

CASE STUDIES OF TEACHER SATISFACTION  
WITH THREE PLANS FOR EVALUATION  
AND SUPERVISION

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Education in the  
Department of Educational Leadership,  
Policy and Technology Studies  
in the Graduate School of  
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2012

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify which plans for evaluation and supervision are most satisfactory to teachers. The study's participants come from three school systems in northwest Georgia. Each school district uses a different plan for evaluation and supervision; each claiming that the end goal is to improve teacher performance. Prior research has shown that teacher satisfaction increases teacher performance, which in turn, increases student achievement.

Each plan includes elements of both formative and summative evaluation. Because each of the plans was neither completely formative, used to improve teacher performance, nor summative, used to evaluate teachers, the term plan for evaluation and supervision was developed to encompass the dual roles of each district's plan. The study examines relationships between teachers' perceptions of five processes of evaluation: role of supervisor, formative/summative purposes of supervision, clarity of communication, time evaluated, and teacher participation in the plan. In addition, the study examines the relationship between years of teaching experience in the district and the plan for evaluation and supervision, as well as the relationship between evaluation time and plan for evaluation and supervision.

The study procedures included identification of districts with differing plans for evaluation and supervision. Once districts were identified, elementary teachers were surveyed. Two survey instruments were combined for use in this study: the first from Ebemeier (2003) and the second from Dollansky (1998). The survey includes questions from a variety of literature on teacher satisfaction. The survey had 229 teacher respondents from the three districts. Analysis of variance and chi square were used to analyze survey responses after preliminary analyses.

The three districts each align with research in the literature. District A aligns with collaborative supervision, District B with directive supervision, and District C with non-directive

supervision. Overall, the teachers from District B were the least satisfied. Neither the amount of time teachers were evaluated nor the years of teaching experience were significant factors in the analyses. The findings suggest that districts should develop plans for evaluation and supervision that incorporate collaborative and non-directive elements.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Writing a dissertation has been a test of endurance as well as a test of wit. I never realized how much work would be involved in writing a paper of this magnitude. I have enjoyed myself at times and have been miserable at times. But in the end, I wouldn't change this journey.

I am so thankful to my grandmother, who paid for my coursework at The University of Alabama. Although uneducated, she saw the value in advanced education. When she passed away in 2009, a gap was left in our family that cannot be filled. Although she would never want to read it, this dissertation is dedicated to her.

My parents, also educators, have pushed me along this journey. My dad, an educator to emulate, encouraged me and attempted to squelch my inattentive nature by redirecting me gently when I needed it. My mother listened patiently as I tried to work out chapter organizations and sources over the phone.

To the faculty and staff at Cave Spring Elementary School, I am thankful for the support, love, and La Cabana that you gave me during my years at The University of Alabama. Susan, thank you for the example you set for me. Deb, Tab, Liz, and Nicole you have seen me through to the end of this paper and this journey. I am ever so grateful.

I am thankful for my committee and I have newfound respect for each of you, knowing your dissertations were not done with the help of Google scholar, Google books, and the online library. Dr. Bauch, I am especially thankful for you in getting me started. Dr. Daisy, I am even more grateful for you in getting me finished! Dr. Godfrey, your statistical assistance saved me! Dr. Petrovic, Dr. Newman, and Dr. Mitchell, I thank you for your willingness to read my work and for your encouragement.

Finally, to Luke, thank you for putting up with me during this ride. You encouraged me to run, to eat, and to work when I needed. You listened to me gripe and allowed me to cover walls with notes on chart paper. You left the house when I needed silence, yet provided distraction when I was on the brink. Thank you.

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CHAPTER I:  
INTRODUCTION

**Introduction**

School districts face public scrutiny and federal and state mandates to assure that all teachers achieve a high level of teaching performance in their classrooms (Joyce & Showers, 1988). Federal law, under the No Child Left Behind legislation (2001), requires that all students are taught by “highly qualified” teachers (HQT). The legislation relates the “highly qualified” status of teachers to student achievement. At the state and district levels, schools are required to ensure the highly qualified status of teachers through testing requirements and by conducting teacher performance evaluations based on a common plan that emanates either from the State or from a district’s own plan of evaluation. The Official Code of Georgia (O.C.G.A. § 20-2-210, 1981) states that all school employees shall be evaluated yearly on their performance. The state of Georgia developed the Teacher Evaluation Program (GTEP) in response to the state code. The GTEP was introduced in 1993 and revised in 2003. Later, the state introduced the Classroom Analysis of State Standards (CLASS Keys), in 2008, a teacher evaluation system. A third plan of interest to this study, the Professional Development Process (PDP), was implemented by an individual school district in 2004. Of the 179 districts in the State of Georgia, few use their own evaluation plans. Thus, supervisory and evaluation processes can vary widely from one district to another. An opportunity exists to examine teachers’ perceptions of satisfaction with the various processes representing different plans for evaluation and supervision.

It is important to note that the terms “supervision” and “evaluation” are often conflated, especially in practice (Hazi, 1994). Each, however, has a different function. Supervision is defined as “the set of activities designed to improve the teaching process. The purpose of supervision is not to control teachers, but to work cooperatively with them” (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986, p. 3). McQuarrie and Wood (1991) defined evaluation as an administrative responsibility designed to determine the adequacy of a teacher’s performance for determining whether a teacher should be retained. While evaluation is a critical function of administration, Glatthorn (1990) argued that evaluation should remain distinct from supervision. Nevertheless, school districts often incorporate evaluation as a part of their supervisory process (Ebmeier, 2003; Hazi, 1994; Zepeda, 2007).

### **Statement of the Problem**

Among the first studies of teacher attitudes toward evaluation began in the 1970s. Zelanak and Snider (1974) surveyed 240 teachers regarding three dimensions of evaluation including the process and activity of evaluation, the evaluative aspects, and the potency of the evaluation. Zelanak and Snider compared attitudes of teachers who believed that evaluation was for administrative purposes with attitudes of teachers who believed evaluation was for improvement of instruction. Teachers who believed evaluation was used for administrative purposes felt negatively toward the evaluation, with means in three categories including activity (3.74), evaluative (4.00) and potency (3.53). Teachers who believed that evaluation was used to improve instruction felt positively toward the evaluation with means in three categories including activity (4.47), evaluative (5.11) and potency (4.53). Teachers believed that evaluation should lead to professional growth; but many teachers felt that administrators could manipulate evaluation data to reflect their own biases toward a particular teacher, thus placing them in

danger of losing their jobs (Schmelkin, Spencer & Gellman, 2003; Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). Similarly, Ponticell and Zepeda (2004) reported that 75% of teachers in their university classrooms perceived that supervision often conformed to the unspoken requirements of the principal based on the principal's perceptions of teacher behaviors that demonstrate obedience, loyalty, or unquestioning support. From these studies, it seems clear that in practice, evaluation and supervision are not distinct functions.

Problems with teacher evaluations generally centered around unfavorable policies (Peterson, 2004) and varied and lengthy timelines (Frymier & Thompson, 1995). In addition, Wolf (1973) stated that "teachers see nothing to be gained from evaluation...evaluation practice does more to interfere with professional quality teaching than to nurture it" (p. 160). Barrett (1986) explained that problems arise from miscommunication and lack of understanding by administrators or teachers about the purpose of the process; that is, whether it is for improving instruction, judging teacher performance, or both. Research continues to show that little has changed in teachers' negative views of evaluation (Dollansky, 1998; Ebmeier, 2003; Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Tuytens & Devos, 2010), perhaps due to the purpose for which evaluation and supervisory processes are used, or how the supervisory process is conducted.

In the study by Ari and Sipal (2009), 100 teachers participated, and 94 indicated that insufficient assessment was a factor affecting job satisfaction. Out of these 94 teachers, 57 indicated that it highly affected job satisfaction and 38 indicated that it affected job satisfaction. In the same study, 74 teachers indicated that a lack of administrative support affected job satisfaction. Professional development opportunities ranked high in the survey with almost 80% of teachers stating that the lack of opportunity for professional development affected job satisfaction. All three of these factors may relate to an evaluation process. A similar study by

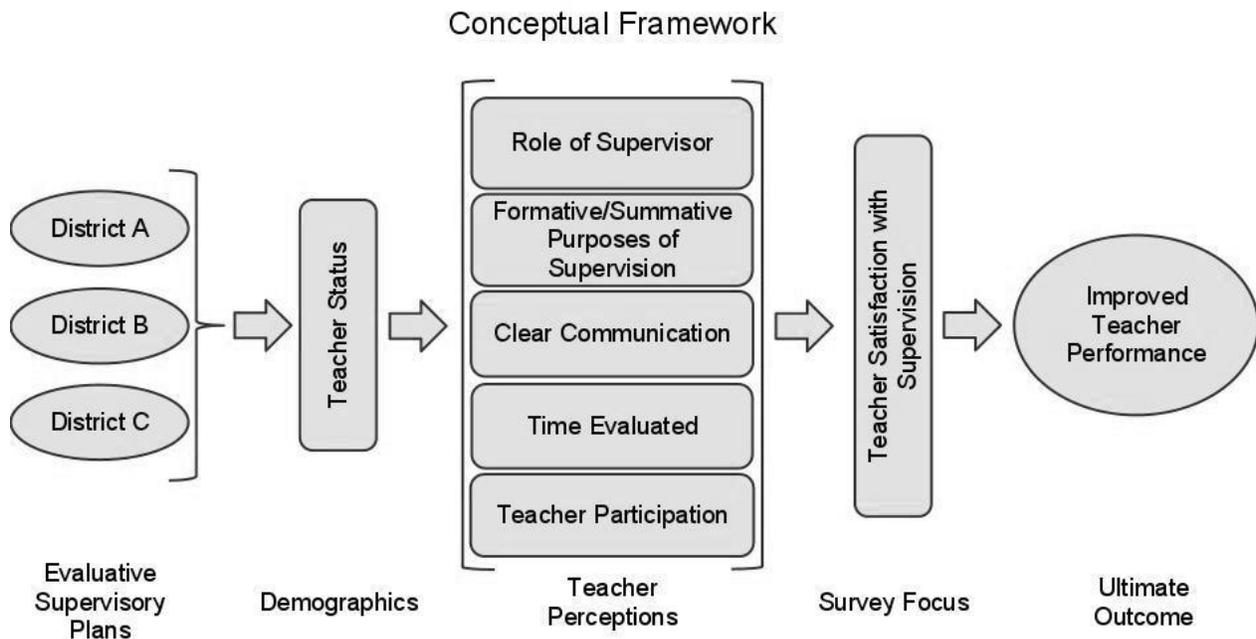
Koustelios (2001) revealed one of the three top factors affecting job satisfaction of teachers was supervision. One could argue that these problems need to be overcome to help teachers embrace the need for improvement if teachers are to become “highly qualified teachers.” According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000b), supervision and evaluation should be ways in which teachers can work toward improving their teaching practices.

### **Significance of the Problem**

According to Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990), a high level of teaching performance builds confidence in teachers and enhances student performance. According to Joyce and Showers (1988), teacher and student growth are related. Given the problems and controversies surrounding teacher evaluation, and the importance of teacher improvement for student learning, the opportunity to examine and compare several plans for evaluation and supervision across school districts in Georgia could reveal processes that teachers view positively. For example, it seems that teachers should have an opportunity to participate in evaluation and supervisory processes thus making them more collaborative, more teacher-friendly, and more effective in the improvement of instruction. Some of the districts in Georgia emphasize collaborative policies in which teachers are involved in goal setting and the improvement of instruction (Young & Heichberger, 1975). Others emphasize the methods of supervision used in evaluation. Assuming teacher evaluation leads to growth, it is important to understand whether teachers perceive these evaluation processes positively so that changes can be made that will improve teacher classroom performance. According to Peterson and Kauchak (1982), among the priorities of principals, perhaps there is no greater one than knowing how to use evaluation and supervisory processes effectively for the improvement of schooling.

## Conceptual Framework

The ultimate goal of evaluation and supervision in education is to improve instruction, and in turn, student learning (Glanz, 2000; Mathers, Oliva, & Laine, 2008; Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, & Bernstein, 1984). Teacher perceptions of differing plans for evaluation and supervision is the central concept of this study. The study will determine teacher perceptions of five processes included in the plans for evaluation and supervision. These processes include the role of the supervisor, formative/summative purposes of supervision, clarity of communication within the process, time spent on formal evaluation, and teacher participation in plans for evaluation and supervision. The five processes were adapted from Ebmeier (2003) and additional authors in the field (Scriven, 1966; Stronge & Tucker, 2003; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b).



*Figure 1.* Conceptual Framework. This framework displays the selected concepts and components of this study and their proposed relationships.

## **Role of Supervisor**

According to Ebmeier (2003), there are five processes of supervision, which the supervisor performs. These include observations, collection of data, feedback, goal setting, and improvement plans. The first key process of a plan for evaluation and supervision is observation. Almost every supervisory plan includes some type of observation. It is during an observation when data are collected. Whether by an administrator (Heneman & Milanowski, 2003), a colleague (Arredondo, Brody, Zimmerman, & Moffett 1995; Barrett, 1986; Gordon, 2008; Poole, 1994; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a), or a dedicated supervisor (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Hazi, 1994), observation is the tool for determining both formative and summative aspects of supervision. Barrett (1986) referred to observation as “the most popular evaluation method” (p. 3).

An important process of the plan for evaluation and supervision is feedback. It is vital that supervisors provide feedback to teachers (Arredondo et al., 1995; Cogan, 1973; Gordon, 2008). Generally, feedback is provided in a post-observation conference. This feedback can be formal (Wise et al., 1984) or informal (Zepeda, 2004). Clinical supervision relies on quality feedback to aide in the development of quality teaching (Cogan, 1973).

Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Pease (1983) advocated for individual goal setting because it promotes reflection and provides motivation for change. Supervisors are able to set goals with teachers and then determine to what extent teachers have met individual goals (Boyd, 1989; Peterson, 2004). It is the supervisors’ job to ensure that teachers meet goals (Andrews, Basom, & Basom, 1991). These school-wide goals may take the form of professional development initiatives (Boyd, 1989; Colantonio, 2005) or achievement scores (Andrews, Basom, & Basom, 1991).

## **Formative/Summative Purposes**

There are several methods of evaluations used by schools to evaluate teachers and students. These methods can be categorized into two encompassing categories: formative and summative evaluation (Scriven, 1966). Formative evaluations are used to improve teaching (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 2004). In their textbook, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004) provided a definition of formative evaluation stating that, “formative evaluation is intended to improve a program. It is carried out while the program is in progress and can be ongoing throughout the life of the program” (p. 294). Formative evaluation is closely associated with supervision. Hazi (1994) stated that formative evaluation “is associated with ‘helping’ and [summative] with ‘terminating’” (p. 200).

Summative evaluations seek to form a judgment. Summative evaluations are generally associated with teacher evaluation. In teacher evaluation, summative evaluation tends to judge job performance and employment status.

## **Clear Communications, Time Evaluated, and Teacher Participation**

Three other measurements of teacher perceptions are present in the conceptual framework; they are clarity of communications, time evaluated, and teacher participation. This study sought to understand the perceptions of teachers regarding the clarity of communications surrounding the plan, the time spent on formal supervision, and the participation of the teacher.

