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# Impact of Tennessee's Value-added Assessment System on School Superintendents' Decision-making

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IMPACT OF TENNESSEE'S VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT SYSTEM ON  
SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS' DECISION-MAKING

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A Dissertation  
Presented to  
the Faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and  
Policy Analysis  
East Tennessee State University

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In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education

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by  
Kay M. Goode  
May 1996

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APPROVAL

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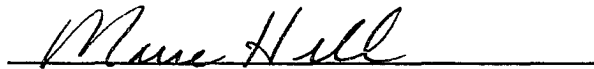
KAY M. GOODE

met on the

27th day of March, 1996.

The committee read and examined her dissertation, supervised her defense of it in an oral examination, and decided to recommend her study be submitted to the Graduate Council, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education in Educational Administration.

  
Chairman, Graduate Committee

  
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Signed on behalf of  
the Graduate Council

  
Interim Dean, School of Graduate  
Studies

## ABSTRACT

### IMPACT OF TENNESSEE'S VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT SYSTEM ON SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS' DECISION-MAKING

by

Kay M. Goode

The problem related to this study was to develop a clearer understanding of the impact of Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System (TVASS) on school superintendents' decision-making responsibilities in view of school reform efforts at both the national and state levels during the last decade. The purpose of this study was to identify relationships between three independent variables (superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perceived degree of personnel acceptance, and superintendents' perceived technical assistance availability for data analysis and interpretation of results) and superintendents' perceptions of the system on eight aspects (student learning; teacher performance; school system success; educational accountability; educational equality; assessment decisions; personnel decisions; and, curriculum and professional development decisions).

Superintendents in the 139 Tennessee school systems were surveyed using an instrument containing 51 response items. The return rate was 81% (N=112). Six research questions were answered by analyzing 24 null hypotheses using the chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B for determining strength of relationships. Hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

All null hypotheses related to superintendents' perceived degree of school personnel acceptance were rejected, with the exception of personnel decisions. All null hypotheses related to superintendents' years of experience were retained. The null hypothesis related to superintendents' perceived TVAAS technical assistance received and educational accountability was rejected. All other null hypotheses related to superintendents' perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results were retained.

Results indicated the practice of participatory leadership among Tennessee superintendents. Recommendations included further research to determine possible differences between rural and urban school systems and between elected and appointed superintendents across Tennessee.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

This is to certify that the following study has been filed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University.

Title of Project Impact of Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System on School Superintendents' Decision-Making  
IRB #95-031e

Principal Investigator Kay M. Goode

Department Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

Date Submitted August 8, 1995

Institutional Review Board, Chair David W. Walters MD



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## DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to the following:

To my parents, Thurman and Bess Goode, whose love, hard work, and determination paved the way, making possible my accomplishments;

To the rest of my family, Otis and Nancy Sue Goode, Betty Lou Cole, Dallan and Norma Jean Leishman, and Craig and Margaret Bess Martin for their love, patience, and support during this endeavor; and,

To Dwight Snodgrass, Margaret Rose, Tammie Wallen, Lori Thompson, Sandra Smith, Teresa Prince, and the Board of Directors at Clinch-Powell Educational Cooperative whose caring and understanding made finding time for both school and work a possibility.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Praise and thankfulness is offered unto God for walking with me and, frequently, carrying me through this endeavor.

This writer wishes hereby to acknowledge appreciation and gratitude to the following:

To Dr. Donn Gresso, Chairman of my advisory committee, for his expert guidance, encouragement, and compassion from the beginning to the end of my doctoral studies;

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To Dr. Thomas Oppewal, for spending much time providing expert and professional advice throughout the process; and,

To all the other faculty members and staff in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at East Tennessee State University for modeling expert educational leadership skills.

Special recognition and thanks to Dr. Earl V. Coffey, Tennessee Deputy Commissioner of Education, for his support of and commitment to the successful completion of this study.

## DISCLAIMER

This research document represents a body of data drawn from a certain point in time which is susceptible to change. Additional studies completed in the future may yield diverse results.

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CHAPTER 1  
INTRODUCTION

National, state, and local programs of assessment have taken on such importance that they dominate educational practice and school culture. Curriculum, instructional methods, and materials all dance to the uninspiring rhythms of testing programs (Monroe, 1993). Monroe reported that assessment of student achievement has been a focus of conversation, communication, and reform; it has been one of the principal means by which schools have presented themselves to their constituents. He presented two reasons for this emphasis on assessment:

First, there has not been a time in recent history when the need for accountability has been higher. The limited resources of a strained economy, the disarray of U. S. business ethics and productivity, and the movement toward a competitive world economy come together to confront the issue of whether or not the educational infrastructure of this country can meet current and future challenges.

A second reason for concern is that the challenge for schools to be accountable and to play a central role in a movement of national reaffirmation and reform

comes at a time of potentially significant growth and change for U. S. education. (p. 31)

The original idea for National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was proposed in the mid 1960s by Ralph Tyler and John Goodlad (Wolf, 1993).

These educators believed that this nation lacked vital information about how well its educational enterprise was performing. They proposed that the U. S. government collect data periodically to gather information for educational guidance. This proposal brought about debates and discussions among school administrators and other educators, from across the country, who feared federal control of education. The discussions helped clarify the idea that the national assessment was not to be a national testing program for individual students, classes, schools, districts, or states. Instead, national assessment would produce results for broad groupings such as geographic regions, gender, and race. Based on this idea, the U. S. Congress passed legislation establishing the national assessment program. (Wolf, 1993, p. 37)

An early statement of the general objectives of NAEP was:

1. The long-range emphasis in National Assessment is to be an assessment of progress in education.
2. Results of National Assessment should be understandable to the general public.
3. Results from National Assessment are to be used to describe the performance of broad population groups within well-defined educational objective areas.
4. New and different methods of collecting data are to be tried.
5. No individual participant in the National Assessment survey should be required to give more than one hour of his time. (Education Commission of the States, 1972, p. 22)

To assert that assessment results be publicly understood, NAEP, in 1969-70, adopted a development and reporting plan that emphasized student performance. Assessment of student performance has continued since then with authorization and funding coming from the U. S. Congress (Wolf, 1993).

In the 1980s, NAEP began to supply general summarizations of student performance in different subject

areas. In 1990, NAEP initiated a trial state-by-state assessment in mathematics at the eighth grade level (Wolf, 1993). The first state-by-state results of the NAEP were released in June 1991. Government officials in the U. S. Department of Education concluded that none of the states provided satisfactory information about student learning (Linn, 1993).

In response to this conclusion, Congress enacted the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, P.L. 103-227, in 1991 to shape state and local school reform. Within the Act, national education goal number three states that students will leave fourth, eighth, and 12th grades having showed competency in English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography. (Hoff, 1994, p. 1) The report also announced that the Act called for the establishment of National Standards for subject content and student performance.

This idea that the United States ought to have national standards for what students learn has emerged as one of the most widely discussed options for improving the U. S. education system (O'Neil, 1993). Standards for what students should know and be able to do have been central in federal thinking about American education, beginning in the 1980s and continuing into the 1990s (Alexander, 1993). The wrangling over what standards should be, how they should be



determined and evaluated, and who should be responsible for them has dominated recent debates about reforming America's public schools (Sizer & Rogers, 1993). Specifically, the provision for National Standards in the Goals 2000: Educate America Act of 1991 has brought about recent debates about standards and assessment in Congress. Ultimately, decisions for establishing procedures to assess the standards were left to individual states (Diegmuller, 1995).

In response to this national reform movement in education, Tennessee educational planners and policy makers took on the task of adopting an assessment program that would assess school system, school building, and teacher effects on student achievement in accordance with the National Standards. This assessment program was the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS).

Value-added assessment became a major component of Tennessee's Education Improvement Act of 1992. It is currently being phased in according to the provisions of the Act. The first value-added results were reported in April 1993. These were school district effects or average gain scores by subject in grades three through eight. Plans called for reporting school (building) effects in 1993-94 and teacher effects in 1995. (Bratton, 1993, p. 9)

Value-added assessment examines changes in students' performance over time. Students are assessed for entering competencies and reassessed following the completion of teaching, courses, or experiences. Differences between the initial and subsequent measures are then used as evidence of institutional impact (McMillan, 1988).

Two Tennessee superintendents (one rural and one urban) raised questions about the impact of the TVASS on administrative responsibilities in their respective school systems at the May 21, 1993 Tennessee Board of Education meeting (Garfrerick, 1993).

Concerns about measuring student achievement in terms of gains; limitations of standardized, norm-referenced scores; impact on program and curriculum development; integrity in test administration; impact on principals and teachers' contracts; need for teacher in-service training; lack of a support system for data analysis as a resource; poor communication between the state and local systems; and, state mandates were among the concerns presented. (p. 19)

How does the value-added assessment system impact decision-making responsibilities of Tennessee superintendents? Current literature does not reveal an

attempt to investigate this aspect of the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System.

#### Statement of the Problem

One obligation of each state is to assess the National Standards for schools, teachers, and students. National Standards describe many things students should know and be able to do, but are relatively silent on how students will show that they have met a standard (Olson, 1995). With the value-added assessment system serving as the primary basis for reporting student outcomes in Tennessee, school systems are accountable for meeting performance standards established for them by a state mandate.

According to Sizer (1993), such testing programs have aroused profound disrespect from the individuals involved. Evaluation criteria established at the state level infers that the local level is not as capable nor concerned enough to influence change and to help make decisions affecting their children.

With increasing demands for local accountability for student outcomes in education and the increasing attention given to implementation of alternative assessment procedures, it is timely to assess the impact of the state-mandated value-added assessment system on Tennessee school systems. Does the value-added assessment program

significantly impact administrative decision-making as perceived by Tennessee superintendents?

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of the value-added assessment system on administrative decision-making in public schools as perceived by Tennessee superintendents. Mitchell and Beach (1991) found, when surveying attitudes of superintendents in California, that amount of superintendency experience helped to shape superintendents' patterns of thinking regarding school restructuring including such factors as accountability, teacher professionalization, and school-based management. Bond (1993) discovered, when surveying state assessment directors in California, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, Texas, and Vermont, that teacher involvement and teacher acceptance are essential for successful student assessment programs. According to Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, and Beck (1991), provision of adequate technical assistance to school personnel is critical when any intervention is imposed that aims at increasing and assessing student competencies.

Thus, this study investigated the relationship between superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perceptions of degree of acceptance of the statistically based value-added assessment system among school personnel, and perceived technical assistance availability regarding

data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents perceptions of the system on a number of aspects. These included student learning, teacher performance, and school system success; accountability measures of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society; educational equality; norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and performance-based assessment; personnel decisions; and, curriculum and professional development decisions.

#### Research Questions

The following research questions were developed to generate responses that were analyzed and transformed into null hypotheses which served as a guide for the study

1. Do Tennessee superintendents feel the value-added assessment system provides an effective and clear measurement of student learning, teacher performance, and school system success when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

2. Do Tennessee school superintendents feel the value-added assessment system is an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of

acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

3. Does the value-added assessment system impact educational equality as perceived by Tennessee superintendents when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

4. Do Tennessee superintendents favor the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three as a basis for deciding whether state performance standards have been met when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

5. Are personnel decisions influenced by the value-added assessment system as perceived by Tennessee school superintendents when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

6. Has the value-added assessment system impacted curriculum development and professional development decisions as perceived by Tennessee superintendents when

superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

### Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance and are stated in the null form:

H<sub>01</sub>: There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

H<sub>02</sub>: There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.

