on how teachers can grow as a professional. The TKES structure allows

administrators to identify areas of professional growth for teachers while earlier evaluative instruments provided a summary of satisfactory or unsatisfactory performance.

In conclusion, these three core elements: supervisory trends, federal mandates and state mandates, are the prominent factors that sculpt the framework for teacher evaluations in Georgia. As each one of these elements weaves its effect through the framework, any change to its significance to teacher evaluation will manipulate the evaluative structure's role and outcomes. This study found that the Georgia teacher evalution is the intersction where these three significant factors meet.

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APPENDIX A

FORMATIVE PROCESS: CONFIDENTIAL GTOI OBSERVATION RECORD: STANDARD FORM

Teacher's Name   System   School

Teacher's System State Code	Teacher's School State Code	Last 4 Digits Teacher SSN	Last 4 Digits Observer SSN	Date			Beginning time_____ Ending time: _____	Total Minutes	Lesson Segment (Circle One) B M E O
				MO	DAY	YR			

Focus of Lesson:

TEACHING TASK I: PROVIDES INSTRUCTION	MARK SCORES FOR EACH DIMENSION

Comments:	A. Instructional Level (NI) (S)
	 B. Content Development
	   1. Teacher-Focused (NI) (S)
	   And/or And/or
	   2. Student-Focused (NI) (S)
	 C. Building for Transfer (NI) (S) (NA)

TEACHING TASK II: ASSESSES AND ENCOURAGES STUDENT PROGRESS Comments:	A. Promoting Engagement (NI) (S) B. Monitoring Progress (NI) (S) C. Responding to Student Performance (NI) (S) D. Supporting Students (NI) (S)
TEACHING TASK III: MANAGES THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT Comments:	A. Use of Time (NI) (S) B. Physical Setting (NI) (S) C. Appropriate Behavior (NI) (S)

(Signatures)

OBSERVER: DATE   POSITION:

Sign and return copy to principal's office. Signature Acknowledges receipt of form not necessarily concurrence.
Written comments may be provided and /or attached. Initial and date here if comments are attached _____

TEACHER: DATE

Teacher's Comments:

APPENDIX B

CONFIDENTIAL GTOI OBSERVATION RECORD: EXTENDED FORM

Teacher's Name   System   School

Teacher's System State Code	Teacher's School State Code	Last 4 Digits Teacher SSN	Last 4 Digits Observer SSN	MO	DAY	YR	Extended Observation	Total Minutes	If observer is external to school, Record observers assigned codes: System State Code School State Code

Beginning Time:_____   Ending Time:_____

Focus of Lesson:

MARK SCORES FOR EACH DIMENSION

TEACHING TASK I: PROVIDES INSTRUCTION

Comments:_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

A.   Instructional Level   (NI) (S)

B.   Content Development
    1.   Teacher-Focused   (NI) (S)
       and/or   and/or
    2.   Student-Focused   (NI) (S)

C.   Building for Transfer
    1.   Initial Focus   (NI) (S)
    2.   Content Emphasis or Linking   (NI) (S)
    3.   Summaries   (NI) (S)

TEACHING TASK II: ASSESSES AND ENCOURAGES STUDENT PROGRESS

Comments:_____
_____
_____
_____

A.   Promoting Engagement   (NI) (S)

B.   Monitoring Progress   (NI) (S)

C.   Responding to Student Performance
    1.   Responding to Adequate Performances   (NI) (S)

    2.   Responding to Inadequate Performances   (NI) (S)

D.   Supporting Students   (NI) (S)

TEACHING TASK III: MANAGES THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Comments:_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

A.   Use of Time
    1.   Non-Instructional Tasks   (NI) (S)
    2.   Instructiional Time   (NI) (S)

B.   Physical Setting

C.   Appropriate Behavior   (NI) (S)
    1.   Monitoring Behavior   (NI) (S)
    2.   Intervening   (NI) (S)

APPENDIX C

CONFIDENTIAL GEORGIA TEACHER EVALUATIION PROGRAM: ANNUAL EVALUATION SUMMARY REPORT

Teacher's Name _____ System _____ School _____

System State Code	School State Code	Last 4 Digits Teacher SSN	Last 4 Digits Primary Evaluator SSN	Date			Evaluation Summary		
				MO	DAY	YR	Georgia Teacher Observation Instrument	Georgia Teacher Duties and Responsibilities Instrument	Overall Evaluation Summary

Teacher's Race/Ethnicity	Teacher's Sex	Current Year Status (darken only one)			Evaluation Summary columns

Teacher's Race/Ethnicity
- ○ American Indian, Alaskan Native
- ○ Asian, Pacific Islander
- ○ Hispanic
- ○ Black, Non-Hispanic
- ○ White, Non-Hispanic
- ○ Multi-racial

Teacher's Sex
- ○ Male
- ○ Female

Current Year Status (darken only one)

For teachers with fewer than 3 years experience:
- ○ Standard Year 1
- ○ Standard Year 2
- ○ Standard Year 3

For teachers with 3 or more years experience:
- ○ Standard

For teachers with 3 or more years experience new to system:
- ○ Formative Year 1
- ○ Formative Year 2
- ○ Standard

Georgia Teacher Observation Instrument
- ○ Satisfactory
- ○ Unsatisfactory
- ○ Not Applicable (Formative Only)

Georgia Teacher Duties and Responsibilities Instrument
- ○ Satisfactory
- ○ Unsatisfactory

Overall Evaluation Summary
- ○ Satisfactory
- ○ Unsatisfactory

GEORGIA TEACHER OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT SUMMARY COMMENTS

MARK ONLY AREAS FOR REQUIRED PDP

A. Instructional Level ○
B. Content Development
  1. Teacher – Focused ○
  2. Student – Focused ○
C. Building for Transfer ○

A. Promoting Engagement ○
B. Monitoring Progress ○
C. Responding to Student Performance ○
D. Supporting Students ○

A. Use of Time ○
B. Physical Setting ○
C. Appropriate Behavior ○

GEORGIA TEACHER DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES INSTRUMENT SUMMARY COMMENTS

IDENTIFY GTDRI AREAS FOR REQUIRED PDP

(REFER TO INSTRUMENT FOR CODES

(SIGNATURES) PRIMARY EVALUATOR: _____ DATE:_____

TEACHER: _____ DATE:_____

PRINCIPAL: _____ DATE:_____

Teacher's Comments:_____

Sign and return copy to principal's office. Signature Acknowledges receipt of form not necessarily concurrence. Written comments ma be provided and /or attached. Initial and date here if comments are attached _____

Revised 93/94