Loeb and Miller (2006) outlined guidelines that school districts generally follow when setting policies for the plans for evaluation and supervision. The actual process of evaluation is guided by school and state level policies. In Georgia, there is no mandatory plan for the supervision or evaluation of teachers. Therefore, plans may vary by district and the clarity of communications regarding those plans may vary as well.

In a study conducted by Frymier and Thompson (1995), teachers were found to favor the process of evaluation, but found the time constraints unsuitable. Most of the teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the evaluation and low frequencies of evaluation. According to the study, conducting regular and frequent evaluations would help in increasing teacher satisfaction with the process. However, at the same time, teachers were averse to evaluation procedures that consume great amounts of time, and they considered such processes a burden (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

Studies that examined how plans for evaluation and supervision are tailored to meet the needs of teachers revealed that when teachers have input into the design of a plan for evaluation and supervision, their needs were further met (Black, 1993; Rooney 1993). Rooney (1993) wrote that she realized her evaluation system was based on the assumption that teachers were “broken and need fixing” and that her job was to “repair and improve them” (p. 43). Rooney met with all teachers who were to be evaluated and 100% of the teachers felt that the system was not beneficial. Together, teachers and supervisors began to restructure the process. Teachers reported, after two years of implementation of a revised system, that they felt “responsible for their own professional growth—both individually and as a group” (p. 44). Both studies examined school districts that eliminated plans that were heavily focused on administrators observing teachers, and moved toward plans designed with teacher input. Both districts in the studies allowed teachers to assist with the design of the new plans ensuring that the plans could effectively meet the evaluative supervisory needs of teachers (Black, 1993; Rooney 1993).

### **Satisfaction**

Central to this study is the focus on teacher perceptions of the plans for evaluation and supervision. Stronge and Tucker (2003) noted that the success of a teacher evaluation plan

depends upon the commitment and buy-in of all stakeholders. Evaluators and teachers alike must understand and commit to the evaluation plan. Therefore, it is important that teachers be satisfied with the evaluation process because satisfaction is key toward commitment. Boyd (1989) noted that teachers felt dissatisfaction with short evaluation times, lack of interaction during the process, and lack of teacher input into the development of the plans (Stronge & Tucker, 2003).

### **Improved Teacher Performance**

Most studies noted that a primary goal of any plan for evaluation and supervision is to improve instruction (Glanz, 2000; Mathers, Oliva, & Laine, 2008; Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Peterson, 2004; Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, & Bernstein, 1984). Although this research does not directly focus on improved teacher performance, it is, nonetheless, an important consideration as it is the desired outcome of supervision. According to a report by the Southeast Educational Development Lab (SEDL), effective teacher evaluation plans can be the most powerful tools to improve the performance of a school (Southwest Educational Development Lab, 2008). An effective teacher evaluation plan is one that succeeds in providing useful feedback about the needs and performances of the teachers and helps them in modifying their performance to improve student learning.

### **Research Questions**

The major question for this study examines teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with three differing plans for evaluation and supervision. Specifically, the study asked the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision;

2. Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision;
3. Is there a relationship between three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction;
4. Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience on teacher participation; and
5. How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature?

### **Research Design**

Three school districts were used for this research study. Each school district used a different plan for evaluation and supervision. Document analysis was used to determine the type of supervisory model which best aligned with the plans for evaluation and supervision used in each district. A 21-item, online survey was used to determine teacher perceptions about processes evident in each plan for evaluation and supervision.

To answer the first four research questions, the researcher gathered data using an online survey. Data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis, validity, and reliability tests. The first research question was answered using ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis. Tukey and Mann-Whitney were used as follow-up tests. The second and third research questions were answered using chi square. The fourth research question was answered using ANOVA. Tukey was used as a follow-up test. The fifth research question was answered using a qualitative document analysis.

## Definition of Terms

*Clear communications* encompasses the clarity of private communications, the communications between the evaluator and evaluatee, and the public communications between all stakeholders and the evaluation processes (Goe & Croft, 2009).

*Evaluation* is the method in which the administrator or instructional supervisor rates teacher performance. Zepeda (2007) stated that evaluation is part of supervision.

In Georgia, in each of the three districts' training documents regarding the plans for evaluation and supervision, state that the primary goal is to improve teacher performance (formative evaluation) and a secondary goal is to judge the performance of teachers (summative evaluation). Although separate in theory, often, in practice, evaluation and supervision are united as one. The summative purposes of evaluation and the formative purposes of supervision are both evident in all three district plans for evaluation and supervision in this study. Teachers themselves often cannot describe the primary purposes of the plan.

*Formative evaluation* refers to the intent to improve a program (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004). Formative evaluation generally is associated with supervision.

*Role of supervisor* is a part of the conceptual framework of this study. It refers to the tasks that a supervisor completes. These include observations, collection of data, feedback, goal setting, and improvement plans (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004).

*Supervision* is “the center for the improvement of instruction” consisting of activities that “engage teachers in instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and increasing student achievement” (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b, p. 24).

*Satisfaction* is the “perception of fulfillment derived from day-to-day work activities” (Klassen & Chiu, 2010 p. 742).

*Summative evaluation* refers to a judgment about a person or program (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004). Summative evaluation is generally associated with evaluation of teachers.

*Teacher participation* is an exchange of ideas between supervisor and teacher in an effort to form a plan of action to resolve a problem. The focus is shared between supervisor and teacher. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004) described several steps required for teacher participation to work well. They are listening, reflecting, presenting, problem solving, encouraging, negotiating, standardizing, and reflecting.

*Teacher performance* is how well, according to the plan of evaluation used by the administrator, a teacher performs required duties.

### **Limitations**

The following limitations apply to this study:

1. Although the sample size is large in number, all three school districts are located in Georgia and each uses a different supervisory plan. Thus, the results are generalizable to these three districts in Georgia and not districts in other parts of the state or country; and
2. A second limitation of this study relates to the implementation of each plan for evaluation and supervision. This dissertation seeks to determine both teacher perceptions and satisfaction of plans for evaluation and supervision. The dissertation is not concerned with determining the level of implementation of each plan.

## **Assumptions**

The following assumptions apply to this study:

1. The researcher assumed that participants were honest. To encourage honesty, the survey was administered anonymously;
2. The researcher assumed that teachers were familiar with the plans for evaluation and supervision used by the in own school district; and
3. Because elementary school teachers were surveyed, it can be assumed that most respondents were female.

## CHAPTER II:

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### **Introduction**

Instructional supervision is a hallmark of schooling extending back to the one room schoolhouse. For decades, teachers have been observed and evaluated by an administrator or supervisor. As noted in a 1709 Report of the Record Commissions of the City of Boston,

Be there hereby established a committee of inspectors to visit ye school from time to time, when and as oft as they shall think fit, to enform [sic] themselves of the methods used in teaching of ye Schollars [sic] and in Inquire of their proficiency, and be present at the time performance of some of their Exercises, the Master being before Notified of their Coming, And with him to consult and Advise of further Methods for ye Advancement of Learning and the Good Government of the Schoole [sic]. (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b, p. 8)

According to Peterson and Kauchak (1982) instructional supervision is a vital key to enhance teacher performance. Often, it is through instructional supervision that teachers are evaluated (Hazi, 1994). Although there is an abundance of research on instructional supervision, according to Arredondo, Brody, Zimmerman, and Moffett (1995), “we [practitioners] suffer an enormous gap between what we know and what we practice” (p. 74). Instructional supervision and teacher evaluation are closely related (Hazi, 1994).

There are two primary forms of evaluation closely related to teacher evaluation and supervision: summative and formative (Scriven, 1966). Summative evaluations are generally associated with teacher evaluation. In teacher evaluation, summative evaluation tends to judge job performance and employment status. Formative evaluations are oftentimes present in teacher evaluation plans, but focus on improving teaching rather than evaluating teaching (Hazi & Arredondo-Rucinski, 2009).

Bennett (1995) and others (Ebmeier, 2003, Gardner, 2010; Grayson & Alvarez, 2008; Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Monyatsi, Steyn, & Kamper, 2006; Peterson, 2004) found that teacher evaluation and supervision impact teacher satisfaction. There are several factors linking evaluation to satisfaction such as the supervisor's knowledge of the lesson content being observed (Bennett, 1995), the style of supervision used (Butt, Lance, Fielding, Gunter, Rayner, & Thomas, 2005), and the perceived commitment of the evaluator (Ebmeier, 2003). In addition, teacher satisfaction with evaluation and supervision may depend on the plan, the processes used, and on what is emphasized. For example, some methods focus on inspection or oversight, seeking conformity, while others focus on the improvement of various aspects of the teaching-learning process such as teachers' personal goals, student achievement, or classroom management (Scriven, 1966).

This literature review explores the history of evaluation and supervision. The literature review describes the relationship of supervision to teacher evaluation and the implementation of the evaluation process. This is followed by a discussion of the processes of supervision that includes the role of the supervisor, formative and summative purposes of supervision, clarity of communication, time evaluated, and teacher participation. Finally, research will be presented linking teachers' satisfaction with the evaluation and supervision process. According to Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990), knowledge about teacher satisfaction levels with various evaluation and supervision plans can lead to improved teacher performance.

## **A History Intertwined**

### **A Brief History of Teacher Evaluation**

It is important to understand history as it relates to teacher evaluation. Shinkfield and Shufflebeam (1996) stated that, “It is difficult, if not impossible, to place the historical perspectives of teacher evaluation into neat boxes” (p. 10). The first recorded attempts at teacher evaluation began in 1660 with a publication by Charles Hoole. In this publication, Hoole includes a section entitled “self-control of the teacher.” In it Hoole (1660) stated, “He be sure in all things to behave as a Master over himself, not only by refraining those enormities and grosser faults, which may render him scandalous to every one” (p. 251). This protection of the Christian reputation was key to teacher evaluation prior to the twentieth century (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996).

In England at the end of the nineteenth century, the first attempt to pay teachers based on merit occurred nationwide. Payment by results, as it was known, took the emphasis off students and placed it upon teachers. Inspectors monitored and evaluated student learning. However, in 1902, the system was ended as it had become corrupt (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996).

Little literature was published regarding teacher evaluation between 1659 and World War II (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). But, teacher evaluation was not dormant; in the nineteenth century, personalities like Horace Mann, in Massachusetts, and Thomas Arnold, in England, visited schools noting student progress (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). Mann believed students were responsible for their own learning. Arnold emphasized discipline and teacher reputation, but teaching was not evaluated (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). At the beginning of the twentieth century, the work of Franklin Bobbit began the advocacy for a scientific management system of teachers in schools (Null, 1999). Bobbit claimed that schools could

produce predictable results through scientific management. This management system developed into formal teacher evaluation systems (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996).

After World War II, teacher evaluation was transformed into a systematic accountability system for which the principal was ultimately responsible (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). School districts began to develop and refine evaluation policies. Stemnock (1969) found that over 60% of the school districts had written or rewritten evaluation policies in the two years prior to the study. In the same study, Stemnock identified the top purposes of evaluations from a survey. Respondents indicated that the top two purposes of evaluation were to improve teacher performance and to establish evidence to dismiss teachers. In a large study, Ingils (1970) sampled teacher evaluation programs from 70 school districts in 38 states. The top three purposes for evaluation as identified in a survey were to improve instruction, assist teachers in identifying areas for improvement, and to eliminate incompetent teachers while protecting competent teachers.

With the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (1983), the significance of accountability rose. Shinkfield and Shufflebeam (1996) stated that it was this publication that ushered in minimum qualifications for new teachers as well as standardized teacher certification practices. The Educational Testing Service developed the PRAXIS to judge teachers qualifications for certification. In 2006, this test was replaced in Georgia with the GACE test, aligned with Georgia Performance Standards.

### **A Brief History of Teacher Supervision**

Sullivan and Glanz (2000a) found seven distinct eras in the history of supervision in American education. The first was the era of inspection, beginning with colonization and lasting until the mid-nineteenth century. During this time, Spears (1953) stated that the focus of

supervision was to maintain existing standards, not to improve them. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000a), the inspectors were respected citizens such as ministers, selectmen, and schoolmasters.

Hazi and Glanz (1997) stated that in the mid-nineteenth century in large towns, supervision began to be differentiated from evaluation. It was during this time that bureaucracy in schools grew, and more and more school and system level administrators were hired. With the growth came the advent of specialized supervisors. These supervisors were untrained, but focused more on improving instruction rather than on inspection. Therefore, two supervisory positions emerged with a special supervisor and a general supervisor.

According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000a), the special supervisor in the mid-nineteenth century had little formal training in supervision, but was assigned by the building principal to essentially mentor new and struggling teachers in mastery of subject material. This material included spelling, art, and penmanship among others. This supervisory position did not evaluate teacher performance, but focused on the improvement of instruction. Nor was this supervisory position long lasting in many states. Many records of special supervisors disappeared in the 1920s indicating that the duties and responsibilities were absorbed by the general supervisor.

As the industrial revolution began in the late 19th century, inspection continued; but as businesses became more streamlined, schools became more hierarchically organized as well (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a). Tanner and Tanner (1987) declared Horace Mann the first professional supervisor during this period. According to Glanz (1994), it was the superintendent who legitimized the school system during this time as the individual who would oversee efficiency. The superintendent began to take over supervision with a focus on judging effectiveness and ineffectiveness of teachers.

This new role of superintendent led to the second era in the history of supervision, the era of efficiency. This lasted from the turn of the 20th century to about 1920 (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a). Sullivan and Glanz (2000a) stated that it was the 1911 publication of *The Principles of Scientific Management* by Fredrick Taylor that began the efficiency movement in business. Null (1999) turned to the work of Franklin Bobbit, who, during this time, worked to incorporate business practices of scientific and professional supervision into education. Here began supervision with a focus on rating. Teachers were expected to work up to a certain measurable standard or goal. Scales were developed to determine teacher efficiency (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a).

Earlier, John Dewey had called for the focus of supervision to be on improvement of teaching, rather than on inspection and maintenance of the status quo (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a). This was known as the democratic era of supervision; however, the efficiency movement was still concerned with maintaining standards and inspecting teachers. Sullivan and Glanz (2000a) called attention to the backlash from teachers in the 1920s of this type of supervision. Glanz (2000) called supervisors “snoopervisors;” they were heavily criticized.

Barr (1931) stated that supervisors, “must have the ability to teach teachers how to teach; and they must be able to evaluate” (p. x). Barr advocated for a hybrid plan of supervision, which must incorporate evaluation as well. Glanz (2000) labeled the fourth era in supervision’s history as the scientific era. Lasting from the 1930s through the 1950s, the scientific era sought to combine democratic methods of supervision with scientific methods of improving instruction through observation (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a).

In the 1960s, supervision became a form of leadership; this ushered in the era of supervision as leadership. Sullivan and Glanz (2000b) introduced five ways to provide

leadership. They are “developing mutually acceptable goals, extending cooperative and democratic methods of supervision, improving classroom instruction, promoting research into educational problems, and promoting professional leadership” (p. 18). Supervision today encompasses several of these goals including improvement of instruction. Leeper (1969) gave credence to the idea that supervision must be a leadership function in order to promulgate democracy in supervision.

Glanz (2000) called the sixth era in supervision clinical supervision, which began in the 1970s. Cogan (1973) published a work entitled *Clinical Supervision*. This described how clinical supervision could be used in schools. Clinical supervision has three parts: 1) the preconference, 2) the observation, and 3) the post-conference. Generally, in clinical supervision, one or two skills are identified in the preconference and observed. Then in the post-conference, the data collected in the observation of the lesson are analyzed. The primary purpose of clinical supervision is to improve instruction (Cogan, 1973).