H<sub>03</sub>: There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

H<sub>04</sub>: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

H<sub>0</sub>5: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.

H<sub>0</sub>6: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

H<sub>0</sub>7: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

H<sub>0</sub>8: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.



H<sub>0</sub>9: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

H<sub>0</sub>10: There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

H<sub>0</sub>11: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

H<sub>0</sub>12: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

H<sub>0</sub>13: There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

H<sub>0</sub>14: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

H<sub>0</sub>15: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

H<sub>0</sub>16: There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

H<sub>0</sub>17: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

H<sub>0</sub>18: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

H<sub>0</sub>19: There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

H<sub>0</sub>20: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

H<sub>0</sub>21: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

H<sub>0</sub>22: There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.

H<sub>0</sub>23: There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.

H<sub>0</sub>24: There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.

#### Significance of the Problem

Accountability demands; state, national, and international assessment programs; national content and performance standards; and work force requirements and global competition all contribute to increased demands for student assessment. Additionally, all have both stimulated and reflected new trends in educational measurement. The increased reliance on testing and assessment as an educational reform tool has also raised issues concerning the nature, quality, and use of tests and assessments (Linn & Gronlund, 1995).

Assessment is central to the educational reform debate, because assessment results are relied upon to document the

need for change and are seen as critical agents of reform (Petrie, 1987). National educational policy makers have used test results to argue the case of state educational inadequacy. States have imposed mandated standards on local educational systems in an attempt to comply with national expectations. Subsequently, Tennessee educational policy makers have made the Value-Added Assessment System an integral component of its school reform movement. Local educational administrators have the responsibility of ensuring compliance with state expectations.

Evaluation and testing have become the engine for implementing educational policy (Petrie, 1987). It is crucial that local administrators assure the public that schools are delivering a quality education to their children. Confidence in an educational assessment program to comprehensively, accurately, and effectively evaluate student, teacher, and school performance is important for making wise decisions leading to successful and meaningful school reform. The message delivered by Tennessee school superintendents resulting from their perceptions of the value-added assessment system in measuring the performance of students, teachers, and schools may impact local confidence in Tennessee school systems.

### Limitations

This study was limited to seeking the views of Tennessee superintendents. Views of other school system decision-makers, such as school board members, supervisors, principals, teachers, parents, and students were not investigated.

Also, this study was limited to Tennessee school systems. Generalizations from this study may be made to other states with similar demographics, operations, and organizational structures where the value-added assessment system or a similar norm-referenced assessment process is used.

### Definitions

The following definitions apply to this study:

#### Criterion-referenced test

A criterion-referenced test is used to ascertain an individual's status with respect to a defined behavioral domain. The examinee's test scores are referenced to that domain of behaviors (Popham, 1993).

#### Norm-referenced test

A norm-referenced test yields relative interpretations where an examinee's score is interpreted according to the performance of others (normative group) who have completed the same test (Popham, 1993).

### Performance-based assessment

Performance assessments provide a basis for teachers to evaluate both the effectiveness of the process or procedure used and the product resulting from performance of a task. Problem formulation, organization of ideas, integration of multiple types of evidence, and originality are all important aspects of performance that may not be adequately assessed by paper-and-pencil tests. Performance assessments are also sometimes referred to as authentic assessments or alternative assessments. Portfolio assessment can be considered one type of performance assessment (Linn & Gronlund, 1995).

### Site-based management

Site-based management allows decisions affecting the individual school to be made by people closely involved in the operation of the school. Decisions regarding personnel, budgeting, and curriculum are still being made by school boards and central office staff. Site-base management decentralizes many of the key decisions for the school site and does not necessarily require that the decisions be made jointly or by consensus (Kubick, 1988).

### Tennessee teacher evaluation

Teachers who are beginning their first year of teaching are considered probationary teachers. The State of

Tennessee requires that these teachers be evaluated in the probationary year, using the state model of evaluation. Apprentice teachers are teachers who are in their second through fourth years of teaching. Apprentice teachers must be evaluated, using the state model of evaluation, each year. Professional teachers are tenured and must be evaluated using the state model twice during a ten-year period.

#### Teacher incentive

Teacher incentive refers to any reward, beyond the regular salary, provided to Tennessee educators for significantly contributing to the advancement of student achievement.

#### Teacher tenure

Teacher tenure is a form of job security in a school system. Tennessee requires a one-year probationary period plus a four-year apprentice period. If re-hired at the beginning of the fifth year, personnel are guaranteed continued employment within the school system unless misconduct can be proven.

#### Value-added assessment

Value-added assessment is measurement that indicates the difference between scores on a test between the first and subsequent administrations (McCracken, 1994).



### Overview of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 contains an introduction, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the problem, limitations, definitions, and an overview of the study. Chapter 2 contains a review of related literature. Chapter 3 presents the methods and procedures used in the study. Chapter 4 provides the presentation and analysis of data. Chapter 5 contains the summary, conclusions, and recommendations/implications.

CHAPTER 2  
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter contains relevant literature regarding educational assessment and is divided into five major components. Section one reviews standardized assessment in general. Section two reviews international assessment and comparisons. Section three reviews national school reform and educational standards in the United States. Section four explores educational assessment in states other than Tennessee. Finally, section five reviews educational assessment in Tennessee during the past five years.

Standardized Assessment

Standardized tests are norm-referenced--that is, the performance of populations has been established and serves as a basis for interpreting a student's test performance by comparing it with other students' performances (Ornstein, 1993). Ornstein reported:

The idea of norms--especially if the norms are based on a larger population--is to compare the score of a student on a test with students from other schools. Norm-referenced tests tend to have high estimates of

reliability and validity, because the norms are based on large populations. (p. 29)

There are four basic categories of standardized (norm-referenced) tests. First, intelligence tests provide a general measure, as opposed to multiple or specific measurements. The two most commonly used intelligence tests are the Stanford-Binet (SB) and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) (Ornstein, 1993).

Achievement tests comprise the second category of standardized tests. The most common survey or general achievement tests are the Stanford Achievement Tests (grades 2 through 9) and Iowa Test of Basic Skills. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) exams are designed to measure the knowledge and skills of American students in 10 subject areas (with emphasis in arts science, math, and career development) at ages 9, 13, and 17 (Ornstein, 1993).

Many elementary and junior high school students are required to take diagnostic tests (achievement tests), usually in the basic skills and in study skills, to reveal strengths and weaknesses for purposes of placement and formulating an appropriate instructional program (Ornstein, 1993).

An increasing number of students in many school districts must pass competency tests (achievement tests) to

prove they are competent in reading, language, and math. In some cases, the tests are used as "break points" between elementary, middle level, and high school, and as a requirement for graduation from high school (National Center for Fair and Open Testing, 1992).

Subject exit tests (achievement tests) are used in a few school systems at the high school level. Students must pass tests to graduate, to receive a particular diploma, or to enroll in certain programs (National Center for Fair and Open Testing, 1992).

The third category of standardized tests is aptitude tests. Most students who wish to go to college must take aptitude tests to provide information to college admissions officers. Most students applying to college take the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) or the American College Testing Program (ACT) (Ornstein, 1993).

The fourth category of standardized tests is personality tests. Personality tests are generally used for special placement of students with learning or adjustment problems. The most commonly used personality tests are the California Test of Personality, the Pinter Personality Test, and the Thematic Apperception Test. All are intended for use from primary grades to college, and are designed to measure various social and personal adjustment areas (Ornstein, 1993).

Readiness tests (used to determine if a child is ready to enter school), screening tests (used to detect disabilities and other problems), and attitudinal and interests tests (used for occupational purposes) are standardized tests commonly used for placement and instruction (National Center for Fair and Open Testing, 1992; Ornstein, 1993).

The use of these four types of standardized tests has assumed a prominent role in recent efforts to improve the quality of education (Herman, 1990). Chambers (1993) claimed that the American public believes that an increased emphasis on standardized testing will improve instructional programs in schools. He further reported that over 70% of Americans favor using standardized tests to compare achievement of local students to those in other communities. According to Elam, Rose, and Gallup (1992), even more, 85% believe standardized tests should be used to identify areas where students need extra help.

Herman (1990) reported that educational policy makers have been using standardized tests at increasing rates because they view them as a significant, positive, and cost-effective tool. He further noted that the testing process now costs hundreds of millions of dollars and thousands of hours of administrative, teacher, and student time.

Reasons for the increased use of standardized testing are many. Following advice from testing advocates, policy makers believe that standardized testing raises the level of accountability for all involved--teachers, administrators, and state educational personnel, that standardized testing sets meaningful standards to which school systems, schools, teachers, and students can aspire; that standardized test data can help shape instruction; and that coupled with effective incentives and/or sanctions, standardized testing is a powerful engine of change. As evidence of the latter, proponents point with pride to rising test scores (Herman, 1990; Linn, Graue, & Sanders, 1990; Barton & Coley, 1994; Kane, 1994).

Based on the results of a study of the assessment of teaching practice performance, Preece (1993) recommended the use of quantitative scales of competence formed by summing ratings on separate categories that constitute competent teaching. Using qualitative profiles of performance, he concluded, jeopardizes the internal consistency reliability of the assessment.

Yet while testing is thought by many to benefit education in a variety of ways, and recent policy anoints it as a major carrier of reform and change, the validity and value of traditional standardized forms of testing are

subjects of increasing debate. For example, Grady (1992) reported:

Our students deserve to be treated like real people, not ciphers within a stanine. There are no standard kids; why should we assume that our evaluation of them should be standardized: The scores we get from norm-referenced tests are only one bit of information we can know about our students. They are valid but should not be used for purposes for which they are not suited.  
(p. 8)

Monroe (1993) considered standardized testing as a narrow focus and one-dimensional communication that often exposes children to defeat and places teachers in unrealistic situations that threaten the need for intelligent and sensitive discrimination based on the uniqueness of individual learners. The National Center for Fair and Open Testing (1992) contended that standardized tests are flawed and lead to inaccurate and inappropriate decisions for individual children. The Center also reported that many examinations are biased racially, culturally, linguistically, and by social class; therefore, test scores must not be the primary basis for decisions about learners.

Ysseldyke (1994) examined issues in gathering data for purposes of making accountability decisions for students with disabilities. He found that many children with disabilities are excluded from taking standardized tests because failure to meet set standards of performance may put the school system on academic watch and programs may be dismantled. Anderson (1991) reported that when student and teacher performance are measured by standardized tests, teachers tend to narrow their curriculum to the limited areas covered by the test and teach to specific areas of the test. According to Simmons and Resnick (1993), such practices fail to apply the same high expectations to poor, minority, and immigrant children as to the children in upscale schools, thus jeopardizing educational equality.