The “effective schools” movement, beginning in the 1970s, caused a refocus on supervision as effective schools were researched and documented (Lezotte, 2002). Effective schools were identified, documented, and inspected for commonalities. The principal was identified in each school as an instructional leader. The instructional leadership of the principal translated to effective teacher supervision (Lezotte, 2002).

Since the 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk*, supervision has been in a time of transition. This transition has been labeled the seventh and final era by Sullivan and Glanz (2000a). Several authors (Colantonio, 2005; Glickman, 1992; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Zepeda, 2002) have proposed changes and additions to

the field of supervision, yet the transition remains (Hazi, 1994). Medley, Coker, and Soar (1984) divided the period of modern supervision into three chronological stages:

Searching for excellent teachers is the stage where supervisors sought to identify and find excellent teachers. The stage began, according to Tomlinson (1955), in 1896 with a study by Kratz. In this study, Kratz sought to determine what makes an excellent teacher through interviews of 2411 students. This study, and others like it, revealed that students believe teachers should be helpful, polite, patient, and kind.

Medley, Coker, and Soar's (1984) second phase was teacher evaluation based on the performance of students. This stage began in the mid-twentieth century. Researchers attempted to correlate student performance with the quality of teaching.

The final state was teacher evaluation based on teacher performance. This stage began to replace the first two unsuccessful stages. It was primarily concerned with evaluating teacher practices as opposed to test scores or specific teacher qualities.

### **Evaluation as a Function of Supervision**

Formal teacher evaluation began to take place at the turn of the twentieth century. As the twentieth century progressed, both supervision and evaluation became more formal and scientific in nature. Bolton (1973) stated that during this period, various stakeholders constantly evaluated teachers, both formally and informally. Evaluation was perceived as inevitable and the focus was on making the evaluations as productive as possible.

The history of both evaluation and supervision was shared. Both began as inspection (Hazi & Glanz, 1997; Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a), both advanced to a scientific stage (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a), and both are currently in a time of transition due to government mandates like *A Nation at Risk* and

No Child Left Behind (Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2009; Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). Mann advocated for both supervision and evaluation of teachers (Tanner & Tanner, 1987), Bobbit influenced both disciplines to move to more scientific methods of evaluation (Null, 1999), and Dewey (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a) argued for the separation of supervision and evaluation.

The entanglement between supervision and evaluation has entered the court system. Hazi (1994) introduced a court case in New Jersey, in which teachers filed grievances against a school district using supervisors to aid in improving instruction. The teachers argued that when a supervisor entered a classroom, it served an evaluative function. The grievances lasted for two years. As New Jersey state law was examined, the legal wording was found to include evaluation as a function of supervision. According to Hazi (1994), “Thus, there is no legal differentiation between supervision and evaluation. They are one and the same in New Jersey” (p. 200).

Although supervision and evaluation are intended to be separate functions in schools, the reality, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000b) is that, “advances in theory are not necessarily reflected in practice” (p. 23). Most schools and universities had formal evaluation processes by the 1980s as teacher supervision and evaluation began to gain high prominence (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1995). Many schools began providing feedback to teachers after evaluation to make the process equally focused on formative evaluation, or the improvement of instruction, as well as summative evaluation. Glanz (2000) stated that during this time, “the unresolved dilemma between the necessity to evaluate (a bureaucratic function) and the desire to genuinely assist teachers in the instructional process (a democratic and professional goal)” (p. 22).

## **Five Processes of Evaluation and Supervision**

Much has been written about the processes of evaluation and supervision. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004) described five tasks of supervision, each with several components. Sullivan and Glanz (2000b) introduce seven alternative approaches to supervision each with its sets of processes. Earlier, Popham (1988) provided six prescriptions for teacher evaluation. This section describes the five processes important to this study, including role of the supervisor, formative/summative purposes of evaluation, clear communications regarding evaluative supervision, time spent on evaluation, and teacher participation.

### **Role of Supervisor**

Collaboration between teachers and administrators is believed to be essential to gather evidence related to the progress of teachers in terms of their goals, and to analyze their performance on a periodic basis (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b). In the case of teacher-administrator collaboration, teachers are accountable to show progress in their tasks, and administrators are responsible to provide timely feedback and guide the teachers in the right direction. This is believed to ensure that teachers are given opportunities to improve areas of weakness before their final appraisal. Collaborative evaluation is said to lead to better learning, growth opportunities, self-reflection, and a more healthy working environment (Hill, Lofton & Newman, 1997). Stronge and Tucker (2003) described some of the ways in which teachers can collaborate with administrators for the evaluation process:

1. Teachers can be given opportunities to play a very active role in the evaluation process by being involved in every stage;
2. Teachers can be involved in the goal setting and decision-making processes of their evaluations; and

3. The professional expertise of the teachers can be utilized in creating new evaluation designs and plans.

Black (1993) described how teachers and unions can work to shape evaluation encouraging teachers to collaborate with administrators through conferencing. Pre-conferencing in some areas is a requirement and can be requested by teachers. Likewise, a post conference is mandated in some areas, and may provide teachers and administrators time to collaborate and discuss the evaluation (Black, 1993). Arredondo, Brody, Zimmerman, and Moffett (1995) emphasized the importance of linguistic skills in relation to supervisory conferencing. Key components of these skills include listening and framing questions during conferences. They argued when conferencing incorporates two-way dialogue, collaboration within the supervisory plan is evident (Arredondo et al., 1995).

### **Formative/Summative Purposes of Evaluation**

Different plans for evaluations are used by schools. Many of these plans can be categorized as formative or summative evaluation (Scriven, 1966). Generally, formative evaluation is used when an activity is in progress. Summative evaluation is used when an activity has been concluded. The focus of formative evaluation is to gather information as the activity is progressing (Guyot, 1978). The focus of summative evaluation is on the end product of an activity. Trochim (1992) noted that formative evaluations are based on needs, processes, program structure, and targets, while summative evaluations are based on impact, outcome, and accomplished goals.

Scriven (1966) indicated that summative and formative evaluations have different objectives. In summative evaluations, prior goals are set and participants try to determine whether the goals were met. In summative evaluations, participants seek to form a judgment.

Summative evaluations are generally associated with teacher evaluation. In teacher evaluation, the summative evaluation tends to reflect a judgment about performance and employment status.

Formative evaluations are used to improve teaching (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 2004). Glickman provided a definition of formative evaluation stating that, “formative evaluation is intended to improve a program. It is carried out while the program is in progress and can be ongoing throughout the life of the program” (p. 294). Formative evaluation is closely associated with supervision. Hazi (1994) stated that formative evaluation, “is associated with ‘helping’ and [summative] with ‘terminating’” (p. 200).

In other words, formative evaluations are used to refine goals as the work progresses while summative evaluations are used to measure or make judgments about the goals after the work concludes (Seattler, 1990). There are advantages and disadvantages to both types of evaluations. According to Scriven (1966), all evaluations can be summative in nature while only a few can be formative as well as summative.

In a study of 140 districts in the Midwest, only 48% had a defined requirement of how to use the results of the evaluation. Of that 48%, 60% were used to inform personnel decisions (i.e., teacher retention). These plans would be considered summative evaluation. The rest, 39%, of the districts used the plans to suggest instructional improvements. These plans would be considered formative evaluation (Brandt, Mathers, Oliva, Brown-Sims, & Hess, 2007). Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, and Bernstein (1984) noted that the role of the supervisor must encourage collaboration and judge teachers—which are inherently contradictory.

### **Time Evaluated**

Time affects teacher satisfaction with evaluation in terms of time spent on evaluation and frequency of observations. To encourage growth, feedback should be offered in a timely manner

to provide the teacher with an opportunity to improve. For instance, teachers in five charter schools that Donaldson and Peske (2010) studied spent approximately two hours for a debriefing session with evaluators. These teachers reported high satisfaction with the arrangement.

Studies have shown that teachers are often dissatisfied with evaluation because of time constraints (Donaldson & Peske, 2010; Grauwe & Carron, 2007; Halverson, Kelley & Kimball, 2004). Grauwe and Carron (2007) reported that teachers believed their evaluators do not spend enough time in evaluating them, owing to the fact that principals and supervisors have other commitments. They said this is because supervisors have other duties to which they tend to allocate most of their time. In a study about where administrators spend their time, researchers found that supervisors in Uttar Pradesh, India spent 30.3% of their time supervising construction work compared to 8.7% in academic supervision. In Zimbabwe, supervisors spent 28% of their time doing office work, and 23% in school visits. In Chile, education supervisors spent 26% of their time in technical meetings and 14% in schools. Time spent in classrooms was quite minimal (Grauwe & Carron, 2007). Supervisors attributed the problem to having too many teachers and schools to supervise. Most of their other work has little to do with instructional supervision or teacher evaluation. For instance, in Korea, 60% of the supervisors reported that their excessive workload was due to non-supervisory tasks (Grauwe & Carron, 2007).

The small amount of time allocated to classroom observation has changed the role of evaluation from professional quality assurance and development, into one that is more disciplinary and control-oriented, according to teachers that IIEP (International Institute for Educational Planning) interviewed (Grauwe & Carron, 2007). Teachers in Nepal perceived education supervisors as a threat to them while those in Bangladesh perceived supervisors as the controllers and superior officers to teachers. In Korea, teachers viewed the supervisors as being

authoritarian and bureaucratic. Teachers may have developed these attitudes and tendencies because supervisors have little time to listen to them or to spend with them before or after classroom observation. Often, a supervisor's visit to a school in the areas studied became a source of stress for teachers (Grauwe & Carron, 2007).

On the contrary, in a study of teacher evaluation involving five charter schools, Donaldson and Peske (2010) reported that teachers in those schools perceived teacher evaluation as designed to improve or to enhance the performance and professional development of the teacher, in addition to being focused on results. The other aim involved an effort to attain knowledge of teachers' strengths and weakness with an aim to improve performance (Donaldson & Peske, 2010).

Teachers derived satisfaction from frequent evaluations and with considerable time allocations from their supervisors (Donaldson & Peske, 2010; Halverson, Kelley & Kimball, 2004). For example, teachers in the five charter schools were fine with a weekly or biweekly evaluation (Donaldson & Peske, 2010). This was because this pattern offered them an opportunity to develop professionally, as they can continuously monitor their progress to ensure that they maintain consistent growth, as opposed to having supervisors visit them as the school year ends. Additionally, teachers encouraged frequent evaluations because they were able to know their strengths and weaknesses and hence receive the necessary support (Donaldson & Peske, 2010). Halverson, Kelley, and Kimball (2004) reported that La Esperanza Elementary School's principal, Richards, spent about a third of the school's academic year on evaluation of her teachers. In her study, the principal reported that she spent about fifteen hours per year to evaluate each of her thirty-six teachers. This time was spent on observation, evaluation and feedback. The teachers reported satisfaction with their principal's evaluations. According to

these authors, principals and supervisors who have enough time to spend on teacher evaluation are able to identify several issues to be addressed, which in turn leads to satisfaction on the part of the teacher (Halverson, Kelley, & Kimball, 2004). This is an indication that sufficient time for evaluation may lead to increased teacher satisfaction with the evaluation process.

Other research has encouraged a technique called walk-throughs (Downey, Steffy, English, Frase & Poston, 2004). A walk-through is a brief, unscheduled, informal visit from a supervisor. Walk-throughs last only a few minutes. The supervisor looks for evidence of student learning and notes classroom activities. A district might use several walk through observations in a year instead of one or two longer observations.

### **Teacher Participation and Clarity of Communication**

Through collaboration, teachers are able to participate in the evaluation and supervision. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), collaboration between teachers and administrators is essential to gather evidence related to the progress of teachers in terms of their goals and to analyze teacher performance on a periodic basis. Communication within this collaboration is key (Ohiwerei & Okoli, 2010; Stronge, 2006; Stronge & Tucker, 2003). In the case of teacher-administrator collaboration, the teachers are accountable to show steady progress in their tasks and the administrators are responsible to provide timely feedback, and to guide the teachers in the right direction. This is believed to ensure that teachers get plenty of opportunities to improve upon areas of weakness before the final appraisal. Collaborative evaluation is said to lead to better learning, growth opportunities, self-reflection, and a healthier working environment (Hill, Lofton & Newman, 1997).

Feedback has been identified as a need of teachers involved in evaluation and supervision (Black, 1993; Gordon, 2008; Mathers, Olivia, & Laine, 2008). Feedback from the evaluation and

supervision process can come in many forms. From a conference after an observation (Black, 1993; Cogan 1973), to group dialogue (Arredondo, Brody, Zimmerman, & Moffett, 1995; Gordon, 2008), to self-assessment and reflection techniques (Gebhard, 1984; Gordon, 2008), feedback is vital to the evaluation and supervision process. In a case study, completed by Zepeda (2004), dialogue began during the conferencing portion of teacher observations. However, the dialogue began to “spill over” from the conferences into other areas. As the dialogue increased among teachers, Zepeda found as teachers talked more, they became more reflective.

According to Ohiwerei and Okoli (2010), Stronge and Tucker (2003), and Stronge (2006), the key features of an effective teacher evaluation system include systematic communication, positive climate regarding evaluation, mutually beneficial goals, use of multiple data sources, amount of time spent on evaluation and frequency of evaluation. These issues affect teacher satisfaction with teacher evaluation. According to Stronge (2006) and Ohiwerei and Okoli (2010), an effective teacher evaluation process should put emphasis on systematic communication.

According to Stronge (2006), private communication is personal in nature and only takes place between the evaluator and the evaluatee. Good private communication in teacher evaluation is characterized by its ensuring that there is cooperation when developing an education plan; it gives the teacher an opportunity to enhance his or her skills, thus improving performance; it gives him or her enhanced self-expectations; it increases the possibility of positive changes in the teacher’s performance; and, finally a good private communication presents the parties with an opportunity to identify and correct discrepancies so as to realize higher standards of performance (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). Teacher satisfaction is enhanced by those evaluation processes that place particular importance on effective personal or private

communication (Stronge, 2006). Additionally, private communication, if done effectively, enhances the evaluation process by establishing checks and balances (Stronge, 2006). The best way to have private communication is through conferencing between the evaluator and the teacher (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). Conferencing allows for documentation of performance, making teachers aware of their performance, and motivating the teacher to perform better (Stronge & Tucker, 2003). Private communication can enhance teacher satisfaction and improve performance. By way of examples, Halverson, Kelley, and Kimball (2004) sampled teacher perceptions of evaluators in 14 schools, and revealed that teachers used feedback provided during private conferencing to improve their performance. Reineke, Willeke, Walsh, and Sawin (1987) stated that communication is a gateway for school improvement.

On the other hand, public communication and disclosure assumes that all stakeholders have a right to know what is happening during evaluation process. In a study by Brandt, Mathers, Oliva, Brown-Sims and Hess (2007), 216 districts were selected to participate in a study of teacher evaluation policies. Of the 140 districts that participated, only 32% of districts in the Midwestern United States require teachers to be informed of procedures relating to evaluation and supervision. Teachers and other educational stakeholders have a right to know and to be involved in some aspects of evaluation such as designing evaluation systems. Teachers having copies of a comprehensive handbook and evaluation, and systematic training of teachers and evaluators on how to properly use teacher evaluation systems is conducted (Goe & Croft, 2009; Stronge & Tucker, 2003).

Public disclosure of information related to evaluation is often used to establish institutional goals and to explain the process of evaluation in light of those goals (Brown-Sims, 2010; Stronge, 2006). In addition, public disclosure of information described the teacher's roles

and responsibilities so as to develop his/her job (Brown-Sims, 2010). Moreover, public communication identifies standards of performance that are acceptable. Communication delineates issues with the evaluation system, such as procedural guidelines, and it describes the timeline for the evaluation process (Brown-Sims, 2010; Stronge, 2006).

### **Teacher Satisfaction with Supervision and Evaluation**

Stronge and Tucker (2003) noted that the success of a teacher evaluation system depended upon the commitment and buy-in of all stakeholders. They argued both evaluators and teachers must understand and commit to the evaluation system. In addition, they stated that satisfaction with the evaluation process is a key component of commitment.

Grattan (2004) researched and found most teachers are supportive of teacher evaluations that are aimed toward professional development. Jensen's (2010) study revealed that teachers are aware of the benefits of using an effective evaluation system to determine professional development needs. Although most teachers agreed that evaluation is important, many teachers are not satisfied with evaluation plans used in their school districts (Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1995). According to the researchers, reasons that some teachers were dissatisfied with evaluation plans were due to the fact that administrative decisions, like promotion, retention and probation of teachers, were often linked to the results of the evaluation. Teachers, therefore, perceived evaluation as a threat to their jobs (Schmelkin, Spencer, & Gellmen 2003).

Ari and Sibal (2009) analyzed factors affecting job satisfaction. Among the top were insufficient assessment, lack of support from administration, and lack of professional development opportunities. In Ari and Sibal's study, 100 teachers participated and 94 indicated that insufficient assessment is a factor affecting job satisfaction. Out of these 94 teachers, 57 indicated that it highly affected job satisfaction, and 38 indicated that it affected job satisfaction.

In the same study, 74 teachers indicated that a lack of administrative support affected job satisfaction. Professional development opportunities ranked high in the survey, with almost 80% of teachers stating that the lack of opportunity for professional development affected job satisfaction. All three of these factors relate to an evaluation process. A similar study by Koustelios (2001) revealed three top factors affecting job satisfaction of teachers were supervision, promotion and salaries.

According to the literature, there are other things that provide job satisfaction to teachers within the teacher evaluation process. According to Stronge and Tucker (2003), teacher evaluation is usually successful when all stakeholders are open and honest in communication and committed to the process. According to Barrett (1986), teacher evaluation should have benefit for teachers. Satisfaction derives from several factors including frequency of reviews, evaluation instruments, and evaluation consequences. Evaluations that teachers believe are meant for growth, are perceived more positively than evaluations which teachers believe are for administrative decisions. One study concluded that teachers who understand the evaluation processes and tools are more likely to be satisfied with the evaluation (Zelnak & Snyder, 1994).

Several problems are inherent in teacher evaluation as it relates to teacher satisfaction. According to Peterson (2000), problems include unfavorable policies, different opinions, varied needs, and lengthy timelines. Barrett (1986) explained that problems arise from miscommunication and lack of understanding between administrators and teachers. Often, teacher evaluations are used for administrative decisions making and the evaluations seem like a threat (Schmelkin, Spencer, & Gellman, 2003).

In a study by Frymier and Thompson (1995), most teachers were dissatisfied with infrequent evaluations. Teachers felt, according to the study, that more regular and frequent

evaluations would help increase teacher satisfaction. In a similar study by Boyd (1989), teachers described dissatisfaction with short evaluation times and the lack of interaction during the process. Yet in a study by Danielson and McGreal (2000), teachers felt that evaluation procedures should not consume large amounts of time.

In a study by Shinkfield and Shufflebeam (1995), several characteristics were needed to ensure that teachers were satisfied with the evaluation plan. These characteristics include the following:

1. A procedure developed using professional standards that are fair;
2. A customized evaluation process that addresses needs of individual teachers; and
3. A process with many channels of open communication.

Peterson (2000) wrote that a quality evaluation process can help teachers feel important, secure, and valued. He noted that teacher evaluation can help teachers in their careers, as well as help society through reassurance regarding the quality of teaching.

Other studies have shown that when conducted properly, evaluations can provide useful feedback about classroom needs and instruction techniques (Boyd, 1989). Therefore, considering the importance of teachers' evaluation in the academic context, it is important that teachers have positive attitudes toward the evaluation process in order to participate more fully. While most teachers agree that evaluations are important and necessary, teachers felt that the evaluation process was not very useful (Boyd, 1989).

According to a study conducted on the effectiveness of the appraisal system in the schools of Botswana, teachers agreed that the evaluation system was necessary, but several of them did not understand the purpose and objectives behind the evaluation (Monyatsi, Steyn, & Kamper, 2006). Similarly, a study conducted by Gratton (2004) about the perception of teachers

towards their performance evaluations, revealed that most teachers did not understand the objectives behind the process, and hence, did not show complete commitment towards their evaluation systems. Since evaluation processes help administrators decide the hiring and firing of teachers, teachers sometimes perceive the process to be a threat to their jobs (Schmelkin, Spencer, & Gellman, 2003).

For teacher evaluation to work properly, Hazi (1994) stated that the “ingredients are trust, collegiality, and genuine collaboration, which make teachers feel safe in giving the supervisor access to their teaching” (p. 212). Without these ingredients, it can be concluded that the teacher will likely be dissatisfied with teacher evaluation. Additionally, she argued that the purposes of evaluation must be clear; either summative, to judge teaching, or formative, to improve teaching. But Hazi concluded that “disentangling the knot of evaluation-supervision may be an impossible and impractical task” (p. 216).

### **Improved Teacher Performance**

The desire for improvement has been a necessary part of human evolution. Evaluation fulfills this need. Over time, several plans and techniques have emerged. These techniques have been used across multiple disciplines, including education. Boyd (1989) concluded that teacher evaluation was a process that compares a set of defined standards against teacher performance in an effort to develop teachers. This process of comparison involves observations, data collection and analysis, feedback and reporting (Sawa, 1995). The goals of teacher evaluation have been described as assisting administrators in decision making and improving the performance of teachers (Rebore, 1991).

Fink (1995) compared evaluation to research, stating that, “in both cases, you are trying to answer some important questions about an important topic. The key to doing both activities

well is (a) identifying the right questions to ask and (b) figuring out how to answer them” (p. 191). In its simplest form, teacher evaluation is the process of judging the merit of the teacher in terms of differing factors including teaching quality, management, and student performance.

According to a report by the Southeast Comprehensive Center at Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (2008), effective teacher evaluation systems can be the most powerful tools to improve the performance of an educational institute. They claimed that an effective teacher evaluation system is one that succeeds in providing useful feedback about the needs and performance of the teachers, and helps them in bridging the gap between the two. The main uses of the teacher evaluation system can be summarized as follows:

1. It helps in improving the quality of teaching by nurturing the process of self-improvement of teachers (Rebore, 1991);
2. It acts as a communication gateway between the teachers and the school management for teachers to raise concerns or make suggestions to improve the school (Reineke, Willeke, Walsh & Sawin, 1987);
3. It aids in administrative decisions like retention, transfer, promotion and training activities for teachers (Peterson, 2000); and
4. It helps to foster development activities for teachers based on their strengths and weaknesses (Rebore, 1991).

### **Models**

There are numerous supervisory models found in literature. The models have varying levels of formative or summative processes (Scriven, 1966). The focus on these is generally to improve the quality of instruction (Stronge & Tucker, 2003) and to evaluate teacher performance (Hazi, 1994). All methods of supervision involve procedures, data gathering instruments, and the

standards for evaluations. For the purposes of this research, three broad categories of supervision are examined: Directive/traditional supervision, non-directive supervision, or clinical/collaborative supervision.

### **Directive or Traditional Supervision**

Directive supervision is a summative form of evaluation, generally judging the performance of teachers based on certain factors. The supervisor, generally the principal or administrator, is the evaluator in this type of supervision (Freeman, 1982). Oftentimes, the observation notes are not shared with the teacher, but feedback is provided regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson. Sullivan and Glanz (2005) further divide this type of supervision into directive informal supervision and directive control supervision.

Directive informal supervision gives teachers slightly more control of their own evaluation process. Sullivan and Glanz (2005) explain that goal setting is a part of this type of supervision. Supervisors set goals for teachers and offer a list of options for achieving the goals. Teachers are allowed to choose from the list of options set by the administrator, the course that they would prefer. The primary responsibility is with the supervisor in this type of supervision model.

Sullivan and Glanz (2005) also introduce directive control supervision. In this supervisory model, the supervisor has all the control and teachers must adhere to the process set by the supervisor. Supervisors who do not want opposing views generally choose this type of supervision. Supervisors might exercise this type of supervision over limited items like emergency procedures or budget, rather than over the entire supervisory process. Freeman (1982) notes that since authority rests with one person, this type of supervisory model is not widely used and is generally not a preferable method of teacher evaluation.

## **Non-Directive Supervision**

Non-directive supervision stands in direct opposition to directive supervision. This model gives more control to teachers. Freeman (1982) states that teachers are allowed to set their own goals and objectives for evaluations. Administrators might question teachers about inconsistencies within their objectives and evaluation plan, but are not ultimately responsible for the evaluation. Final decisions regarding the evaluation are left to the teacher (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). Freeman (1982) stated that, “Because the relationship between observer and teacher is one of equals, this approach avoids the power relationship found in the supervisory one” (p. 23). Stronge and Tucker (2003) outline a process for setting goals that could be used by teachers in non-directive supervision. The process includes the following:

1. Identify an area of focus: Goals are identified for the teacher;
2. Data gathering: Data relevant to the goal are gathered;
3. Expression of goals: Goals are defined and documented;
4. Strategy planning: A plan for reaching the defined goals is outlined; and
5. Evaluation of goals: The supervisor evaluates the outcome of the plan once implemented.

Gebhard (1984) noted that this supervisory model does not prescribe improvements, rather, through a recognized version of the teachers’ responses, repeating or rewording the teachers’ thoughts, allows the teachers to discover their own solutions. The relationship between supervisor and teacher can foster a feeling of trust and support (Dowling & Sheppard, 1976). However, a feeling of anxiety can often be perceived by teachers (Gebhard, 1984). This is often due to the teacher’s level of experience. Teachers with less experience often feel intimidated and

alienated by non-directive supervision, preferring a model in which the supervisor provides more guidance and direction (Gebhard, 1984).

### **Collaborative Supervision**

Clinical supervision is also known as collaborative supervision. It consists of formative evaluation that focuses on improving the quality of teaching (Tanner & Tanner, 1987). This model of supervision is between directive supervision and non-directive supervision. Responsibilities for evaluation and supervision are shared between evaluator and teacher. According to Cogan (1973), there is a lot of interaction between evaluator and teacher often forming a close professional relationship. The main goal of this type of supervision is to improve the performance of the teacher within the classroom (Linde, 1998). Cogan (1973) outlines the general process for this type of supervision. The evaluation involves a preconference, where teachers share lesson plans, ideas, and suggests target areas they want the evaluator to focus on in the observation. The observation takes place in the classroom at a predetermined time where the observer focuses upon specific areas as discussed in the preconference. The observation is followed by a post-conference where the observer gives specific feedback to the teacher. By identifying a few focal points before the observation, the observer is able to better serve the teacher by gathering data on something mutually agreed upon beforehand. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2005), several teachers can collaborate among themselves and provide a form of clinical supervision through peer assessment. The main advantage of this method is that the supervisor and the teacher work towards a common goal of improving instruction in order to help student performance (Cogan, 1973).

## **Summary**

This literature review introduced the history of evaluation and supervision. It introduced evidence that the two terms are often conflated in theory and practice. Five processes of evaluation and supervision were presented which were role of the supervisor, purposes of evaluation, clarity of communication, time evaluated, and teacher participation. Finally, the review concluded with a review of teacher satisfaction with evaluation and supervision.

## CHAPTER III:

### METHODS

#### **Introduction**

Teacher evaluation and instructional supervision are important administrative functions. The researcher believed that it was important that teachers are satisfied with this aspect of their job because it contributes to their ability to teach well. The purpose of this study was to determine how teachers in three districts perceived the plans for evaluation and supervision used in their district to evaluate their performance and the helpfulness of the supervision they receive.

#### **Research Questions**

The study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision;
2. Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision;
3. Is there a relationship between three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction;
4. Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience on teacher participation; and
5. How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature?

## **Case Study**

According to Yin (2009) a survey is useful to answer research questions asking who, what, where, how many, and how much. But a case study can ask why. The research questions in this study sought to examine why teachers might be more or less satisfied with differing plans for evaluation and supervision. In making this determination, the data were aggregated to the district level yielding three districts that can be compared. In treating this research as a case study, the researcher was better able to answer the research questions.

Yin (2009) stated that, “a common concern about case studies is that they provide little basis for scientific generalization” (p. 15). However, the research questions do not seek to generalize information. Rather, this dissertation is to be treated as exploratory research regarding teacher satisfaction with three different plans for evaluation and supervision used by three different school districts. According to Yin (2009) these types of analyses are ideal for case study research when both qualitative and quantitative data are used to explore differences among the three entities.

## **Population**

The Official Code of Georgia (O.C.G.A. § 20-2-210, 1981) stated that all school employees shall be evaluated yearly on their performance. The state of Georgia developed a teacher evaluation program for use in schools as a response to the *Basic Education Act of 1985*. The evaluation program, introduced in 1993 and revised in 2004, is the Georgia Teacher Evaluation Program (GTEP). A replacement for the GTEP has been developed called the CLASS Keys. CLASS Keys, *Classroom Analysis of State Standards*, was field tested in 2008-2009 and is available for use by Georgia school districts. Georgia does not mandate the use of a specific state developed plans for evaluation and supervision, but instead provide one as an option. Some school districts choose to use their own plans for evaluation and supervision.

## **District Settings**

For this research, the participants were teachers in three school districts in Georgia with different plans for evaluation and supervision. Teacher performance is evaluated using these plans for evaluation and supervision. One school district, District A, uses the newest statewide plan, CLASS Keys. A second school district, District B, uses the former GTEP plan. A third school district, District C, uses a plan for evaluation and supervision developed by the local school district.

### **District A**

In 2009, District A had a student enrollment of 3,134. The school district employs 212 full-time teachers who earn an average salary of \$56,337.41. Out of the 212 full-time teachers, 159 hold advanced degrees. The student/teacher ration is 14:1. The district has three elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school. The district has 60.02 students that qualify for free or reduced lunch.

The CLASS Keys is a plan for evaluation and supervision that, according to district literature is both formative and summative and serves a two-fold purpose of improvement and accountability. This plan, used by District A, consists of three phases. In the first phase, the teacher completes a self-assessment and begins a draft of the Professional Growth Plan (PGP). There is a mandatory pre-evaluation conference. The second phase is data collection through formal and informal observations completed by trained evaluators. The third step involves the completion of rubrics, the Georgia Teacher Duties and Responsibilities (GTDR) rubric and the Continuum of Improvement Rubric. Figure 2 shows the continuous cycle of CLASS Keys.