Chase and Durden (1992) advocated that assessment be embedded in the learning experience itself with students setting their own standards for academic progress and charting their own progress. Berlak, Newmann, Adam, Archbald, and Burgess (1994) supported this view of educational assessment with their recommendation that qualitative measures, as opposed to quantitative measures, would more accurately describe individual student progress and better lead to progress toward important educational goals.



Schnitzer (1993) reported that standardized assessment failed to promote critical and complex thinking, decision making, and experimental inquiry. Bergen (1993/94) concluded that standardized tests measure only how many bits of knowledge children can recall. Lohman (1993) agreed that standardized testing only measures the cognitive aspect of learning while basically ignoring the affective side of learning.

Since we live in a globally pluralistic environment, it is necessary to prepare students to live, learn, and work in a diverse, interdependent world (Tlou, 1993). Standardized assessment measures have been used as a basis for international comparisons of United States students' capabilities and educational attainment with students from other countries (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992). Thus, it is of interest to this study to review international assessment and comparisons.

#### International Assessment and Comparisons

The mission of America's education system should be to advance students' knowledge, skills, abilities, and values for an international world, and to match means to expected outcomes (Scott, 1993). The increased awareness of the need to compete in a global economy has stimulated ever-growing interest in international comparisons (Linn & Gronlund, 1995). As our nation undertakes the task of transforming

American education for global competitiveness, it makes sense to examine international educational assessment and comparisons.

The 1988 International Assessment of Educational Progress (IAEP) assessed mathematics and science. Extensive use of standardized tests in the IAEP allowed for good coverage of knowledge and skills which could be assessed using such test instruments (Lapointe, Mead, & Askew, 1992). Figure 1 shows the relative ranking of the United States on the 1988 IAEP test (Sandia National Laboratories, 1993).

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Math	Category	US Ranking (out of 12)
	1) Numbers & Operations	12
	2) Relations & Functions	12
	3) Geometry	11
	4) Measurement	12
	5) Data Organization	9
	6) Logic	11
Science	Category	US Ranking (out of 12)
	1) Life Sciences	9
	2) Physics	12
	3) Chemistry	10
	4) Earth, Space	9
	5) Scientific Methods	11

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Figure 1. International comparisons average proficiency - age 13

This assessment involved students in the United States, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Korea, and seven Canadian groups. United States students did not perform well in any category in this series of tests. In fact, United States students ranked last in composite math scores and ninth in composite science scores. Both of these rankings put the United States students in the lowest performance group for each test.

Sandia National Laboratories (1993) and Linn and Gronlund (1995) noted a variety of limitations that threaten the validity of international assessments of student achievement for international comparisons: differences in the selectivity of educational systems of different countries; variations in the quality of samples obtained; differences in definitions of educational levels; difficulty in agreeing on content; challenges of translation; student tracking (specialized education begins earlier in other countries); curriculum timing (single-point versus longitudinal comparisons of students' knowledge); cultural differences; aggregation of United States results (lack of insight into the performance of particular sub-populations); and, virtually no feedback to students, parents, and communities as to strengths and weaknesses of local programs.

Despite the many limitations, 1991 International Assessment of Educational Progress results, illustrated in Figure 2 and Figure 3, have attracted considerable attention (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993).

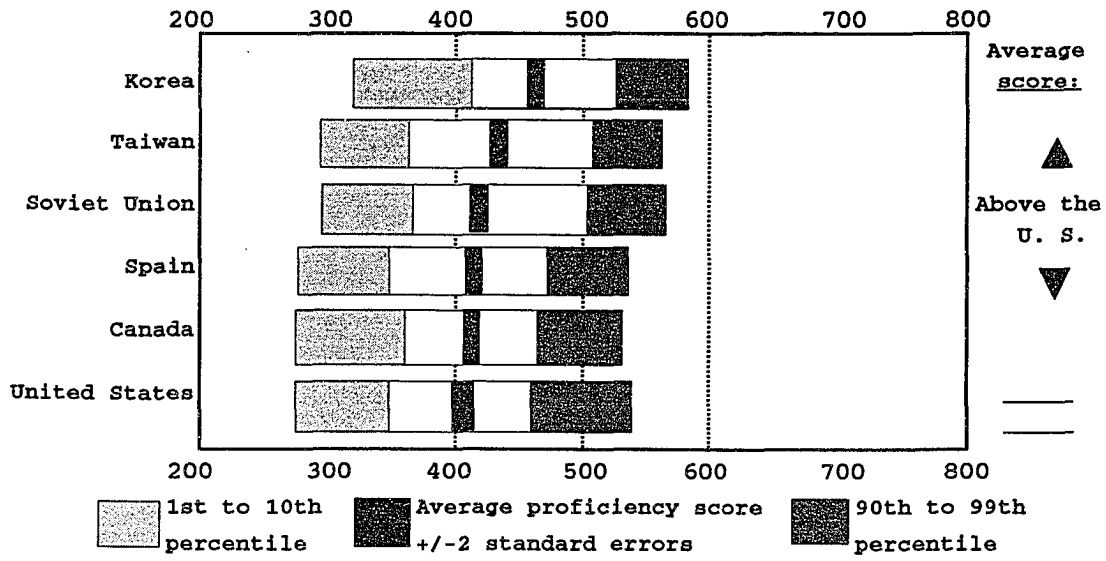


Figure 2. Distribution of proficiency scores on mathematics assessment by age 9 and country, 1991.

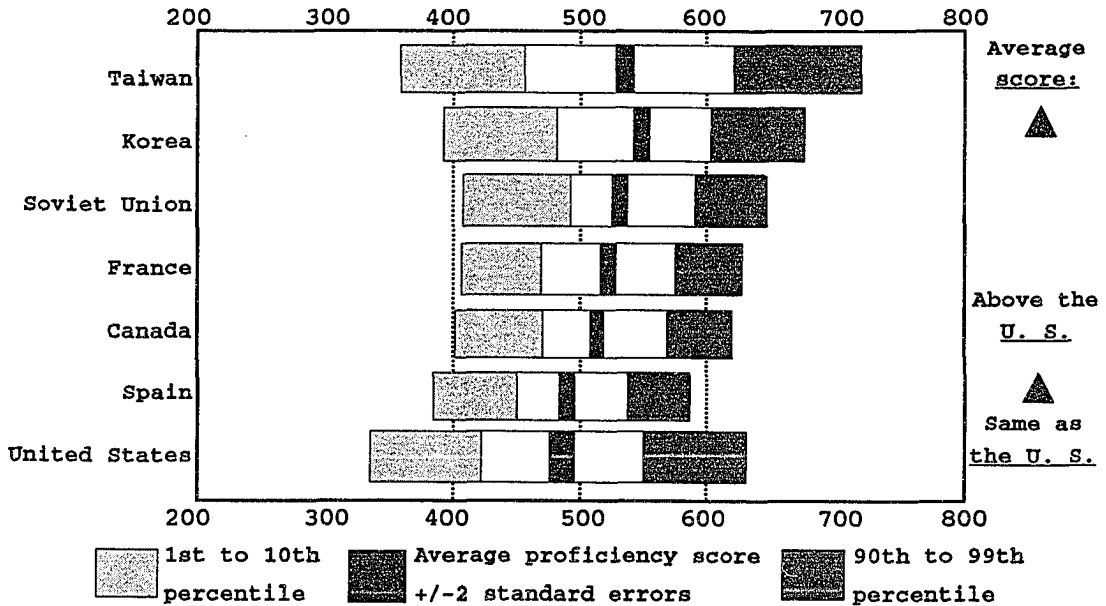


Figure 3. Distribution of proficiency scores on mathematics assessment by age 13 and country, 1991.

The scale for proficiency scores ranged from 0 - 1,000. The mean proficiency score for all participating populations, 9- and 13-year-olds together, was 500. The standard deviation was 100 (National Center for Education Statistics, 1993).

For age 9, the distribution of scores indicated the mean proficiency scores for students in Korea, Taiwan, the Soviet Union, and Spain were above the United States' students mean proficiency score. Canada's mean score was approximately the same as the United States' mean score.

For age 13, the distribution of scores indicated the mean proficiency scores for students in Taiwan, Korea, the Soviet Union, France, and Canada were above the mean proficiency score for United States' students. Mean scores for students in Spain and the United States were the same.

The relatively poor performance of United States students in comparison to their counterparts in other industrialized nations has been used repeatedly to argue that students in the United States are not doing well enough, to push for higher standards of student performance, and to make teachers, schools, and school systems highly accountable for student performance (Linn & Gronland, 1995).

According to the 1992 International Assessment of Education Progress, 15 of 18 countries surveyed have a national curriculum. Countries reporting a national

curriculum were China, Korea, Taiwan, the Soviet Union, Hungary, Italy, France, Israel, England, Scotland, Ireland, Slovenia, Spain, Portugal, and Japan. Only Canada, Switzerland, and the United States reported having no national curriculum. As determined by the Constitution, the United States maintains no extensive oversight and direction of curriculum by national authorities (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992).

In most of the IAEP countries, particularly Japan, options for upper secondary schooling depend primarily on a child's performance in lower secondary school, including examinations (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992). However, high stakes examinations administered by external authorities have been all but eliminated for students under age 16 in developed countries in Europe (Office of Technology Assessment, 1992).

Other countries put greater emphasis on examination of student performance for the purposes of graduation, placement in higher education programs and careers, and certification of mastery of skills than does the United States. National and state examinations, including exit examinations, are tied to curriculum in many other countries, conveying the idea that mastery of school subjects--not just minimum competency--is important. Public

release of student scores strongly influences students, teachers, and parents (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992).

Five IAEP countries, Canada, England, Scotland, Soviet Union, and Taiwan, agreed to participate in a study to determine the potential value of performance assessment as a supplement to standardized tests in the 1991 IAEP test (Semple, 1992). Results indicated:

Scores varied widely from task to task, suggesting that the measures tap a range of skills and knowledge; scores on the various tasks varied significantly from country to country in systematic ways, indicating real differences in performance between the various populations; and, the relative performances of countries were generally different from those identified by the written tests covering related curricular areas. This suggests that using hands-on methods of assessment allowed students to demonstrate their skills in ways that were not possible with traditional paper-and-pencil tests. (p. 6)

The United States chose not to participate, but rather to evaluate the results before agreeing to participate in an international experiment of performance assessment (Semple, 1992).



Even though the United States is one of very few developed countries without extensive oversight and direction of curriculum by the federal government, only the United States relies heavily on standardized tests, making measuring student learning in quantifiable terms an American trait (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992). American students are among the most tested in the world. Demands for accountability have led to substantial increases in the amount of testing and assessment in schools and in the importance that is attached to the scores (Linn & Gronland, 1995). The use of tests as an accountability measure assumes that learning can be reduced to definable goals and outcomes (Grady, 1992).

Resultant of federal concern about educational accountability and students' preparedness for global competitiveness, a major movement to reform America's school systems emerged. A review of efforts toward national school reform in the United States is pertinent to this study.