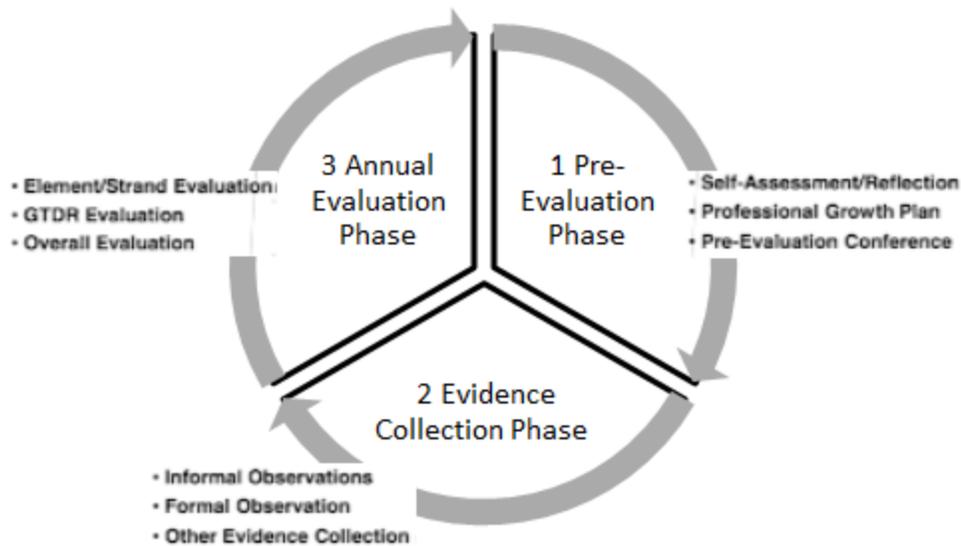


Figure 2. CLASS Keys diagram.

## District B

In 2009, District B had a student enrollment of 4,509. The school district employees 299 full-time teachers who earn an average salary of \$55,644.19. Out of the 299 full-time teachers, 199 hold advanced degrees. The student/teacher ration is 15:1. The district has four elementary schools, two middle schools, and one high school. The district has 50.39 students that qualify for free or reduced lunch.

District B uses the Georgia Teacher Evaluation Program (GTEP), which, according to district literature, serves the purposes of performance evaluation and identifies areas for improvement. The GTEP consists of an orientation for new teachers, observations, and a summary report. There are options within the GTEP for a pre-evaluation conference, if requested, and a post-observation conference, if requested. Other options include the use of goal setting forms to be completed by the teacher and evaluated by the administrator. Form A is for the teacher to set a student achievement goal. Form B is for the teacher to set a professional learning goal. Both forms are filled out at the beginning of the year. The Georgia Teacher

Observation Instrument (GTOI) is used for scoring. Evidence for the GTOI is collected through observations. All observations are unannounced and must last at least 20 minutes. Some teachers are observed once a year, others three times a year, depending on experience or previous performance.

### **District C**

District C was one of the first charter systems in the state of Georgia. Being a charter system means that each school must incorporate a Local School Governance Team (LSGT) to help with decisions at the school. This team is made up of faculty and staff from the school, as well as community members and stakeholders. Being a charter system in the state of Georgia gives school districts freedom from many state rules in exchange for increased academic achievement. Having charter system status means that district C can develop its own evaluation plan.

In 2009, District C had a student enrollment of 10,133. The school district employs 780 full-time teachers who earn an average salary of \$55,326.22. Out of the 780 full-time teachers, 562 hold advanced degrees. The student/teacher ratio is 13:1. The district has eleven elementary schools, four middle schools, and four high schools. Fifty-six percent of students qualify for free and reduced lunch.

District C uses a plan for evaluation and supervision developed by the school system, which, according to district literature, has primary purposes of improving instruction and informing professional development. It consists of three phases. In the first phase, it is mandatory for teachers to fill out two forms, A and B. These forms are goal-setting forms similar to the GTEP forms. Form A is for the teacher to set a student achievement goal. Form B is for the teacher to set a professional learning goal. Both forms are filled out at the beginning of the

year. In the second phase, snapshot observations are conducted by administrators and evaluators. These observations are unannounced and last a minimum of five minutes. Some teachers have five per year, others 10 per year. The number of observations is based on years of experience and on prior performance. These snapshot observations do not provide prescriptive feedback. Rather, they simply indicate what is going on in the classroom. At the end of the school year, during the third phase of evaluation, teachers partially fill out Form C, a self-evaluation form with multiple sections. Administrators then add their feedback to the form, based on data from the snapshot observations. A post year-end conference is optional to review the assessments related to the goals set at the beginning of the year. The goal setting forms could be used by administrators to guide observations.

### **Sample**

The population for this study comes from three rural school districts. All schools that were surveyed are K-5 elementary schools in Georgia. The three districts were not selected at random. Instead, districts were selected based upon the differentiated plans for evaluation and supervision each district used to evaluate teachers' instructional performance. Thus, this was a purposive sample. Two of the districts, District A and District B are similar in size. District C is larger. However, District C has a variety of school types (primary, PK-5, and upper elementary). Only the schools that had similar grades, student populations, and demographic characteristics to the other districts were surveyed (see Table 1). Therefore, each district had about 100 certified teachers that were surveyed. The teacher is the unit of analysis and the district was a classification variable.

Table 1

*Demographic Information for Schools Studied*

District School	Classroom Teachers	Enrollment	Ethnicity*				Teacher- Student Ratio	Title I Status
			W	B	H	O		
<b>District A</b>								
Elementary 1	37	540	94%	0%	3%	3%	14:1	Yes
Elementary 2	29	433	96%	0%	1%	3%	14:1	Yes
Elementary 3	29	481	94%	1%	3%	2%	16:1	Yes
<b>District B</b>								
Elementary 1	45	743	92%	1%	3%	4%	16:1	Yes
Elementary 2	42	653	96%	1%	1%	2%	15:1	Yes
Elementary 3	37	520	87%	1%	9%	3%	13:1	Yes
Elementary 4	19	318	91%	3%	3%	3%	14:1	Yes
<b>District C</b>								
Elementary 1	40	475	60%	4%	32%	2%	12:1	Yes
Elementary 2	26	274	93%	1%	0%	6%	13:1	Yes
Elementary 3	38	553	64%	9%	19%	8%	14:1	Yes
Elementary 4	36	479	87%	7%	3%	3%	13:1	No

Note: W: White; B: Black; H: Hispanic; O: Other

District C has 11 schools with grades K-5 but some are configured as primary schools and some as upper elementary schools. District C has four primary schools and two upper-elementary schools with grades 3-5 only. The four schools from District C were chosen because their PK-5 grade configuration matches the grade configuration of the other schools from District A and B. Additionally, the four schools from District C are similar in student enrollment and in socioeconomic status.

## **Document Analysis**

The district evaluation documents were preliminarily analyzed to determine how each district's plans were different from one another. The signs that are classified in the content analysis of the school district evaluation documents are key words to further determine which type of evaluation system each district uses. The researcher began with an inductive analysis to discover patterns; then data were examined. Finally, deductive pattern analysis was conducted using key words found across the documents. The key-words used to analyze the documents were: Collaborate, pre-conference, observation, rubric, summative, formative, goal.

## **Instrumentation**

Survey research has many benefits. According to Arreck and Settle (1985), surveys are efficient, flexible, and have the ability to be customized to fit the needs of the researcher. This study used the Survey of Teacher Satisfaction with Plans for Evaluation and Supervision (see Appendix A). The researcher combined two separate surveys from Ebmeier (2003) and Dollansky (1998).

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the Ebmeier (2003) survey. Nine factors were found. The factor entitled *active principal supervision* was used for this research. The survey reliability of the Ebmeier (2003) survey was ensured using Cronbach's alpha. The section from the Ebmeier (2003) survey, entitled *active principal supervision*, had a Chronbach's alpha of .93.

The researcher added four additional questions modified from a survey by Dollansky (1998), items 11-14. Since it is a modification, there is no established reliability. The first three questions ask teachers to rate the purposes of supervision in their districts. The fourth question seeks information about the improvement of instruction. An additional question was added about

satisfaction. Four demographic questions asked teachers their district, school, years of experience, and how many minutes per year they are formally observed. Permission for use and adaptation was obtained from both authors.

### **Data Collection Procedures**

Survey administration was coordinated within individual schools. At the schools' request, the researcher traveled to the site and met with faculty representatives to discuss the survey. Only two schools requested the researcher to meet with faculty representatives.

Informed consent forms were distributed to staff in each school system electronically. Teachers had four weeks to respond to the survey. The first reminder was sent out after two weeks. Two additional reminders were sent out, one the day before the survey closed, and one on the day the survey closed. All three reminders were sent through school district email. Survey data were gathered using Qualtrics<sup>®</sup> software. A password protected link was sent to classroom teachers in each district through email allowing access to the survey. Data from Qualtrics<sup>®</sup> were exported to SPSS<sup>®</sup> for analyses.

### **Data Analyses**

Analyses included factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, item-to-total correlations, standard error of measurement, means, one-way ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, chi square, and two-way ANOVA. Although factor analysis had been performed on the Ebmeier (2003) survey, the researcher completed exploratory factor analysis again because it had not been performed on the Dollansky (1998) survey. The researcher determined reliability for each factor using Cronbach's alpha. Additionally, reliability was not determined on the Dollansky (1998) survey instrument and the format of the questions were changed to match the Ebmeier (2003) survey.

Research Question 1: Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision? To answer this research question, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used as well as a Kruskal-Wallis test because assumptions of normality were violated on the second scale (teacher participation). A Tukey post hoc test was used to determine which cell means were different in the ANOVA and Mann-Whitney was used to determine differences in the Kruskal-Wallis. An adjusted *p*-value was used to protect from a Type I error.

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision. To answer this research question, the researcher used chi square.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction. To answer this research question, the researcher used chi square.

Research Question 4: Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience and teacher participation. A two-way ANOVA was used to answer this research question. A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the simple effects with a Tukey post hoc test.

Research Question 5: How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature? A qualitative analysis of content using district documents was implemented to answer this research question. Training manuals for the plans for evaluation and supervision were obtained and analyzed for themes found in research articles. These themes were compared and a determination was made aligning each district to a particular supervisory model. Analyses are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Summary of Analysis Used to Answer the Five Research Questions*

Research Question	Main analysis	Follow-up analyses/statistical tests
Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision?	ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis	Tukey Mann-Whitney
Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision?	Chi square	
Is there a relationship between three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction?	Chi square	
Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience and teacher participation?	Two-Way ANOVA	Tukey
How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature?	Qualitative Analysis of Content	

## CHAPTER IV:

### RESULTS

#### **Introduction**

This chapter presents results of the study. Information about the response rate is presented, followed by descriptive statistics indicating characteristics of the teacher responders. Next, reliability and validity are presented. These are followed by the statistical analyses of quantitative data and results for each research question.

Qualitative data are then presented. An inductive document analysis was used to identify constructs. Evident themes that emerged were goals, collaboration, and evaluation. Themes were deductively analyzed and found to be evident across all three plans for evaluation and supervision. However, each plan for evaluation and supervision had a dominant theme.

#### **Response Rate**

The overall response rate for the study was 229 out of a possible 378. There were 177 fully completed surveys. The completed online survey response rate was 47% (see Table 3).

Table 3

#### *Expected and Actual Frequencies and Percentages of Teacher Survey Response*

Returns	District A	District B	District C	Total
Expected Return	95 (25%)	143 (38%)	140 (37%)	378 (100%)
Actual Return	41 (43%)	66 (46%)	70 (50%)	177 (47%)

## Descriptive Statistics

Table 4 displays descriptive statistics for the characteristics of teacher respondents. These are categorized by district.

Table 4

*Frequencies and Percentages for Teacher Characteristics by District (n = 177)*

Name of District		District A	District B	District C	Totals
Years of teaching experience	1-4	3 (7%)	3 (5%)	3 (4%)	9 (5%)
	5-10	4 (10%)	14 (21%)	14 (20%)	32 (18%)
	> 10	34 (83%)	49 (74%)	53 (76%)	136 (77%)
Totals		41 (100%)	66 (100%)	70 (100%)	177 (100%)
Number of years teaching in present school	1-4	5 (12%)	11 (16%)	19 (24%)	35 (20%)
	5-10	12 (29%)	32 (48%)	25 (36%)	69 (39%)
	> 10	24 (59%)	23 (35%)	26 (37%)	73 (41%)
Totals		41 (100%)	66 (100%)	70 (100%)	177 (100%)

## Reliability and Validity

The Survey of Teacher Satisfaction with Evaluation and Supervision (STSESP), found in Appendix A, included 16 questions addressing each district's plans for evaluation and supervision. The survey additionally asked the name of school and district, years of total teaching experience and years in the current school, and the number of minutes of formal observation per year.

Reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha. The survey had an overall alpha of .92. Item-to-total correlations ranged from .167 to .804. After dropping items 11 (.175) and 12 (.167) with item-to-total correlations below .30, a revised instrument was determined consisting of 14 items with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .94, found in Appendix A. The revised item-to-total correlations range from .633 to .827, which supports the internal consistency of the survey because the correlations were not below .30 (Cronk, 1999). The standard error of measurement coefficient (SEM) was .939.

To examine the construct validity of the Survey of Teacher Satisfaction with Evaluation and Supervision, an exploratory factor analysis using principal components with a varimax, orthogonal, rotation was conducted. Factor analysis is useful in providing validity evidence for the instrument. Factor analysis provides some of the tools needed to define the underlying dimensions of variables in construct validity. The resulting factor structure yielded two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. All items had factor loadings greater than .40. The factor loadings can be found in Table 5.