#### National School Reform and Educational Standards in the United States

Since intelligence tests were used in the military during World War I, schools followed suit by using standardized tests to assess students. By the 1930s, millions of tests were being sold to schools annually, and

their use has increased steadily (Grady, 1992). Grady reported further that

the Sputnik-induced reforms in the 1950s called for more testing, as did the reforms in the 1960s. The wave of reforms in the past two decades has resulted in minimum competency tests administered in 42 states as graduation prerequisites. National exams became the crux of the Education 2000 plan proposed by President George Bush in 1991. (p. 1)

A Nation At Risk report, delivered by the National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1983, began a great debate about the quality and equality of public education in the United States (Futrell, 1989; McClellan, 1994). This report, coupled with concerns over IAEP results prompted, in 1989, President George Bush and the nation's governors to establish six national education goals for the year 2000 (Office of Policy and Planning, 1992).

President Bill Clinton supported this effort by giving high priority to establishing tough standards during his campaign (Alexander, 1993).

In 1994, Congress passed the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, P. L. 103-227. The law added new goals for

teacher development and parent involvement, and refined the original six (Hoff, 1994). The goals state:

Children will enter school ready to learn.

The high school graduation rate will be 90 percent.

Students will leave fourth, eighth, and 12th grades having showed competency in English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography.

Teachers will have the professional development they need to help students reach the other goals.

American students will be first in the world in math and science achievement.

Every adult will be literate and have the skills to compete in the global economy and participate in American democracy.

Schools will be free of drugs, violence, unauthorized guns, and alcohol.

Schools will promote partnerships with parents to increase their participation in their child's education. (p. 1)

America 2000 was proposed as a national, as opposed to a federal, strategy (Delattre, 1992). It was

to be implemented by elements that make up the nation: individual parents and community members, school teachers and officials, schools and communities, private corporations, private foundations, social service agencies, local and state governments, professional associations and councils, and students themselves. (p. 3)

The strategy was rooted in the conviction that "in the absence of well-defined and demanding standards, education in the United States has gravitated toward minimum expectations, with curricula focusing on low-level reading and arithmetic skills and on small amounts of factual material in other content areas." (National Council on Education Standards and Testing, 1992, p. 2)

The U. S. Department of Education supported projects to develop national standards in the subjects of science, history, the arts, civics, geography, and English (Alexander, 1993). Three different types of standards, as included in the New Standards Project, were described by O'Neil (1993). These were:

Content standards (narrative descriptions of desired outcomes in various subject areas--the types of things represented in curriculum frameworks); performance

standards (results of defining and providing concrete examples of the level and quality of performance students must exhibit to show mastery of a particular area); and, school delivery standards (indicators of whether a school has the resources--a challenging curriculum and qualified teachers--necessary to enable students to meet the performance standards). (p. 19)

Content standards will be internationally benchmarked and derived with broad public involvement (Simmons & Resnick, 1993). According to Simmons and Resnick,

international benchmarks are derived from other countries' examinations, official curriculum guides, widely used texts, and new curriculums. The process for benchmarking will establish what each country's goals and outcomes are, not how each performs on a common denominator set of test items. The analyses will go beyond exams to the curriculum and textbooks that are currently in use in other countries and to actual student work in classroom settings. (p. 12)

Unlike traditional multiple-choice tests, performance standards require individuals to engage in tasks that mirror the conditions under which a particular competence is

performed. Such tasks and projects will be the centerpiece of the New Standards Project's assessment system (Simmons & Resnick, 1993).

The debate over educational reform, educational equality, and national standards frequently revolves around questions of assessment, both standardized and authentic (Schlechty & Cole, 1992; Darling-Hammond, 1993; Diegmueller, 1995; Olson, 1995).

Leaders of the New Standards Project believed that national standards and more powerful assessments linked to those standards would spur positive change toward equality in American education (O'Neil, 1993). The New Standards Project envisioned a new generation of student assessments that require performance tasks instead of multiple-guess items (Trotter, 1991). Once a standard is assigned a number, it can be applied to those forms of performance or products for which there is a fixed correct answer (Eisner, 1993). For example,

standards can be applied to spelling, arithmetic, punctuation, and grammatical usage. However, when work that displays ingenuity, complexity, and the student's intelligent judgment is sought, judgment in criteria selection to appraise their value must also be exercised. (p. 23)

According to Hoffman and Stage (1993), national standards should be used as criteria by which judgments can be made. The actual judgments about what students should know and how achievement will be measured should fall to the states, with input from local school systems. This view is supported by research conducted by D'Amico and Corcoran, 1985. Findings revealed superintendents from New Jersey and Pennsylvania overwhelmingly felt that standards and state standardized-testing programs must be congruent with local needs and expectations, be accepted by local personnel, and be accompanied with adequate technical assistance and professional development.

Since 1989, every state in the United States has mandated some type of standardized testing (Stewart & Ross, 1994). However, recently some states have initiated authentic assessment strategies. A review of current educational standards and assessment programs in states other than Tennessee follows.

#### Educational Assessment in States Other Than Tennessee

Standardized achievement tests have long been used by schools to report student achievement to parents, policy makers, and the general public. In recent years, however, the attention given to test scores has increased dramatically (Linn, Graue, & Sanders, 1990). They reported:

Low-stakes testing programs with results returned to teachers and reported in low-key fashion to school boards and interested parents have given way to high-stakes testing programs that have direct and important effects on students, teachers, and school administrators. The increased emphasis on the use of test results for purposes of accountability has made questions of test quality and the trustworthiness of interpretations of major concern to educators and policy makers. (p. 2)

This high-stakes testing issue was promoted nationally in 1993 when a subcommittee of the National Goals Panel published the report, "Promises to Keep: Creating High Standards for American Students." In this report, the committee described several purposes for an assessment system, which included: improving classroom instruction and learning outcomes for all students; measuring and holding students, schools, school districts, states, and the Nation accountable for educational performance; and, assisting education policy makers with programmatic decisions (Banks, 1994).

This national emphasis on assessment has prompted states to mandate tests as tools of both reform and



accountability with local school systems caught in the middle of conflicts between state policy makers and educators (Banks, 1994). Brown (1993) surveyed educators, including administrators, in Tennessee, Illinois, and New York to determine their perceptions of state-mandated testing and found they did not view mandated testing as an accurate measure of accountability.

Respondents indicated confusion about the purposes of state testing; perceived themselves as powerless to influence state testing policy; questioned the effectiveness of tests in evaluating assessment; believed that test results were used to compare school systems; and expressed concern that scores were overemphasized. (Brown, 1993, p. 17)

Such conflicts have, in turn, prompted research studies of educational assessment programs in several states. Results of studies on the impact of state-mandated assessment programs on local school systems in Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, Kentucky, Vermont, Connecticut, and California show that the purposes of local assessments, in many cases, differ from the purposes of externally mandated assessments.

In response to the Nation at Risk report, Georgia passed the Quality Basic Education Act of 1985. It was designed to deliver more generous financing in return for greater teacher accountability and student assessment. Legislators were adamant that Georgia students be tested on their knowledge of mandated curriculum using both and be measured against national norms (Massell, Fuhrman, Kirst, Odden, Wohlstetter, & Carver, 1994).

Elmore (1991) studied the student assessment program in Georgia. He concluded that reform legislation in Georgia has increased the stakes in testing, putting teachers and administrators under great pressure to demonstrate high student scores. He found that using the assessment program as a method to hold local educators accountable resulted in much class time spent teaching for the test. Some teachers felt their jobs depended on the standardized scores of their students, regardless of the background and abilities of the pupils. Rankings of districts and evaluations of teachers using standardized scores alone proved to be an ineffective practice. Elmore provided three recommendations: that state leadership in Georgia encourage the development of authentic assessments to use along with standardized measures; that professional development be implemented to increase teachers' understanding of measurement techniques; and, that both educators and citizens work to develop more

effective ways to evaluate student performance in Georgia schools.

In 1991, the Georgia General Assembly voted to reduce the amount of time dedicated to standardized testing, going beyond minimum skills and emphasizing higher order thinking skills. Tests were not to be designed to produce results for individual students, but to allow for comparisons of schools, districts, and the state as a whole. The state department of education no longer has a tool for holding administrators and teachers accountable (Massell, Fuhrman, Kirst, Odden, Wohlstetter, & Carver, 1994).

North Carolina's School Improvement and Accountability Act of 1989 mandated a battery of national and statewide standardized tests (using national norms to interpret scores) be administered annually to students in grades 3, 6, and 8 to measure reading, language, mathematics, science, and social studies skills (North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1992). In addition, a primary component of the Act provided for teacher incentives in the form of increased teacher salaries for improved student performance (Holdzkom & Kuligowski, 1993).

Holdzkom and Kuligowski (1993) surveyed educational reform policy in North Carolina and found that educators frequently complained that the ability to educate children was seriously hindered by laws and regulations emanating

from the state. Thus, through the granting of waivers, laws and regulations that were perceived to hamper local efforts to educate children were largely set aside. Holdzkom and Kuligowski concluded that North Carolina's reform efforts proved to be ineffective because they were based on the mistaken assumption that the use of teacher incentives in the form of increased teacher salaries would result in improved student performance.

In 1992, the Virginia State Department of Education supported an initiative to assist teachers in changing classroom assessments that would enable students "to actively accomplish complex and significant tasks, while bringing to bear prior knowledge, recent learning, and relevant skills to solve realistic or authentic problems." (Hange & Rolfe, 1994, p. 2) This effort sought to make a change from traditional standardized testing to more authentic forms of assessment that were teacher developed. State educational leaders felt teacher development of authentic assessments would more closely align assessment with curriculum and instructional goals, thus improving instruction and assistance to learners (Hange & Rolfe, 1994).

A survey revealed that Virginia teachers felt they were more able to meet student needs by addressing various learning styles through alternative assessments. However,

it was also revealed that success is largely dependent on administrative support for resource acquisition, planning time, and parent understanding and acceptance (Hange & Rolfe, 1994).

Kolls (1994) explored trends in performance assessments across the states of California and Connecticut through the development, administration, and analysis of an interstate survey. The two states represented the diversity of state-mandated testing programs relative to emphasis placed on performance assessment.

In 1991, the state legislature and governor mandated the development of the performance-based California Learning Assessment System (CLAS). Its aim included the following:

To provide useful and reliable information on individual students; build on the common statewide standards of student performance; feature authentic performance-based assessments that challenge students to think; provide better coordination between local and state assessment programs; be compatible with existing national and international assessments; and, promote equal opportunity for students to develop and demonstrate their skills and abilities. (Kolls, 1994, p. 3)

Developed by teams of elementary and secondary teachers, curriculum specialists, administrators, testing experts, university professors, and representatives from California's subject matter projects, CLAS has two major components. The first was introduced statewide in 1993 and included annual assessments in reading, writing, and mathematics at grades 4, 8, and 10. Annual assessments in history and science at grades 5, 8, and 10 began in 1994. The second component, yet to be developed and implemented, will be the portfolio type assessment for the same grades and subjects (Kolls, 1994).

Results of the Kolls (1994) survey indicated that a majority of administrators preferred performance-based assessments over standardized tests, parent involvement increased significantly with the use of performance-based assessments, quality of instruction improved as a result of the closer link between assessment and instruction, and the focus on staff development increased. Problems with logistics, political interest groups, and lack of funding were reported as possible threats to the new assessment system.

Roberts (1991) interviewed California superintendents to find how they perceived their leadership role in educational assessment and accountability.