Table 5

*Factor Loadings*

	I Role of the Supervisor	II Teacher Participation	
Q3	.807		
Q2	.794		
Q5	.782		
Q4	.757		
Q1	.702		
Q6	.686		
Q8	.673		
Q7	.649		
Q9	.543		
Q16		.853	
Q15		.814	
Q13		.800	
Q10		.748	
Q14		.701	
% of Variance	55.90%	9.72%	Total = 65.62%

After examining the principal components solution, a two-factor solution was retained, which provided the best simple structure. The scree plot (Figure 3) verifies the extraction of two factors. Examination of the scree plot suggested that a two-factor solution (accounting for 65.62% of the variance) ought to be retained (Kim & Muller, 1978). The first factor accounted

for 55.90% of the variance and was labeled Role of the Supervisor. This factor consisted of 9 items that reflected the principal's or supervisor's role in the plan for evaluation and supervision. The scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .92. The second factor accounted for 9.72% of the variance and was labeled Teacher Participation. This factor consisted of five items that reflected the teacher's role in the plan for evaluation and supervision. The scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

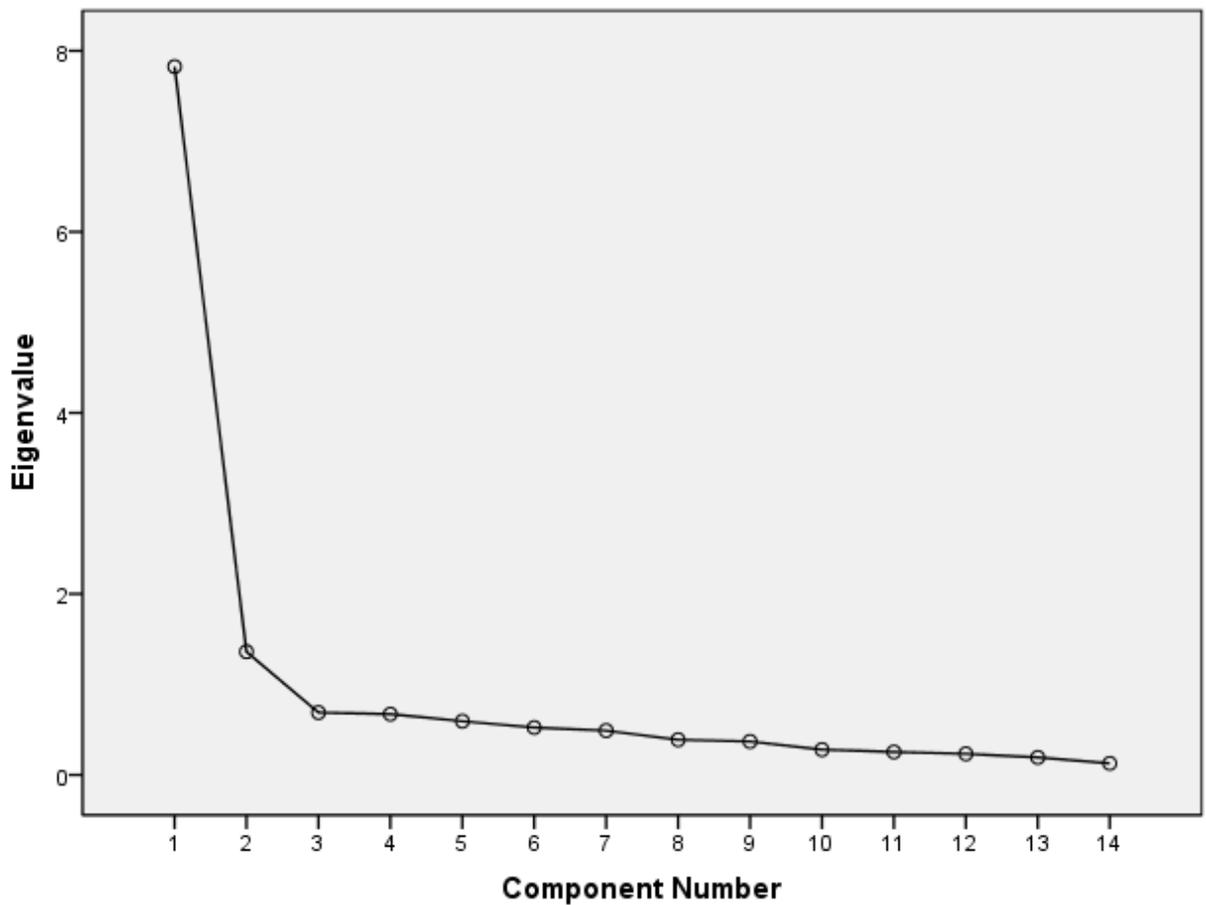


Figure 3. Scree plot revealing a two-factor structure.

Table 6 displays the results of the factor analysis as well as reliability for each scale.

Reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha.

Table 6

*Analysis Results for Survey of Satisfaction on Teacher Evaluation and Supervision*

Scale	Cronbach's alpha	Item Number	Survey Items
Role of Supervisor	.92	Q1	My principal helps collect data, which I find useful to help me improve my own instruction.
		Q2	My principal is very useful in helping me set goals on which I can work.
		Q3	As a result of my principal's questioning, I have been stimulated to analyze my own teaching.
		Q4	My principal asks probing questions that really make me think.
		Q5	My principal and I discuss the instructional strategies I use in my classroom.
		Q6	My principal individually helps me improve the instruction in my class.
		Q7	My principal offers specific improvement suggestions during supervision.
		Q8	My principal encourages me to use more than one instructional strategy when I teach.
		Q9	My principal looks for specific things upon which we agreed.
Teacher Participation	.90	Q10	In this school, the purpose of the supervisory process is clearly communicated.
		Q13	In this school, the supervisory process fosters a sense of collaboration between supervisor and teacher.
		Q14	In this school, the supervisory process encourages teachers to participate in the supervisory process.
		Q15	In this school, as a result of the supervisory process used, I am satisfied with the amount of formal supervision provided.
		Q16	Overall, in this school, I am satisfied with the supervisory process.

## Quantitative Data Analyses

### Research Question One

Research Question One asked: Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision? Analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the first scale, role of the supervisor, across districts. Kruskal-Wallis was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the second scale, teacher participation, across districts.

A one-way ANOVA was used on the first scale, role of the supervisor, to determine if there were any differences in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different evaluation and supervisory plans. The assumptions for normality and homogeneity of variance were not violated. Results indicated no significant differences between the groups,  $F(2, 174) = 1.57, p = .21$ . The means and standard deviations for the 3 districts were as follows: District A ( $M = 27.85, SD = 5.04$ ), District B ( $M = 26.10, SD = 5.98$ ), and District C ( $M = 27.37, SD = 5.07$ ) (See Table 7). Although District A and District C had higher mean scores than District B, results were not significant.

Table 7

*Summary of Means, Standard Deviations, and F Ratios from ANOVA*

<i>Dependent Variable / County</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Role of Supervisor</i>			1.57	.21
District A	27.85	5.04		
District B	26.10	5.98		
District C	27.37	5.07		

\* denotes significant  $p$  value ( $p < .05$ ).

Since the homogeneity of variance was violated, a Kruskal-Wallis Test was used on the second scale, teacher participation, to determine if there were any differences in perceptions in teacher participation across the districts. Results indicated significant differences at the .01 level among the three groups,  $\chi^2(2, N = 177) = .9170, p = .01$ . Kruskal-Wallis uses average rank rather than means. The difference was found to be between districts B and C (adjusted  $p$  value = .015). The adjusted  $p$  value was used to guard against a Type I error. District C (98.34) was more positive than District B (74.11). District A (97.02) was almost as positive as District C, but not significantly more than District B.

### **Research Question Two**

Research Question Two asked: Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision? A chi square test for independence was conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the time spent on formal supervision. Survey questions 15 and 21 were used. Question 21 stated, "Last year, in this school, on the average, how many minutes were teachers formally observed in the classroom by a supervisor?" Teachers were asked to write in the number of minutes. The researcher coded the teacher responses to question 21 into three categories: <60 Minutes, 60-120 Minutes, and >120 Minutes. Question 15 stated, "In this school, as a result of the supervisory process used, I am satisfied with the amount of formal supervision required." The researcher collapsed responses into two categories: Agree and disagree.

A chi square analysis indicated a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of satisfaction and the amount of formal supervision,  $\chi^2(2, N = 177) = 7.57, p = .02$ . Teachers'

perceptions of satisfaction are dependent on the amount of time that is spent on formal supervision in the plans for evaluation and supervision (See Table 8)

Table 8

*Chi Square for Teachers' Perceptions of Satisfaction with the Time Spent on Formal Supervision*

Scale / Time		<60 Min.	60-120 Min.	>120 Min.
<i>Scale</i>				
Disagree	Count	15	3	1
Agree	Count	72	67	19
TOTAL	Count	87	70	20

**Research Question Three**

Research Question Three asked: Is there a relationship between the three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction? A chi square test for independence was conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between years of teaching experience and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the time spent on formal supervision. Survey question 16 and the district names were used. Survey question 16 stated, "Overall, in this school, I am satisfied with the supervisory process." The researcher collapsed responses into two categories: Agree and disagree.

A chi square analysis indicated a significant relationship between districts and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the plans for evaluation and supervision,  $\chi^2(2, N = 177) = 14.23$ ,  $p < .001$ . Teachers' perceptions of satisfaction are dependent on the district (see Table 9).

Table 9

*Chi Square for Teachers' Perceptions of Satisfaction and District*

Scale / District		District A	District B	District C
<i>Scale</i>				
Disagree	Count	3	15	2
Agree	Count	38	51	68
TOTAL	Count	41	66	70

**Research Question Four**

Research Question Four asked: Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience on teacher participation?

A two-way ANOVA found a significant interaction between districts and years of teaching experience on teacher participation,  $F(4,168) = 2.55, p = .041$ . Since there was a significant interaction, the simple effects were looked at. There was a significant difference between District C teachers with 5-10 years of experience and District B teachers with 5-10 years of experience,  $p = .05$ . Teachers in District C were more satisfied than teachers in District B. There was also a significant difference between District C teachers with more than 10 years of experience and District B teachers with 5-10 years of experience,  $p = .019$ . Again, teachers in District C were more satisfied than teachers in District B.

**Qualitative Data Analyses**

Research Question Five asked: How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature? An analysis of the content of the school district evaluation documents was conducted to determine which type of evaluation system each district uses. The researcher began with inductive analysis to discover patterns. Themes emerged as the evaluation documents were examined. Then, using open coding, the researcher examined the data. Finally,

the researcher conducted deductive pattern analysis using key words from the texts. The analysis was completed using evaluation manuals from District, A, District B, and District C.

The 80-page evaluation manual from District A was obtained online. The content analysis for District A revealed a pattern of cooperation. The district documents included many references to collaboration and conferencing with a supervisor, as well as references to independent growth and reflection.

A hard-copy evaluation manual from District B was obtained from the superintendent's office. The manual is 89 pages with a 31-page appendix and three pages of front matter. An electronic copy was also obtained online. The document contained the most references to observation as well as references to a predetermined type of effective teaching.

The evaluation materials from District C included a 56-page evaluation manual obtained online. The document contained the most references to goals. The emphasis in the document was primarily on the teacher as an individual. Teachers were required to set individual goals that may or may not align with school goals. Teachers were required to set individualized professional development goals as well.

After analyzing all documents, the themes that emerged were goals, collaboration, and evaluation. Key-statements were used to inductively analyze the documents. A summary of the statements are found in Table 10.

Table 10

*District Thematic Analysis*

Statement	Generalized Theme
District A	
1. With CLASS Keys, Georgia teachers have an evaluation system that serves a twofold purpose: improvement and accountability. (p. 7)	Evaluation
2. CLASS Keys is both a formative and summative tool. (p. 7)	Evaluation
3. Engages teachers in the evaluation process and their own professional growth. (p. 7)	Collaboration
4. The evaluation system allows evaluators to give teachers more detailed feedback, using the language of the elements. (p. 7)	Collaboration
5. At the Pre-Evaluation Conference, the Professional Growth Plan is reviewed and approved by the evaluator. (p.10)	Collaboration
6. Student achievement targets are set, and expectations are clarified regarding the elements and the duties and responsibilities [with both teacher and evaluator] (p. 10)	Collaboration
7. Self-Assessment and Reflection is the first step in the Pre-Evaluation Phase of the CLASS Keys process. This initial activity is critical because it provides teachers an opportunity to be actively involved in the assessment process and to identify their own professional learning needs regarding the criteria upon which they will be evaluated (p.11)	Collaboration
8. The PGP provides an opportunity for teachers and/or teams to collaboratively advance teacher performance along the Continuum of Improvement rubrics found in the CLASS Keys (p.13)	Collaboration
9. The PGP is primarily a teacher responsibility with support from evaluators (p.13)	Collaboration
10. Teams of teachers may select common strategies for use in collaborative plans. (p.13)	Collaboration
11. The evaluator reviews, approves (or suggests revisions), and provides a signed copy of the approved PGP to the teacher. (p. 14)	Evaluation
12. Appropriate times for discussion with the teacher include the conference following the formal observation and the Annual Evaluation Conference (p. 14)	Collaboration
13. The evaluator shares relevant information about district or school initiatives that are the focus of professional learning for the coming year. The evaluator works collaboratively with the teacher to identify the elements that would support these initiatives (p.14)	Collaboration

14.	During the Pre-Evaluation Conference, the evaluator and the teacher(s) review the expectations of the CLASS Keys evaluation process. This is a transparent process in which the evaluator and teacher share responsibility (p.15)	Collaboration
15.	The evaluator emphasizes that teachers share responsibility for providing evidence of their performance on the elements, particularly during the formal observation process. (p. 15)	Collaboration
16.	Determining the student achievement goal(s) is a teacher/evaluator responsibility. (p. 16)	Collaboration
17.	Each professionally-certified classroom teacher will have at least two informal observations prior to the Annual Evaluation. Each professionally-certified classroom teacher will have at least one formal observation prior to the Annual Evaluation. (p. 19)	Observation
18.	Conferences regarding observations may be requested by the evaluator or teacher as needed. (p. 20)	Collaboration
19.	It is the evaluator's responsibility to schedule the formal observation. The teacher or the evaluator may request a conference prior to the observation, but a conference is not required. Conferences are encouraged for teachers with one to three years experience, teachers who are new to the district or state, and teachers who need additional support. (p. 20)	Evaluation
20.	The Post-Observation Conference is required for the formal observation. This conference is the evaluator's opportunity to give written and oral feedback to the teacher. (p. 21)	Evaluation
21.	The Annual Evaluation is the summative assessment of a teacher's performance for the school year, Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory... (p. 25)	Evaluation
22.	The teacher may request a follow-up conference with the evaluator and/or principal if necessary (p. 29)	Collaboration
23.	The evaluator and the teacher will develop the monitoring plan with checkpoints for updates on the teacher's progress (p. 32)	Collaboration
24.	The Pre-Evaluation Conference sets the expectations for the annual evaluation. This conference may be conducted individually or with teams/groups of teachers. (p. 49)	Collaboration
<b>District B</b>		
1.	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. (p. 1)	Evaluation
2.	An effective evaluation program results when teachers are treated as professionals and evaluators are successful in using evaluations to reinforce effective practices and to improve teaching. (p. 1)	Evaluation

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3.	The purposes of the annual performance evaluation are: to identify and reinforce effective teaching practices; to identify areas where development can improve instructional effectiveness; and to identify teachers who do not meet the minimum standards so that appropriate action can be taken. (p. 1)	Evaluation
4.	A pre-evaluation conference is not required as a routine procedure, but one must be conducted at the request of either the teacher or the evaluator. (p. 5)	Collaboration
5.	The standard evaluation process for the evaluation of classroom teaching with the GTOI requires a minimum of 3 unannounced classroom observations of at least 20 minutes each (p. 7)	Evaluation
6.	The formative evaluation process shall consist of a minimum of 1 unannounced classroom observation of at least 20 minutes. (p. 8)	Evaluation
7.	The extended phase is required in the standard evaluation process when a teacher has accumulated 5 or more Needs Improvement (NI) scores and has not participated in the extended phase during the current school year. (p. 9)	Evaluation
8.	The extended phase begins with a required conference to plan for the extended phase observation. (p. 9)	Collaboration
9.	A conference to discuss the results must be held after this observation. The scores from the extended observation are used for diagnostic purposes only and must not be used to determine any rating on the Annual Evaluation Summary Report. (p. 9)	Evaluation
10.	If all of the scores from the extended observation are satisfactory, standard observations are resumed. (p. 9)	Evaluation
11.	A post-observation conference to discuss the results of a GTOI observation is required if requested by either the teacher or the evaluator. Formal and informal conferences to discuss instruction are encouraged. A post-observation conference is required, after each extended phase observation. (p. 11)	Collaboration
12.	If a teacher's evaluation summary for the GTDRI is overall Unsatisfactory, the evaluator will identify the area(s) of deficiency by using the numbers and letters of the item(s) on the GTDRI. (p. 15)	Evaluation
13.	For teachers whose performance is Unsatisfactory, measurement of progress on the PDP is required as part of the next year's annual evaluation. The plan includes specific objectives for improvement, activities and a time line for meeting these objectives, criteria for measurement of progress toward meeting the objectives, a record of participation in recommended activities, and a record of performance on specified criteria. (p. 17)	Evaluation
14.	An individual receiving two consecutive unsatisfactory annual evaluations shall remain at his or her current step until he or she receives a satisfactory annual evaluation. Upon receipt of a satisfactory annual evaluation, an individual shall be placed on the state salary schedule on the step where that individual would	Evaluation

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<p>have been placed if the years of unsatisfactory evaluations had not been received. (p. 19)</p> <p>15. These dimensions are the decision-making units of the systematic evaluation of teaching performance. Some of the dimensions have been divided into “subdimensions” which provide for a more detailed description of teaching behaviors. (p.26)</p>	<p>Evaluation</p>
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District C

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<p>1. Professionals in our school system contributed countless hours of review, feedback, and input to develop the process. (p. 4)</p>	<p>Collaboration</p>
<p>2. The culmination of their work focuses on professionals’ setting of individual goals for desired key results for student achievement and for continuous professional growth. (p. 4)</p>	<p>Goals</p>
<p>3. Rather, the key result statements and descriptors are meant to establish goals toward which good educators can aspire and work. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Goals</p>
<p>1. Creating the pathway means that planning and implementing the daily work are necessary in order to reach stated goals. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Goals</p>
<p>2. Managing the work calls for educators to measure their progress, and, if necessary, change directions or start over. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Evaluation</p>
<p>3. Building a team involves educators contributing to the development of a community of learners. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Collaboration</p>
<p>4. Finally, educators lead the way by being active learners who model professional behavior in their interactions with others. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Collaboration</p>
<p>5. Observation, peer coaching, professional feedback, and data analysis contribute to the assessment process. Professional learning activities are based on the school improvement plan and relate directly to student achievement. (p. 5)</p>	<p>Evaluation</p>
<p>6. The three part evaluation instrument ensures that the annual evaluation ratings are based on student achievement gains and evidence of student learning. (p. 15)</p>	<p>Evaluation</p>
<p>7. Student Achievement Implementation Plan: Form A addresses continuous progress toward student achievement goals. (p. 15)</p>	<p>Goals</p>
<p>8. Part II Professional Learning Plan: Form B addresses continuous progress toward development of professional learning plans related to student achievement and teacher development goals. (p. 15)</p>	<p>Goals</p>
<p>9. Part III Principles and Examples of Key Indicators: Form C addresses continuous progress toward effective learning practices. (p. 15)</p>	<p>Evaluation</p>
<p>10. Mid-Year and End-of-Year assessments (Forms D and E, respectively) record</p>	<p>Goals</p>

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	progress toward the goals, as well as note deficient areas. (p. 15)	
11.	In its entirety, the instrument evaluates impact on student achievement and documents areas in which performance improvement needs exist. (p. 15)	Evaluation
12.	The role of the educator is to meet the school's achievement goals, including, but not limited to, the academic gains of the students. (p. 15)	Goals
13.	Evaluatees and evaluators collaboratively set the student achievement goals, the professional growth goals, and review performance of principles of effective educational practice. (p. 15)	Collaboration
14.	The "Snapshot" observation tool is the primary observation instrument for instruction. This instrument records a minimum of ten (10) observations annually. (p. 16)	Observation
15.	When writing goals, each goal should be measurable. (p. 37)	Goals
16.	Goals should align with the system's comprehensive school improvement plan and/or with the individual school's comprehensive school improvement plan. (p. 37)	Goals
17.	Goals can be derived from a variety of knowledge based and performance based test assessment. (p. 37)	Goals
18.	Two very important characteristics to consider when measuring a goal are reliability and validity of the measuring instrument. Briefly stated, reliability means consistency of an instrument in measuring whatever it measures or the degree to which an instrument will give similar results for the same individuals at different times. Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. (p. 38)	Goals
19.	The professional learning plan goal should relate directly to your student achievement goal. (p. 41)	Goals

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After analyzing all documents, the themes that emerged were goals, collaboration, and evaluation. Key-words and synonyms were used to deductively analyze the documents. A summary of the word count is found in Table 11.

Table 11

*District Content Analysis Coding*

Key Word	District A	District B	District C
Collaborate	12	6	16
Pre-Conference	42	4	1
Observation	112	113	21
Rubric	18	6	5
Summative	13	1	1
Formative	37	26	0
Goal, Aim, Target	17	2	84
Effective Teaching	0	21	14
Judge	0	1	0
Evaluate, Appraise, Assess	55	33	13
Professional Development	35 (all related to remediation)	18 (all related to remediation)	27
Growth	34	0	10
Reflection	20	0	5
Individual	7	4	12
Group	10	3	6
Self-Assessment	28	0	1

The purposes, as presented in the district documents, aligned with research articles (Freeman, 1982; Gebhard, 1984; Gordon, 1990) outlining various plans for evaluation and supervision. For example, in District A, the evaluation manual stated the purposes of the tool were to, “Evaluate teacher performance using qualitative rubrics [and] provide support and

resources for instructional improvement and standards-based practices...Engages teachers in the evaluation process and their own professional growth... Allows evaluators to use an array of evidence from multiple sources over time to review teacher performance inside and outside of the classroom.” Similarly, Gebhard (1984) stated, “The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship . . . Cogan (1973) believed that teaching is mostly a problem-solving process that requires a sharing of ideas between the teacher and supervisor. The teacher and supervisor work together in addressing a problem” (p. 505).

As defined by documents in District B, “The purposes of the annual performance evaluation are to identify and reinforce effective teaching practices; to identify areas where development can improve instructional effectiveness; and to identify teachers who do not meet the minimum standards so that appropriate action can be taken.” Aligning with Gebhard (1984) who stated that, “In directive supervision, the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviors, and evaluate the teacher’s mastery of defined behaviors” (502).

District Documents in District C state that the focus of the evaluation is, “on professionals’ setting of individual goals for desired key results for student achievement and for continuous professional growth.” Gebhard (1984) stated, “While collaborative supervision places the teacher and supervisor in a sharing relationship, non-directive supervision does not. Nor does a non-directive supervisor prescribe or suggest non-prescriptive alternatives” (p. 506). Freeman expounds on this and stated that, “The objective is not to judge or to evaluate, but to understand in Curran’s sense (1976), and to clarify. The observer starts from the assumption that the

teacher's experiences and goals must provide the primary source of learning . . . At the outset, therefore, the observer elicits the teacher's goals, both general and specific" (p. 24).

CHAPTER V:  
FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

**Introduction**

A survey was used to collect data from three school districts that use differing plans for evaluation and supervision. The study sought to determine which of the three plans for evaluation and supervision were most satisfactory to teachers. All three districts were rural districts in the state of Georgia.

Prior studies indicate that teachers feel negatively toward some plans for evaluation and supervision including processes associated with retention and termination (Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). In a study by Newton and Braithwaite (1988), 82% of teachers were in favor of teacher evaluation, yet, only 9% approved of the current teacher evaluation practices. Stated previously, according to Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990), a high level of teaching performance builds confidence in teachers and enhances student performance. According to Joyce and Showers (1988), a strong correlation exists between teacher and student growth. It is important to understand how teachers perceive different evaluation processes so that changes can be made that will help teachers view evaluative supervision positively and thus, improve teacher classroom performance.

**Findings**

The survey had an overall response rate of 47%. Typically, online surveys have a response rate of 10-30% (Solomon, 2001). Each district exceeded the average online response rate with rates of 43% for District A, 46% for District B, and 50% for District C. District C was probably the highest because the researcher is employed in District C.

Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine construct validity. Ebmeier (2003) previously completed exploratory factor analysis with his survey revealing five factors. Dollansky (1998) did not complete an exploratory factor analysis with her survey. Combining the two instruments made it necessary to complete factor analysis across both instruments. Initially, three factors were found; but the third factor contained only two questions. The researcher reran factor analysis, dropping those two questions for use in single-item analysis, and found two solid factors. These two factors were Role of the Supervisor and Teacher Participation. Ebmeier (2003) uses the term Role of the Supervisor to name the section of his survey that this dissertation borrowed from. The term Teacher Participation is found in the literature in many places (Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease, 1983; Peterson, 2000).

According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), reliability should be above .80 for survey scales. Survey reliability was strong as the instrument had a reliability coefficient using Cronbach's alpha was of .92. The two scales had reliability of .92 for Role of the Supervisor and .90 for Teacher Participation. According to Gregory (1996), any reliability coefficient above .90 is to be considered "robust" (p. 95). Item to total correlations ranged from .633 to .827. This supported internal consistency and reliability of the survey. Cronk (1999) noted that correlations above .3 are acceptable, and correlations above .7 are "desirable" (p. 102).

The first research question asked: Is there a difference in perceptions of teachers' satisfaction across three districts using different plans for evaluation and supervision? The first ANOVA was an analysis to determine whether there were differences across districts in the role of the supervisor. No significant differences were found between the districts. This could be because the supervisor has a multifaceted role in each district, performing duties as principal, supervisor, disciplinarian, and curriculum leader. There is not a dedicated supervisor in any

district; rather, the principal is responsible for conducting teacher supervision and evaluation along with other duties.

The second test was a Kruskal-Wallis because assumptions of normality were violated. The test determined that there were significant differences between districts and teacher participation. Teachers from districts A and C reported more positive sentiments than did teachers from district B. This is probably because teachers from District B use the least participatory plan for evaluation and supervision.

Research Question Two asked: Is there a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision? Chi square tests for independence were conducted and determined that there was a relationship between the amount of formal observation and teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with the amount of supervision. Teachers' perceptions of satisfaction are dependent on the amount of time that is spent on formal supervision in the plan for evaluation and supervision. There is not a corollary line that can be drawn showing that more time equals more satisfaction. Time spent on evaluation is used differently in each district; however, there is a statistically significant relationship possibly because teachers see the value in their plans for evaluation and supervision. In future research, the relationship between time and satisfaction could be explored.

Research Question Three asked: Is there a relationship between three districts and teachers' perceptions of overall satisfaction with the plan for evaluation and supervision? Chi square test for independence was conducted; there was a relationship between districts and perceptions of overall satisfaction. Teachers' perceptions of satisfaction are dependent on the district. Teachers in Districts A and C are more satisfied overall with the plan for evaluation and supervision than teachers in District B. This is probably because the plan for evaluation and

supervision used in District B is the oldest and most traditional plan. It requires little teacher participation.

Research Question Four asked: Is there an interaction effect between the three districts and teachers' years of teaching experience on teacher participation? A two-way ANOVA found a significant interaction between districts and years of teaching experience on teacher participation. Teachers in District B and District C had significant differences between teachers with 5-10 years of experience. There were also significant differences between teacher in District C teachers with 5-10 years of experience and teachers in District C with more than 10 years of experience. Teachers in District C reported higher levels of teacher participation in the plan for evaluation and supervision. This is probably because non-directive supervision is more satisfactory to teachers who have more experience and are more comfortable setting their own expectations for evaluation and supervision. Due to economic constraints and a hiring freeze in District C, few new teachers had been hired prior to the study. In fact, 96% of the teachers from District C had more than five years of experience—79% had more than 10 years of experience. Therefore, it can be inferred that because of the increased experience of the staff in District C, results might have been skewed because fewer new teachers were able to participate.

Research Question Five asked: How do district plans for evaluation and supervision align with models found in literature? An analysis of the content of the school district evaluation documents was conducted. It was found that District A aligned with collaborative supervision. District B aligned with directive supervision. District C aligned with non-directive supervision.

## **Conclusions**

First, the results of this study indicate that teachers prefer to have a higher level of participation in the plan for evaluation and supervision. With teachers in Districts A and C reporting higher satisfaction than teachers in District B, it can be concluded that the plans for evaluation and supervision used by these districts include more teacher participation. More traditional supervisory plans are less satisfactory to teachers because they require less teacher participation. This aligns with the literature (Freeman, 1982; Gebhard, 1984; Gordon, 1990; Thobega & Miller, 2003), because the plan used by District B is the most traditional with little participation required of the teacher. The supervisor conducts the observation and completes the required forms. The plans used by Districts A and C both require more teacher participation in the way of goal setting forms and conferences with the supervisor.

Secondly, it can be concluded that time does affect satisfaction. An examination reveals an oddity with the means of teacher evaluations. Although District C reported the least amount of time spent on the plan for evaluation and supervision, teachers in District C still reported high satisfaction similar to teachers from district A. Teachers in District B, whose evaluation mean times were similar to that in District A, reported lower overall satisfaction. Teachers in District B were the least satisfied overall with the plan for evaluation and supervision. Evaluators need to ensure high quality evaluative supervision occurs when entering a teacher's classroom. The components of the plan and what the supervisor and teacher do during formal supervision time determine satisfaction. For example, when the supervisor and teacher collaborate, there is a high level of teacher participation leading to greater teacher satisfaction. This probably accounts for the fact that the district with the lowest amount of time spent on the plan had the highest satisfaction—because it uses the plan with the highest level of teacher participation.

District conclusions are reported in Table 12 using the findings from the research as well as findings from the content analysis presented in Chapter IV. First, an alignment table shows the content analysis and teacher perceptions of the districts as they align to three models found in literature. In the first column, characteristics of three supervisory models are examined; in the second column, the districts' plans for evaluation and supervision are examined as they relate to the supervisory model.

Table 12

*Comparison of Supervisory Model and District Alignment*

Supervisory Model	District Alignment
<p><b>Collaborative Supervision</b>            As the name would imply this approach is one where supervisor and teacher work together to improve instruction (Gebhard, 1984). Cogan (1973) concentrated on clinical supervision in psychology and later applied it to the discipline of education. Gebhard (1984) described this model of working together, supervisor and teacher, as a sharing of ideas. He stated that, “The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship” (p. 505).</p>	<p><b>District A</b>            Results of the content analysis revealed that District A has tended to have a more balanced plan for evaluation and supervision. The word “collaborate” appeared in training documents more than it did in any other plan. “Preconference” appeared 42 times, “rubric,” 18 times, “summative,” 13 times, “formative,” 37 times, and “goal” 17 times. The use of the terms preconference and collaboration supports the tendency of this district to align with a collaborative supervisory model. Teachers report an elevated level of participation in the plan when compared to District B or C.</p>
<p><b>Directive Supervision</b>            Gebhard (1984) introduced the model as the most traditional model of teacher evaluation. An administrator or evaluator enters the classroom and observes. These observations are generally unannounced. After the observation, feedback is provided, written or verbal, on the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson and the teacher. This type of observation is assumed to promote an assumption that there is a certain way to do things. Gebhard (1984, 502) said the, “role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviors, and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviors.”</p>	<p><b>District B</b>            Content analysis reveals a tendency of the plan for evaluation and supervision used in District B to focus on observation. The word appeared 113 times in training documents. Additionally, all conferences and goal setting forms were only intended for remediation of teachers. The plan calls for a supervisor to observe teachers and provide written feedback on performance.</p>
<p><b>Non-Directive Supervision</b>            Freeman (1982) presented a clear explanation of the adaptation from psychology to pedagogy. The purpose of non-directive supervision is to move the supervisor into the teacher’s world. The supervisor elicits teachers’ goals and then later asks them how they met their goals. The supervisor can then question inconsistencies in the teachers’ responses. Gebhard (1984) noted that this supervisory model does not prescribe improvements, rather, through a recognized version of the teachers’ responses, repeating or rewording the teachers’ thoughts, allows the teachers to discover their own solutions.</p>	<p><b>District C</b>            In District C, content analysis revealed a tendency to focus on goal setting. The word “goal” appeared 84 times. This is more than any other district. Teachers reported an emphasis on goal setting in this district. The time spent on the plan for evaluation and supervision tended to be less in this district, indicating teachers spend less time being observed and evaluated than in other districts.</p>

## **District A**

District A uses the newest plan for evaluation and supervision, the CLASS Keys adopted in 2008. The CLASS Keys consists of three phases including the first phase, which is a self-assessment phase in which teachers complete a professional growth plan; the second phase involves data collection through observation and conferences; finally, the third phase involves detailed feedback following a prescribed rubric. District A had a mean formal supervision time of 102 minutes per year. In the study, District A had the highest mean time of the three districts.