She discovered the superintendents believed that assessment procedures must be an integral part of the curriculum, and that student performance assessment must be developed by teachers as a part of their curriculum development endeavors. Also, superintendents felt the use of symbolic leadership greatly impacts the creation of values, priorities, and beliefs among personnel. (p. 13)

This preference for the decentralization of educational mandates was also found among Massachusetts superintendents in a study co-sponsored by the Massachusetts Association of School Superintendents and the Massachusetts State Department of Education, 1990. Four issues--communication, decision-making, finances, and accountability--were investigated within the realm of perceived school leadership roles and school management responsibilities. The superintendents supported:

1. The superintendent as a communicator and vision-builder, modeling shared decision-making.
2. The superintendent as open-minded, trusting, and non-threatened by local control of school money and finances so that program development, budget making, and program management can be aligned;

3. The superintendent as a safeguard of accountability through an open and participatory process; and,
4. The superintendent as a strategic planner that promotes accountability based on results rather than on adherence to rules. (pp. 9, 20, 23, 27)

Such school reform efforts, particularly assessment reform, requires teacher involvement and support (Bond, 1993).

Mitchell and Beach (1991) added to this information base by interviewing California superintendents.

They found that two contextual factors influenced superintendents' attitudes toward such issues as accountability, performance improvement, and management procedures. Superintendents' years of experience and perceptions of staff and community groups, emanated to the superintendents, interacted strongly in shaping superintendents' feelings and beliefs. (p. 33)

Since 1978, the Connecticut state-mandated assessment programs have undergone three revisions. The original Connecticut Statewide Basic Skills Proficiency Test administered to all ninth graders became the Connecticut Mastery Test (CMT), administered in grades 4, 6, and 8,



beginning in 1984. By 1993, the Second Generation of the CMT was implemented to establish high performance standards for all students, assure that students could apply their academic skills to realistic problems, promote better instruction and curriculum, and provide timely reports of student strengths (Kolls, 1994).

The Kolls survey indicated that performance-based assessment in Connecticut has promoted professional development among administrators as well as teachers and increased parental involvement. The survey also revealed a possible threat to success: the lack of systematic collection of information relative to changes in student achievement that may be attributable to increased emphasis on performance assessments.

Vermont's attempt to implement a traditional, standardized test in 1989 was so criticized by educators that the state dropped the plan. Presently, Vermont is the only state in which portfolios are the backbone of assessment. Assessment of writing and mathematics is solely based on portfolios. The state's goal is to integrate its assessment system into everyday instruction and let teachers tailor assessment to classroom instruction. Changes in curriculum, instruction, and assessment are expected to occur in concert (Bond, 1993). The program is deliberately designed not to include high-stakes consequences (Moody,

1991). Development of a strategic planning approach, development of personnel support, and provision of technical assistance are critical elements for successful implementation (Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, & Beck, 1991; Bond, 1993).

Results of a survey of Vermont teachers relative to implementation and impact of portfolio assessment indicate a general support; however, some concerns were revealed: time burden, external evaluation, imbalance between local flexibility and standardization of implementation, and validity of inferences drawn from the scores (Stecher & Hamilton, 1994). Low reliability of portfolio scores has been a statewide concern, especially for writing, and has raised further questions about validity (Koretz, Klein, McCaffrey, & Stecher, 1994). Teacher training and administrative support are essential for positive results (Kahl, 1992).

Considering traditional standardized tests of basic skills no longer meaningful to instructional quality, the 1991 Kentucky Education Reform Act created a high-stakes school performance accountability system (Moody, 1991; Oldham, 1993). Holding schools individually accountable, results of student performance assessment weigh heavily on which schools get financial rewards and which schools receive sanctions (Petrosko, 1993).

According to Murphy (1994), superintendents' roles in Kentucky are changing with the implementation of performance-based assessment. For example, the focus of school leadership and management has shifted from the district level to the school level. Kannapel, Moore, Coe, and Aagaard (1994) found that Kentucky policy makers have established an effective mechanism (performance-based assessment) for site-based management that promotes desired educational change. Superintendent support and encouragement were found to be crucial elements in successfully implementing performance-based assessment.

Concerns by Kentucky superintendents over statewide educational changes included: problems with time management; increased pressure and stress with added accountability demands; increased work load; reduced authority and respect; and, anti-administration feeling statewide (Murphy, 1994).

Berlak, Newmann, Adam, Archbald, and Burgess (1994) suggested that competence, values, and interests are inseparable when building a measurement paradigm that leads to progress toward educational goals. They provided three classes of assessment approaches. The first was authentic tests of discrete competencies intended to yield quantitative measures to describe individual student progress. The second was the use of exhibitions and the

third was the use of portfolios and profiles. This model, they advocated, focuses on collecting a comprehensive record of individual student achievement. Simmons and Resnick (1993), agreed that performance standards must incorporate specified skills, strategies, and knowledge. They also advocated portfolios as an extended information collection means for assessing student performance.

Perrone (1994) reported that the move toward authentic assessment, performance assessment, and portfolios must include serious reappraisal of the instructional program, the organizational structures, and the purposes that guide curriculum. Perrone cautioned:

If coverage is the goal, performance tasks are too limited. If snippets of knowledge dominate the day-to-day activities rather than longer-term projects that produce real works, portfolios become folders of unmanageable paper. If students are not regularly writing across a variety of topics and in a variety of styles for diverse purpose, then promoting self-evaluation has limited value. (p. 13)

Over half the states and a substantial majority of school districts rely on off-the-shelf, standardized achievement tests, for which national norms provide the

primary basis of interpretation (Linn, Graue, & Sanders, 1990).

Norms are not the only basis of test score interpretation. Some states also rely on criterion-referenced interpretations (Lang, Teddlie, & Oescher, 1992). They suggested that trends in the proportion of students passing a minimum-competency test, the proportion of students mastering specific objectives, or the average number of objectives mastered provide means of comparing the current year's achievement with benchmarks.

California, Florida, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Utah are among states where only criterion-referenced tests are used statewide. Georgia, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Oregon, and South Carolina are among states that use both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests (Nelson & Rose, 1989; Lang, Teddlie, & Oescher, 1992; Garrett, 1993).

A group of Texas superintendents met to determine the limits of accountability and how schools should be assessed (Center for Educational Leadership, 1993).

The superintendents proposed a value-added approach for measuring the school's contribution to student learning. The superintendents believed productivity should be measured by a school's contribution to student learning, and not an absolute level of student

learning. The state should hold schools accountable for adding value to the human capital that students accumulate in the areas of academic development, adult socialization, and character development. (p. 7)

Levine and Lezotte (1990) supported the use of both norm-referenced and criterion-references modes of testing. They cited norm-referenced tests as the only available indicator of a school's comparative performance, but noted that norm-referenced tests have the potential to provide a misleading view of local achievement where such instruments do not match curricula. Nitko (1984) explained that norm-referenced tests were useful when the needed information pertains to relative ability or relative attainment and that criterion-referenced tests were useful when the needed information pertains to a repertoire of knowledge and/or skills. Berk (1984) noted that the two modes used together provide a more complete understanding of an individual or school.

Burnstein (1990) recommended that when using norm-referenced tests as the comprehensive testing program,

accurately describe the norm group and tests administered in all documents; fully describe all systematic exclusions of students from the tested

group; fully describe test administration and security procedures; report performance according to "annual user norms" to discourage the practice of comparison to dated norms; renorm tests frequently (annually or biannually) and report performance only with respect to "new norm" data; use multiple commercial tests administered randomly throughout the year to reduce the "benefits" of teaching to a specific test; and, develop multiple alternative forms and administer alternative forms randomly throughout schools and districts each year. (pp. 1-2)

The Constitution of the United States left the governance of education primarily to the discretion of the states. Even though national norms are maintained, the review of educational assessment programs in states other than Tennessee revealed that many states' assessment programs are developed with special attention directed toward using performance-based assessments as benchmarks for achievement rather than using standardized test scores.

Of specific relevance to this study is a review of Tennessee's educational assessment initiatives and norming procedures during the past five years, particularly the value-added assessment system.

Tennessee Educational Assessment During the Past  
Five Years

For the 1988-89 school year, the Tennessee State Department of Education reported student achievement based on student scores on four tests. First, the Basic Skills First Assessment measured how well students had mastered essential reading and mathematical skills, showing average percent mastered by students in individual schools. Percent scores were reported in reading and mathematics for grades 3, 6, and 8. Second, the Stanford Achievement Test showed how well students performed when compared to students at the same grade nationwide. Stanine scores (based on individual norms rather than group norms) were reported for reading, mathematics, spelling, language, environment, science, listening, and social science for grades 2, 5, and 7 with social science for grades 5 and 7 only. Third, the Stanford Test of Academic Skills--Task 2 was reported as stanine scores (based on individual norms rather than group norms) for reading, mathematics, English, science and social science for grades 9 and 12. Fourth, the Tennessee Proficiency Test, a criterion-referenced test, measured minimum skills based on 50 objectives in mathematics and language arts. Percentage of students passing were reported. Students were mandated to achieve a passing score of 70% correct on both mathematics and language arts tests in order to fulfill one of the requirements for receiving a



regular diploma. Students were required to take the test for the first time in the 9th grade with unlimited opportunities to retake and pass any proficiency subtest through grade 12 (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1990).

The Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) was first administered in the spring of the 1989-90 school year (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1991). On the Commissioner's Report Card 1989-90, the State Department of Education stated:

As the new student testing program, TCAP mandates a customized norm-referenced and criterion-referenced test for grades 2 through 8, a norm-referenced test for grade 10, and the Tennessee Proficiency Test. The customized test will allow each teacher to assess progress of students during the school year with a minimum amount of testing time. The program will generate consistent types of test scores from grade to grade. The norm-referenced data will allow longitudinal studies of individual school, system, and state growth in order to evaluate and improve programs and curricula. The criterion-referenced data will report the mastery, partial mastery, and non-mastery of tested domains for each school year. Although the

objectives for the Tennessee Proficiency Test have been updated, rules and regulations governing the test will remain the same. (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1991, p. 2)

Beginning with the 1990-91 school year, the Tennessee State Department of Education stated on the Commissioner's Report Card 1990-91:

TCAP was a customized achievement test administered in grades 2 through 8 combining a norm-referenced component with a criterion-referenced component. The criterion-referenced scores can be used diagnostically to determine how well students have mastered language arts and mathematics domains at each grade level. The norm-referenced portion administered in grades 2 through 8 and grade 10 consists of the CTBS/4, a nationally normed test developed and published by CTB MacMillan/McGraw-Hill. Comparison of achievement of Tennessee students with students from other states is an important reference point by which to evaluate performance. (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1992, p. 2)

The State's report cards for 1991-92 and 1992-93 reported three categories of student scores. First, TCAP scores were reported as stanine scores in reading, language, mathematics, science, and social studies for grades 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10. Supplement to the TCAP scores was a TCAP Stanine Chart showing system and state averages as compared to the national average. Second, a TCAP Longitudinal Chart reported median national percentiles in second year terms. Third, for the first time, results of the Tennessee Proficiency Test represented a combination of those 9th graders who met the proficiency requirement from either the Tennessee Proficiency Test screening on the 1989-90 and 1990-91 grade 8 TCAP respectively or by passing scores on the spring 1990-91 and 1991-92 Tennessee Proficiency Test subtests respectively (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1992; Tennessee State Department of Education 1993a).