Although the word “observation” was coded more times than any other word, it is evident that the evaluation method used by District A appears more balanced than those of Districts B or C. The “pre-conference” term appeared ten times more than it did with District B. Likewise, “rubrics,” “goals,” and “collaboration” all appeared many more times than in District B. District A appeared to use a more collaborative approach to teacher evaluation where teachers and administrators work together to improve teaching (Gebhard, 1984).

District A aligns more with the Collaborative Supervisory Model. The detailed feedback prescribed in the rubric and in conferences indicates that District A has more collaboration and Teacher Participation than District B. This combination of supervisor and teacher collaboration appears to indicate a shared culture of idea exchange. Other studies have found that this is a satisfactory plan for evaluation and supervision to teachers (Gordon, 1990; Thobega & Miller, 2003).

## **District B**

District B uses the GTEP, the oldest plan for evaluation and supervision in the study. The GTEP has few requirements and many options for implementation. For example, the only mandatory components to the plan for evaluation and supervision are one or three 20-minute

observations per year (depending on experience) and a summary report of each observation. The options for implementation include goal setting forms for student achievement and professional development, pre-evaluation and post-evaluation conferences, and the option for longer observations.

It appears to be evident from the coding of District B, that “observation” was the most important facet of the evaluation method. Although the word “formative” was coded 26 times, most of the instances were in a brief remediation plan to help teachers who score poorly on the primary summative evaluation. District B uses a directive approach to teacher supervision where the focus is on summative evaluations completed by administrators (Freeman, 1982).

District B uses the most traditional plan. The lower perceptions of satisfaction from teachers, regardless of the mean formal supervisory time appeared to indicate that teachers do not favor this plan when compared with a more collaborative or non-directive plan. This finding is consistent with other research in the field (Gordon, 1990; Freeman, 1982). Teachers generally do not favor the more traditional plans for evaluation and supervision as there is less emphasis on Teacher Participation.

Gebhard (1984) stated three main problems associated with the Directive Supervisory Model (District B). These were a vague definition of “good” teaching, non-humanistic consequences, and a lack of responsibility for what goes on in the classroom. In qualitative interviews (Gebhard, 1984), teachers reported negative experiences surrounding the first two problems with the Directive Model including being told what they should have done in a lesson and being “talked down to” in post-observation conferences. Thus, results of this study, teachers being the least satisfied with the plan for evaluation and supervision used in District B are not surprising.

## **District C**

District C uses a plan for evaluation and supervision developed by the district. The plan begins by setting goals at the beginning of the year. The supervisor then collects data through 5-10 snapshot observations (depending on the teachers' level of experience). These are five-minute observations that the supervisor completes throughout the year. At the end of the year, the teacher completes a self-evaluation. The supervisor adds feedback from the observations and goal setting forms to this self-evaluation.

It is evident that District C uses a more non-directive form of supervision because the focus is on personal goals set by teachers (Freeman, 1982). The word "goal" appeared 84 times in the printed evaluation manual, more than any other district. Although supervisors in the district conduct observations, the word "observation" appears less frequently than any other district, only 21 times.

Primarily derived from the work of Carl Rogers, the Non-directive Supervisory Model that District C uses incorporates the use of goal setting forms and self-evaluations tend to put the responsibility for growth in the teacher's hands. The supervisor is to provide general feedback and data, but generally does not provide prescriptive feedback. Teacher Participation is greater in District C than in District B.

## **Implications**

In the past, the supervisory process has been viewed negatively by many teachers (Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Shinkfield & Shufflebeam, 1996). This study shows that there are models/methods/aspects of the plans for evaluation and supervision that need to be changed. Teachers must be involved in the process and communicative process must be open and clearly

defined. Teachers should be involved with conferences, both pre-observation conferences and post-observation conferences. The feedback obtained by both supervisor and teacher is valuable.

Although this study did not focus on principal satisfaction or ease of use, there are important implications for principals. First, teachers are receptive to evaluative supervision. Teachers understand the benefits and purposes. However, it seems clear that teachers are more satisfied when they are involved with the process. Principals should therefore take time to involve teachers through conferences, discussions of practice, and by setting goals together. Principals have a multitude of responsibilities, but this study determined that the time spent on evaluation does not affect teachers' satisfaction with the plan for evaluation and supervision. Principals should be aware that spending quality time with teachers, rather than a set quantity of time with teachers, affects overall satisfaction with the process.

Formative and summative assessments have different purposes (Scriven, 1966). Yet the two are intertwined inextricably in these three districts. While summative assessments are important for evaluating school programs and in assessing the implementation of school programs, the utilization of formative assessment appears to be better to assist teachers with the improvement of their classroom performance (Glanz, 2000). Yet, the threat of termination and judgment hangs over teachers because of the summative aspects found in each districts' plans. Because teachers rated both forms of assessment as the primary purpose of their districts' plan, it seems to be clear that teachers are conflicted about what the primary purpose really is in their district. If teachers do not know the purpose of a plan for evaluation and supervision, it seems it would be more difficult for a teacher to participate in the plan.

Lastly, teachers who are not satisfied with the supervisory plan will not benefit as they should. Teachers who are satisfied overall will be more likely to listen to constructive feedback

and improve instruction (Goldrick, 2002). Teachers who are dissatisfied will be less likely to listen to feedback and less involved in the overall process. As standards become more rigorous, testing requirements increase, and teachers are held more accountable, it is important for teachers to be receptive to feedback and improvement. A high level of satisfaction with the plan for evaluation and supervision may translate to more effective teachers.

### **Recommendations for Practice**

The findings and conclusions of this study indicate the following implications for practice. Districts should look at teachers' perceptions of satisfaction when choosing a plan for evaluation and supervision. It has been shown that through evaluative supervision, teachers grow (Glanz, 2000; Mathers, Oliva, & Laine, 2008; Newton & Braithwaite, 1988; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b) and, in turn, students grow (Joyce & Showers, 1988; Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). Districts that have a choice in a plan for evaluation and supervision should consult teachers and determine what they desire in the plan. Of course, time, cost, and ease of implementation will also affect which plan districts choose, and teacher input and satisfaction should be considered and weighted as well. If teacher satisfaction is increased, student achievement is increased as well. If the plan for evaluation and supervision contributes to teacher satisfaction, either positively or negatively, then the plan impacts student achievement. In this age of accountability, where student achievement is the criteria by which the public measures school effectiveness, plans for evaluation and supervision can be evaluated to ensure high teacher satisfaction. Plans that aren't satisfactory to teachers should be revised or replaced. Districts may want to look for plans that include a high level of teacher participation, including clear communications, both private and public, and that include and encourage collaboration between supervisor and teachers.

Greater efforts can be made to encourage teachers to participate in the plans for evaluation and supervision. District A requires more teacher participation in the plan for evaluation and supervision with required conferences between evaluator and teacher, as well as goal setting forms to be filled out by both evaluator and teacher. District C requires a high-level of teacher participation as well with teachers having the option to request conferences and the requirement to fill out shared goal forms. District B is the district that appears to be least satisfactory to teachers regarding the plan for evaluation and supervision and requires the least amount of teacher participation. Goal setting forms and all conferences are intended for remediation of an ineffective teacher. Teachers who participate in the plan for evaluation and supervision are more satisfied; therefore, participation should be fostered if not required.

Finally, districts can improve teacher satisfaction with plans for evaluation and supervision. Districts that have teachers who are not satisfied may want to seek plans that are more satisfactory to teachers. The more satisfied they are, the more they tend to gain from the supervisory experience.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Prior research has focused on teacher satisfaction with evaluation (Ari & Sipal, 2009; Boyd, 1989; Dollansky, 1998; Ebmeier, 2003; Stronge & Tucker, 2003) and teacher satisfaction with supervision (Koustelios, 2001; Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004). No research was found that examined current models of plans for evaluation and supervision that encompass both evaluation and supervision. Since research about teacher satisfaction with plans for evaluation and supervision appears to be scarce, research comparing teacher attitudes or satisfaction between districts using differing plans for evaluation and supervision would be beneficial to the body of

knowledge. Likewise, there are only a few studies that can corroborate the results of this study because similar research is scarce.

Finally, in this study, the researcher compiled a survey using two different surveys. Further research could be done to develop a teacher survey that would encompass satisfaction with plans for evaluation and supervision. Therefore, an effective research question to meet this end might be: What methods are most useful in determining teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with plans for evaluation and supervision used in their districts?

The researcher recommends the following questions as possibilities for future quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods research relating to plans for evaluation and supervision:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of the plan for evaluation and supervision used in their districts? Although this question is similar to the one used in this research study, it could effectively be answered using a mixed methods or qualitative approach. This could provide confirmatory data to add to this study.
2. What processes of plans for evaluation and supervision, used in their districts, are most satisfactory to teachers? Again, this question, similar to the one used in this study, could be answered using an entirely qualitative approach.
3. Are perceptions of satisfaction within a district regarding the plan for evaluation and supervision the same between elementary school teachers and high school teachers? If perceptions of satisfaction are different between elementary, middle, and high school teachers, why, and to what extent, are they different?
4. Is there a link between teachers' perceptions of satisfaction with district plans for evaluation and supervision and professional development or teacher attrition?

## **Summary**

Chapter V reported the findings, case study reports, conclusions, implications, and recommendations of this study. Although little statistically significant data were obtained, this study has been valuable to inform the determination of future research in the area of teacher satisfaction as it relates to plans for evaluation and supervision. Research is critical in the area of supervision and evaluation. In this age of accountability and No Child Left Behind, teachers must develop and refine instructional practices to equip children to become leaders in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Unfortunately, budget crises have prevented necessary, high-quality professional development opportunities. Thus, evaluative supervision has become the best place to assist teachers in becoming educational leaders and increasing student achievement.

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## APPENDIX A

### Survey of Teacher Satisfaction with Evaluative Supervisory Plans

Only teachers teaching at this school during the 2010-2011 academic year are to respond to this survey. If you did not teach in this school last year, please do not complete this survey.

#### Demographic Information

Name of School District:

Name of School:

Years of teaching experience:

1-4      5-10      More than 10 years

Number of years teaching in this school:

1-4      5-10      More than 10 years

Last year, in this school, on the average, how many minutes were teachers formally observed in the classroom by a supervisor? Write the number: \_\_\_\_\_

#### Role of the Supervisor

In this section, please indicate your agreement with each statement from “Strongly Disagree” = 0 to “Strongly Agree” = 5. If the principal is not your supervisor, answer the questions for the person who does supervise you. These questions refer to last year’s supervisory experience.

1. My principal helps collect data, which I find useful to help me improve my own instruction.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
2. My principal is very useful in helping me set goals on which I can work.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
3. As a result of my principal’s questioning, I have been stimulated to analyze my own teaching.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
4. My principal asks probing questions that really make me think.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
5. My principal and I discuss the instructional strategies I use in my classroom.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree

6. My principal individually helps me improve the instruction in my class.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
7. My principal offers specific improvement suggestions during supervision.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
8. My principal encourages me to use more than one instructional strategy when I teach.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
9. My principal looks for specific things upon which we agreed.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree

### The Supervisory Process

In this section, as above, please indicate your agreement with each statement from “Strongly Disagree” = 0 to “Strongly Agree” = 5. Again, these questions refer to last year’s supervisory experience.

10. In this school, the purpose of the supervisory process is clearly communicated.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
11. In this school, the purpose of supervision is primarily for the evaluation of teacher performance.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
12. In this school, the purpose of supervision is primarily for teacher retention.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
13. In this school, the supervisory process fosters a sense of collaboration between supervisor and teacher.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
14. In this school, the supervisory process encourages teachers to participate in the supervisory process.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
15. In this school, as a result of the supervisory process used, I am satisfied with the amount of formal supervision provided.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree
16. Overall, in this school, I am satisfied with the supervisory process.  
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 Strongly Agree

## APPENDIX B

### IRB Approval

October 31, 2011

Office for Research  
Institutional Review Board for the  
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**ALABAMA**  
R E S E A R C H

Jeb Arp  
ELPTS  
College of Education  
Box 870302

Re: IRB # 11-OR-043 (Revision #2), "An Examination of Teacher Satisfaction with Types of Supervision Models"

Dear Mr. Arp:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has reviewed the revision to your previously approved expedited protocol. The board has approved the change in your protocol.

Please remember that your approval period expires one year from the date of your original approval, February 17, 2011, not the date of this revision approval.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Carpentato T. Myles, MSM, CIM  
Director & Research Compliance Officer  
Office for Research Compliance  
The University of Alabama



358 Rose Administration Building  
Box 870127  
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127  
(205) 348-8461  
FAX (205) 348-7189  
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066

## APPENDIX C

### Informed Consent Statement

#### Teacher Evaluative Supervisory Satisfactory Survey

Dear Potential Participant:

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Jeb Arp and Dr. Patricia Bauch, from The University of Alabama, College of Education, ELPTS department. I hope to learn which teacher supervision plans best satisfy teachers. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because of your school's unique supervisory plan.

If you decide to participate, you will take a short survey online at [qualtrics.com](http://qualtrics.com). The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete and will consist of 16 questions rated on a scale which ask you to rate your supervisory plan and five demographic questions. You will be participating with people from your own school district and other school districts as well. Three hundred people will participate in the survey.

There are no known risks or discomforts associated with your participation in this study. But the benefits to education include possible finding to encourage reform toward better and more satisfying evaluation methods for teachers. However, I cannot guarantee that you personally will receive any benefits from this research.

Subject identities will be kept confidential because data will be kept on a secure server. Only school wide data will appear in the research study. Data from [qualtrics.com](http://qualtrics.com) is password protected and secure. Individual data, including email addresses and names, will not be shared. Your participation is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your relationship with your school system. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [jebarp@mac.com](mailto:jebarp@mac.com), or call me at 706.802.7512, or write me at 501 E. 3<sup>rd</sup> St. Rome GA 30161. You may also contact Dr. Patricia Bauch at [pbauch@bamaed.ua.edu](mailto:pbauch@bamaed.ua.edu), or call at 205-348-1167 or write at Box 870302 Graves Hall 307B Tuscaloosa, AL 35487. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact Ms. Tanta Myles, The University of Alabama Research Compliance Officer, at 205-348-8461 or at 877-820-3066.

Completing and returning the questionnaire/survey constitutes your consent to participate and certifies that you are 19 years of age or older. Please detach this letter from the survey and keep for your records.