The Tennessee State Department of Education reported that Tennessee students, during the four years tested (1990, 1991, 1992, and 1993) had scored at or above the 50th percentile on 90% of the nationally normed subtests incorporated into the TCAP tests (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1993b). Scores were presented in median national percentiles for the total battery of the TCAP achievement test.

During its 1992 session, the Tennessee General Assembly passed the Tennessee Education Improvement Act (Greeson, 1993). The Act focused on

changing the structure of school system administration over a period of time by requiring boards of education to be elected by popular vote, superintendents to be appointed by elected boards, and drastically increasing the power of appointed superintendents. (p. 13)

According to Bratton (1993), value-added assessment was a major component of Tennessee's Education Improvement Act of 1992 and is currently being phased in according to the provisions of the Act.

Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System is a process that analyzes student achievement as measured by standardized (TCAP) tests. It provides a different way to look at average test scores for teachers, school administrators, schools, and school systems. Value-added, when applied to student learning, describes intentional learning that has occurred (the value added) between a beginning point and some later time. (Bratton, 1993, p. 9)

According to McCracken (1994), a system of value-added guarantees stability to school operation and provides a system for measuring the success of that operation. Value-added systems provide school officials with statistics that indicate if they are performing their assigned jobs well.

Value-added assessment provides a way to evaluate student performance over time; whereby, needed changes in the broad scope of the school, rather than change in small elements, can be determined more effectively (Bauch, 1993). McMillan (1988) advocated value-added as a longitudinal assessment model that enables evaluation of whether or not change is lasting.

Other proponents of value-added assessment applauded it for encouraging school reform, orchestrating the role of performance evaluation, promoting professional development, encouraging leadership toward accountability, promoting national competitiveness among students, allowing comparisons of educational programs to national norms, and providing comprehensive collection, analysis, and dissemination of information about student outcomes and teacher and school effectiveness (Osigweh, 1986; McClain, 1987; McClain, 1991; Smith, 1991; Miller, 1992).

Williford (1991) studied the use of student involvement as an added element to value-added outcomes assessment. He concluded that the overall pattern of change must be studied

with an approach that controls for systematic bias and student differences.

Pickering and Bowers (1990) recommended that standardized tests not be used to assess value-added outcomes, particularly unique skills and knowledge gained by students. They reported that once a standardized instrument is chosen to measure student achievement, educational goals are then determined by the testing organization.

Authentic assessment in Tennessee that centers on unique skills and knowledge gained by students is limited to the statewide Tennessee Writing Assessment administered on an optional basis in grades 4, 8, and 11. The assessment was mandated in 1995 (Simon & Gregg, 1993).

The writing assessments are scored holistically on a scale of 1 to 6 by professional scorers. A score of 6 indicates the paper addresses the topic; is focused, coherent, and organized; backs general statements with specific examples; has a sense of audience; uses age-appropriate and varied language; and contains few grammatical errors. Fourth graders write in a descriptive mode, eighth graders in an expository mode, and eleventh graders in a persuasive mode. Teachers and schools are urged to use results to modify

instruction and to document the need for remedial summer writing programs. (p. 6)

Since the Tennessee Writing Assessment is not presently mandatory, the value-added assessment system does not take into account results of the authentic writing assessments.

The real value of student value-added assessment has been questioned by Tennessee educators. Garfrerick (1993) reported on the May 21, 1993 Tennessee Board of Education meeting where Dr. Mike Simmons, superintendent of the Johnson City Schools recognized four limitations in the state testing program: standardized, norm-referenced scores are reported in infrequent setting of test norms (every five to 10 years); insecure, threatened teachers teach to the test; teacher paranoia leads to transfer requests, obscuring multi-year data; and, significant gains made by those scoring in an extremely low percentile obscure realistic overall system gains. Dr. Simmons, on the other hand, hailed the state testing program as a data source for assisting educators in program and curriculum development.

Bratton (1993) saw four reasons why educators questioned the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System:

There is always resistance to change; there is a problem of getting accurate information disseminated;

some educators believe standardized tests are unreliable and invalid and not a comprehensive measure of student achievement; and, most educators are not familiar with the complex statistical procedures of value-added assessment. (p. 9)

Beginning with the 1993-94 school year, student scores were reported in terms of goals and standards on the Tennessee 21st Century Report Card (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1994). The State Department of Education stated:

Setting goals for education and measuring the annual progress toward these goals help to determine how well students, schools, and local school systems are doing. These goals were recommended by the Tennessee Department of Education and approved by the State Board of Education on July 31, 1992. Goals for the five performance indicators must be met by local school systems by the year 2000. (p. 2)

Performance indicators and 2000 goal percentages reported on the 21st Century Report Card 1993-94 were as follows: student attendance (95% for grades K through 6 and 93% for grades 7 through 12); promotion rate (97%);



proficiency rate (90%); dropout rate (10%); and, value-added assessment (100% for mathematics, reading, language arts, social studies, and science). Value-added assessment was reported as cumulative gains for grades 3 through 8 and expressed as a percent of the national norm gain, representing the average of the most current three years (Tennessee State Department of Education, 1994).

Bobbett, French, Achilles, and McNamara (1992) investigated Tennessee Report Cards as to their effectiveness in helping state policy makers and school administrators make decisions for school improvement. They concluded:

If the purpose of the Tennessee Report Card is simply to report the status of a community's schools and selected factors generally associated with them, the current report card does that reasonably well. If the purpose is to provide citizens, parents, educators, and policy makers meaningful information upon which to make decisions for improvement, much is lacking. At least 50 percent of what influences student performance has not been reported. This can provide serious impediments to school improvement, if education leaders focus entirely on what is now being reported as the

primary sources of improvement in student performance.  
(p. 26)

In a recent study by Jaeger, Gorney, and Johnson, (1994), both board chairpersons and superintendents in Greensboro, North Carolina and Sacramento, California overwhelmingly preferred report cards that displayed more than just standardized scores on student performance. Comprehensive criteria included standardized testing, student engagement, school success, school environment, staffing and characteristics of teachers, programmatic offerings, school facilities, student services, background characteristics of students, school finances, and school management procedures.

Some educators were concerned that Tennessee value-added assessment measures would fall on the neck of teachers whose students failed to gain (Bratton, 1993). According to Preece (1993), assessment of teaching practice performance should include a broad range of skills, going beyond student progress: management and teaching skills (including student's progress); personal and professional qualities; and, evaluation skills. He suggested that quantitative scales of competence formed by summing ratings on the separate categories be used to measure teaching competence.

The Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System provides a uniform assessment model for the entire state (Bratton, 1993). Wilcox, Gray, and Tranmer (1993) believed that given the cultural and attitudinal differences spanning local education agencies, uniform assessment processes are unrealistic and eventually will be rejected to the point of ineffectiveness.

Success of the value-added assessment system in Tennessee depends, in part, upon the willingness of administrators to become knowledgeable of this data analysis assessment process before they prematurely reject its implementation (Bratton, 1993). This study investigated the impact of value-added assessment on administrative decision making in public school systems as perceived by Tennessee superintendents.

#### Summary

The national school reform movement experienced by the United States for the past two decades was inspired by federal concern that American students were falling behind other countries in academic performance. With the age of information and global competitiveness as an ever present reminder of the importance that the United States stay abreast of international educational movements, an international comparisons was initiated and did in fact

reveal that American students were behind in mathematics and science.

This revelation set the course for establishing national standards for what students should know and be able to do. In compliance with the constitutional provision that control of education be left to the states, states were charged with developing standards, in accordance with the national standards, and developing assessment procedures for measuring student achievement of established expectations.

Standardized testing is the primary form of student evaluation in the United States. Yet, when reviewing the educational systems in other countries, few relied heavily on standardized testing for evaluating student performance. However, the review also revealed that the United States was among a very few countries that did not practice federal control over education.

As states struggle to adequately reform schools, various alternatives to standardized assessments of comprehensive student assessment have emerged with various labels: performance-based assessment, authentic assessment, and portfolio assessment. Both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing are used extensively throughout the United States. Many states continue to use national norms as the basis of score interpretation.

In response to the national school reform movement, Tennessee adopted the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP), a standardized testing program, that is mandated in all school systems throughout the state. Administration of the TCAP began in 1990. Based on results of the TCAP, the Tennessee State Department of Education compares student performance in Tennessee with national norms annually.

The Tennessee Education Improvement Act of 1991 provided for Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS). This system analyzes student achievement as measured by standardized (TCAP) tests. It provides a statistical way to look at average test scores for teachers, school administrators, schools, and school systems. Value-added, when applied to student learning, describes intentional learning that has occurred (the value added) between a beginning point and some later time.

Two Tennessee superintendents expressed concern at a state school board meeting about their perceived limitations of the state's assessment program. Confidence in an educational assessment program to comprehensively, accurately, and effectively evaluate student, teacher, and school performance is important for making wise decisions leading to successful and meaningful school reform.

To establish a broad knowledge base, this literature review explored educational assessment from a wide prospective, beginning with standardized assessment in general and continuing with a review of educational assessment internationally, nationally, in states other than Tennessee, and in Tennessee for the past five years. A variety of conclusions and convictions as to what incorporates a comprehensive and effective assessment program was revealed. However, no research was available relative to Tennessee superintendents' perceptions of the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System and its impact on their responsibilities as educational leaders.

CHAPTER 3  
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of value-added assessment on administrative decision-making in public schools as perceived by Tennessee superintendents. To develop a foundation for the study, a review of literature was conducted at East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee and the Tennessee State Department of Education, Johnson City, Tennessee.

The methods and procedures outlined in the study are described in this chapter. The research methodology and design, the population, and the instrument are discussed, along with the method of gathering data and the plan for data analysis.

Results of this study will provide data that will allow perceptions to be described statistically (Haywood, 1992).

Research Methodology and Design

The data collection instrument was a survey. The survey was designed to obtain data relevant to the study.

Survey research is a distinctive research methodology that owes much of its recent development to the field of sociology. Considered as a method of systematic

data collection, though, the survey has a long historical tradition. As far back as the time of ancient Egyptians, population counts and surveys of crop production were conducted for various purposes, including taxation. (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 416)

A wide range of educational problems can be investigated in survey research. Local school districts use surveys to explore and evaluate buildings, administrative procedures, financial support and procedures, teaching staff, learning objectives, curriculum, and teaching methods (Borg & Gall, 1989). Borg and Gall also stated that "surveys can be used to explore relationships between two or more variables. The possibilities for investigating relationships in survey data will make a more substantial research contribution than limiting data analysis to single variable descriptions." (p. 419)

#### Population

There are 139 school districts in Tennessee. Each district has a superintendent who is either elected or appointed. The total population of school superintendents was used for the study. The same survey was sent to each superintendent. By the year 2000, all school districts in Tennessee will have appointed superintendents, with the title changed to director. Some local governments have



already adopted this procedure. However, since this is not currently mandated across the state, the Tennessee Department of Education maintains the title superintendent in its directory of public schools; therefore, the title superintendent was used in this study.

The Tennessee Directory of Public Schools provided the investigator with the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of current school superintendents in the 139 school systems (State Department of Education, 1995).

#### Instrumentation

The survey (Appendix A) used in this study was designed by the researcher to obtain data relevant to the study. The survey contained two sections. The first section gave the purpose of the study and directions for completion. Space was provided for entering number of years experience as a superintendent. The second section contained 54 response items about the impact of Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) on administrative decision-making in public school systems. These statements produced a response from the respondents which could be measured. One response allowed for a multiple-choice response. Two items generated a yes or no response. A Likert-type scale was used to generate responses for 48 of the items: 1 - strongly agree; 2 - agree; 3 - no perception or don't know; 4 - disagree; and 5 - strongly disagree. Three additional items allowed

for open-ended responses. The same survey instrument was sent to all Tennessee superintendents.

The instrument was reviewed by a panel of experts on educational assessment. The panel of eight (Appendix E) consisted of Dr. Earl V. Coffey, Tennessee Deputy Commissioner of Education and former Tennessee school superintendent; Dr. Gunapala Edirisooriya, advanced research and educational statistics professor, East Tennessee State University; Dr. Charles Burkett, retired professor and chairman of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis, East Tennessee State University; Dr. Robert McElrath, former Tennessee school superintendent and current professor, East Tennessee State University; Dr. Mike Simmons, former Tennessee school superintendent; Dr. James Street, former Tennessee school superintendent; Dr. DiAnn Casteel, teacher, Greene County Schools; and, Dr. David Burrell, principal, Holston Middle School, Sullivan County Schools. These experts evaluated the instrument for content and face validity. A form, designed by Dr. Bill Snodgrass, Tennessee State Department of Education, (Appendix D) was provided to each panel member for evaluating each survey item thereby assessing its validity in measuring the impact of value-added assessment on superintendents' decision-making responsibilities. The panel determined the clarity or ambiguity of each response item, decided whether each was

relevant to current decision-making responsibilities among Tennessee superintendents, and suggested whether each item be kept as written, revised, or deleted. Changes were made in the instrument as suggested by the panel of experts.

A field test of the instrument was administered to 25 school administrators (principals) in East Tennessee who were associated with educational assessment but were not included in the study population. The list of 25 school principals used for the field test was compiled by the Tennessee Deputy Commissioner of Education, Dr. Earl V. Coffey. After completion of the field test, the instrument was checked for reliability using item response analysis and a Cronbach's Alpha of .85 was determined.

#### Data Collection

The survey instrument was used to collect data for this study. Appropriate procedures were taken to ensure validity and reliability of the instrument. The survey, mailed to all Tennessee superintendents, included a cover letter, instructions, and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. Each system was identified numerically on the return envelope in the event a second mailing or follow-up telephone calls were needed; however, each respondent was assured total confidentiality by the researcher.

The intended outcome of the data collection was to obtain substantial information from the survey to reject or

fail to reject the null hypotheses. Of the 139 mailed surveys, 81% (N=112) were returned. The first mailing generated a return of 95 surveys. The remaining 17 were returned after a second mailing.

#### Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data in this study. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data collected on the research sample. Inferential statistics were used to make inferences from sample statistics to the population parameters (Borg & Gall, 1989).

As surveys were returned, they were identified and recorded accordingly. Data were entered in appropriate categories and statistical reports were generated using the Number Cruncher Statistical System (NCSS) (Hintze, 1992).

Using item analysis, reliability of the instrument was further tested with the determination of a Cronbach's Alpha of .8975 on returned surveys. Additionally, summarized data (eight categories forming dependent variables) were tested for reliability. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients ranged from .65 to .90 on the eight categories of summarized data.

The relationship between superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's acceptance level of the value-added system, and perceived technical assistance availability (independent variables)

and superintendents' perceptions of the TVAAS on a number of aspects (dependent variables) were examined: the effectiveness and clarity of the TVAAS in measuring student learning, teacher performance, and school system success; the adequacy of the TVAAS as an accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society; the impact of the TVAAS on educational equality; the preference of using norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessments or some combination of the three as a basis for determining whether state performance standards have been met; the influence of the TVAAS on personnel decisions; and, the impact of the TVAAS on curriculum development and professional development decisions.

Cross tabulation or contingency table analysis refers to the tabulation and analysis of two-way tables or matrices. This technique is usually used to analyze the results of surveys and questionnaires where individuals are asked to respond to statements of opinion; that is, strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, or strongly agree. Data may be entered directly from surveys or in a summarized form (Hintze, 1992). Thus, relationships were analyzed using the contingency table analysis (chi square test). Frequencies, percentages, degrees of freedom, and probability levels are reported from computer generated results.

Additionally, the strength of the relationships were further analyzed by Kendall's Tau-B. Statistics for Kendall's Tau-B significant levels are reported from computer generated results. Reasons for calculating coefficients of correlation are to "examine the validity of a test" and to "use its square as a measure of the variation in one variable accountable for by variation in another." (Howell, 1992, p. 266) Tau has an advantage over Spearman's rho and Pearson's r correlation coefficients in that it has a more normal sampling distribution for samples under 10 (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Numbers and percentages are reported for variables (number of years experience as superintendent, multiple-choice responses for superintendents' perceived degree of personnel's acceptance, and yes or no responses for technical assistance received and technical assistance needed) used as controls for this study.

The null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Descriptive statistics are reported for the research questions and the null hypotheses.

#### Summary

The research methodology and procedures were presented in this chapter. The instrument chosen for the study was a survey.

The population for the study consisted of all 139 school superintendents in Tennessee. Surveys were mailed to the superintendents, resulting in a return rate of 81% (N=112).

Calculations of numbers and percentages of response items for independent variables are reported as appropriate. Hypotheses were tested using the chi square test with frequencies, percentages, degrees of freedom, and probability levels reported. Additionally, Kendall's Tau-B correlations were calculated with significant levels reported. Presentation and analysis of data are presented in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) on superintendents' decision-making. Results and findings obtained from the data collected for this study are presented in this chapter. Research questions that guided this study were:

1. Do Tennessee superintendents feel the value-added assessment system provides an effective and clear measurement of student learning, teacher performance, and school system success when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

2. Do Tennessee school superintendents' feel the value-added assessment system is an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?



3. Does the value-added assessment system impact educational equality as perceived by Tennessee superintendents when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

4. Do Tennessee superintendents favor the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three as a basis for deciding whether state performance standards have been met when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

5. Are personnel decisions influenced by the value-added assessment system as perceived by Tennessee school superintendents when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system, and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

6. Has the value-added assessment system impacted curriculum development and professional development decisions as perceived by Tennessee superintendents' when superintendents' years of experience, superintendents' perception of personnel's level of acceptance of the system,

and perceived technical assistance availability are controlled?

The analysis of data begins with a presentation of numbers and percentages of responses to items used as controls (independent variables) for this study: number of years experience as a superintendent, superintendents' perceptions of degree of acceptance of the value-added assessment system by school personnel, and superintendents' perceived technical assistance availability for data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results. Next, statistical analysis of each hypothesis (H<sub>01</sub> - H<sub>024</sub>) is presented. Finally, analyses of two open-ended survey response items are presented.

#### Data Analysis of Independent Variables

Descriptive analysis of number of years experience as a superintendent, superintendents' perceptions of degree of acceptance of the value-added assessment system by school personnel, and superintendents' perceived technical assistance availability for data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results are presented in Tables 1 - 5.

#### Number of Years Experience as a Superintendent

The number of years experience as a superintendent survey item allowed for six categories of experience.

Frequencies and percentages of analyzed data are reflected in Table 1.

Seventy-six (67.9%) superintendents reported 0 - 10 years experience, leaving 46 (32.1%) for the remaining categories (11 - 25+ years). This variable was recoded into two categories (0 - 10 years and 11 - 25+ years) for hypotheses testing.

TABLE 1  
NUMBER OF YEARS EXPERIENCE AS SUPERINTENDENT

Response Categories	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 5 years	43	38.4
6 - 10 years	33	29.5
11 - 15 years	11	9.8
16 - 20 years	12	10.7
21 - 25 years	7	6.3
more than 25 years	6	5.4
Total	112	100.0

Survey Item 1

To what degree do your school personnel accept value-added assessment?

School personnel includes teachers, assistant principals, principals, coordinators, supervisors, and all other personnel within the school system that are involved in the assessment of student learning. This description of school personnel applies to all aspects of this study involving personnel.

Respondents were directed to respond to survey item 1 according to their perceptions to a list of multiple-choices:

1. Accepted by great majority;
2. Accepted by majority.
3. Accepted by less than majority; and,
4. Accepted by very few.

Frequencies and percentages of summarized data are reflected in Table 2.

Thirty-one (27.7%) superintendents reported perceiving their personnel accepted TVAAS by a majority; 34 (30.4%) superintendents reported less than a majority of personnel accepted TVAAS; and, 47 (42.0%) superintendents reported very few personnel accepted TVAAS. This variable was recoded into three categories of acceptance levels (majority, less than majority, and very few) for hypotheses testing.

TABLE 2  
PERCEIVED DEGREE OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL'S ACCEPTANCE

Response	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Accepted by great majority	5	4.5
Accepted by majority	26	23.2
Accepted by less than majority	34	30.4
Accepted by very few	47	42.0
Total	112	100.0

Survey Item 2a

Have your personnel received technical assistance regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results for your school system?

Again, respondents were instructed to answer this question based on their perceptions. This item required a yes or no response. Table 3 shows frequencies and percentages of the responses.

TABLE 3  
TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE RECEIVED BY PERSONNEL

Response	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	82	73.2
No	29	25.9
No response	1	.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Survey Item 2b

Do your personnel need technical assistance regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results for your school system?

Superintendents' responses, based on their perceptions of needed TVAAS technical assistance for personnel, were calculated. Results are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4  
TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED BY PERSONNEL

Response	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	54	48.2
No	57	50.9
No response	1	.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The second part to survey item 2b was: If you answered yes, please explain the need.

Thirty-nine superintendents (72.2% of participants who responded yes to first part of survey item) responded to the second part of the survey item, explaining the need. Of the 54 who responded yes, indicating they felt their personnel needed TVAAS technical assistance, 15 (27.8%) did not respond to the second part. Stated technical assistance needs were grouped into three categories:

1. Conceptual understanding of TVAAS;
2. Interpretation and use of TVAAS results; and,
3. TVAAS correlation with teaching/learning.

A majority of needs fell into the TVAAS conceptual understanding category. Interpretation/use of TVAAS results and TVAAS correlation with teaching/learning were closely aligned. Table 5 summarizes the categorized data.

TABLE 5  
PERCEIVED TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDS (CATEGORIZED)

Category	f	%
TVAAS conceptual understanding	20	51.3
Interpretation/use of TVAAS results	11	28.2
TVAAS correlation with teaching/learning	8	20.5
Total	39	100.0

#### Hypotheses Analysis

Hypotheses 1 - 9 related to research question 1;  
 hypotheses 10 - 12 related to research question 2;  
 hypotheses 13 - 15 related to research question 3;  
 hypotheses 16 - 18 related to research question 4;  
 hypotheses 19 - 21 related to research question 5; and  
 hypotheses 22 - 24 related to research question 6.



Tables 6 - 37 present descriptive analyses of the null hypotheses. Note. The information below each table includes:  $\chi^2$  (degrees of freedom, number) equals chi square value, probability level (significance), and Kendall's Tau-B.

#### Hypothesis 1

There will be no relationship between years of experience and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and student learning decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 6 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 6  
CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON STUDENT LEARNING DECISIONS BY  
SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Student Learning Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	22	28.6	33	42.9	22	28.6
11 - 25+ years	7	20.0	13	37.1	15	42.9

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = 2.3605, p = .3072 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0708$

### Hypothesis 2

There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and teacher performance decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 7 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 7  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON TEACHER PERFORMANCE DECISIONS  
 BY SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Teacher Performance Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	14	18.2	46	59.7	17	22.1
11 - 25+ years	10	28.6	19	54.3	6	17.1

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = 1.6209, p = .4447 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0526$

### Hypothesis 3

There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and school system success decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 8 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 8  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON SCHOOL SYSTEM SUCCESS  
 DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	School System Success Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	20	26.0	41	53.2	16	20.8
11 - 25+ years	9	25.7	22	62.9	4	11.4

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = 1.5739, p = .4552 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0291$

#### Hypothesis 4

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendent's perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived personnel acceptance and student learning decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 9 reveals a significant relationship at the .0001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 9  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON STUDENT LEARNING DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Student Learning Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	21	67.7	9	29.0	1	3.2
Less than majority	6	17.6	18	52.9	10	29.4
Very few	2	4.3	19	40.4	26	55.3

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 48.1624, p = .0000 (< .0001), \text{Tau-B} = -.3591$

#### Hypothesis 5

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perceptions of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived personnel acceptance and teacher performance decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 10 reveals a significant relationship at the .001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 10  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON TEACHER PERFORMANCE DECISIONS  
 BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Teacher Performance Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	14	45.2	15	48.4	2	6.5
Less than majority	7	20.6	23	67.6	4	11.8
Very few	3	6.4	27	57.4	17	36.2

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 24.0283, p = .0001 (< .001), \text{Tau-B} = -.2492$

#### Hypothesis 6

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived personnel acceptance and school system success decisions as impacted

by TVAAS. Table 11 reveals a significant relationship at the .0001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 11  
CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON SCHOOL SYSTEM SUCCESS  
DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL  
ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	School System Success Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	19	61.3	12	38.7	0	0.0
Less than majority	4	11.8	25	73.5	5	14.7
Very few	6	12.8	26	55.3	15	31.9

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 35.1837, p = .0000 (< .0001), \text{Tau-B} = -.2732$

#### Hypothesis 7

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of student learning.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived technical assistance and student learning decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 12 and 13 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 12  
CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON STUDENT LEARNING DECISIONS BY  
SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
RECEIVED

Response	Student Learning Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	7	24.1	28	34.1	24	29.3
No	24	29.3	17	58.6	5	17.2
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 6.7737, p = .1483 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0032$



TABLE 13

CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON STUDENT LEARNING DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Student Learning Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	16	29.6	21	38.9	17	31.5
No	13	22.8	24	42.1	20	35.1
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 2.1252, p = .7127 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.037$

#### Hypotheses 8

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of teacher performance.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived technical assistance and teacher performance decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 14 and 15 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 14  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON TEACHER PERFORMANCE DECISIONS  
 BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 RECEIVED

Response	Teacher Performance Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	17	20.7	48	58.5	17	20.7
No	7	24.1	16	55.2	6	20.7
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = .8874, p = .9264 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0106$

TABLE 15  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON TEACHER PERFORMANCE DECISIONS  
 BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 NEEDED

Response	Teacher Performance Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	13	24.1	26	48.1	15	27.8
No	11	19.3	38	66.7	8	14.0
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 5.2135, p = .2661 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0347$

#### Hypothesis 9

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an effective and clear measurement of school system success.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived technical assistance and school system success decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 16 and 17 reveal no significant

relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 16  
CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON SCHOOL SYSTEM SUCCESS  
DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL  
ASSISTANCE RECEIVED

Response	School System Success Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	26	31.7	42	51.2	14	17.1
No	3	10.3	20	69.0	6	20.7
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 5.9169, p = .2054 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0758$

TABLE 17  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON SCHOOL SYSTEM SUCCESS  
 DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL  
 ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	School System Success Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	11	20.4	32	59.3	11	20.4
No	18	31.6	30	52.6	9	15.8
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 2.6726, p = .6140 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0637$

#### Hypothesis 10

There will be no relationship between years of experience as a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and accountability decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 18 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 18  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ACCOUNTABILITY MEASURE BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Accountability Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	32	41.6	28	36.4	17	22.1
11 - 25+ years	16	45.7	11	31.4	8	22.9

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = .2718, p = .8729 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0121$

#### Hypothesis 11

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived personnel acceptance and accountability decisions as impacted by

TVAAS. Table 19 reveals a significant relationship at the .0001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 19  
CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ACCOUNTABILITY DECISIONS BY  
SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Accountability Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	27	87.1	4	12.9	0	0.0
Less than majority	12	35.3	15	44.1	7	20.6
Very few	9	19.1	20	42.6	18	38.3

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 39.0420, p = .0000 (< .0001), \text{Tau-B} = -.3256$

#### Hypothesis 12

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the value-added assessment system's impact as an adequate accountability measure of teachers, schools, and school systems in today's global society.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived technical assistance and accountability decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 20 reveals a significant relationship at the .05 level for technical assistance received. This part of the hypothesis was rejected. Table 21 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level for technical assistance needed. This part of the hypothesis was retained.



TABLE 20  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ACCOUNTABILITY DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 RECEIVED

Response	Accountability Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	42	51.2	22	26.8	18	22.0
No	6	20.7	16	55.2	7	24.1
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 11.5362, p = .0212 (< .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0915$

TABLE 21

CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ACCOUNTABILITY DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Accountability Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	23	42.6	19	35.2	12	22.2
No	25	43.9	19	33.3	13	22.8
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 1.9306, p = .7485 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0069$

### Hypothesis 13

There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and equality decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 22 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 22  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON EQUALITY DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Equality Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
0 - 10 years	24	31.2	31	40.3	22	28.6
11 - 25+ years	4	11.4	18	51.4	13	37.1

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = 5.0024, p = .0820 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0867$

#### Hypothesis 14

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived personnel acceptance and equality decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 23 reveals a significant relationship at the .0001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 23  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON EQUALITY DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Equality Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	17	54.8	11	35.5	3	9.7
Less than majority	9	26.5	20	58.8	5	14.7
Very few	2	4.3	18	38.3	27	57.4

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 39.6454, p = .0000 (< .0001), \text{Tau-B} = -.3345$

#### Hypothesis 15

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on educational equality.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between perceived technical assistance and equality decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 24 and 25 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 24  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON EQUALITY DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 RECEIVED

Response	Equality Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	21	25.6	36	43.9	25	30.5
No	7	24.1	12	41.4	10	34.5
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 1.4564, p = .8343 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0164$

TABLE 25  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON EQUALITY DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Equality Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	16	29.6	20	37.0	18	33.3
No	12	21.1	28	49.1	17	29.8
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 3.1483, p = .5333 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0172$

#### Hypothesis 16

There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and assessment decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 26 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 26  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ASSESSMENT DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Assessment Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	19	24.7	45	58.4	13	16.9
11 - 25+ years	11	31.4	19	54.3	5	14.3

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = .5834, p = .7470 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0328$

#### Hypothesis 17

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived personnel acceptance and assessment decisions. Table 27 indicates a significant relationship at the .001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 27  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ASSESSMENT DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Assessment Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	17	54.8	13	41.9	1	3.3
Less than majority	6	17.6	20	58.8	8	23.5
Very few	7	14.9	31	66.0	9	19.1

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 19.1964, p = .0007 (<.001), \text{Tau-B} = -.1802$

#### Hypothesis 18

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the use of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance-based assessment, or some combination of the three.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived technical assistance needs and assessment decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 28 and 29 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.



TABLE 28  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ASSESSMENT DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 RECEIVED

Response	Assessment Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	26	31.7	43	52.4	13	15.9
No	4	13.8	20	69.0	5	17.2
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 4.3731, p = .3579 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0594$

TABLE 29

CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON ASSESSMENT DECISIONS BY  
SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Assessment Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	14	25.9	30	55.6	10	18.5
No	16	28.1	33	57.9	8	14.0
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$\chi^2 (4, N = 112) = 1.1777, p = .8818 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0270$

#### Hypothesis 19

There will be no relationship between years of experience a superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and personnel decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 30 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 30  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON PERSONNEL DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Personnel Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	15	19.5	37	48.1	25	32.5
11 - 25+ years	8	22.9	18	51.4	9	25.7

$X^2 (2, N = 112) = .5510, p = .7592 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = .0335$

#### Hypothesis 20

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived personnel acceptance and personnel decisions. Table 31 indicates no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 31  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON PERSONNEL DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Personnel Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	10	32.3	16	51.6	5	16.1
Less than majority	7	20.6	17	50.0	10	29.4
Very few	6	12.8	22	46.8	19	40.4

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 7.1985, p = .1258 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.1454$

#### Hypothesis 21

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on personnel decisions.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived technical assistance and personnel decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 32 and 33 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 32  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON PERSONNEL DECISIONS BY  
 SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE  
 RECEIVED

Response	Personnel Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	29	35.4	37	45.1	16	19.5
No	4	13.8	18	62.1	7	24.1
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 7.0752, p = .1320 (> .05), \text{ Tau-B} = .0904$

TABLE 33

CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON PERSONNEL DECISIONS BY  
SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Personnel Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	13	24.1	26	48.1	15	27.8
No	10	17.5	29	50.9	18	31.6
No response	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	100.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 3.0646, p = .5471 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0251$

#### Hypothesis 22

There will be no relationship between years of experience as superintendent and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between years of experience and curriculum and professional development decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Table 34 reveals no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 34  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON CURRICULUM AND PROFESSIONAL  
 DEVELOPMENT DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' YEARS OF  
 EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Curriculum and Professional Development Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
0 - 10 years	31	40.3	32	41.6	14	18.2
11 - 25+ years	9	25.7	17	48.6	9	25.7

$\chi^2 (2, N = 112) = 2.3608, p = .3072 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0711$

#### Hypothesis 23

There will be no relationship between superintendents' perception of school personnel's level of acceptance of the value-added assessment system and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.

The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived personnel acceptance and curriculum and professional development decisions. Table 35 indicates a significant relationship at the .0001 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 35  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON CURRICULUM AND PROFESSIONAL  
 DEVELOPMENT DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF  
 PERSONNEL ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Levels	Curriculum and Professional Development Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Majority	20	64.5	10	32.3	1	3.2
Less than majority	12	35.3	18	52.9	4	11.8
Very few	8	17.0	21	44.7	18	38.3

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 26.4198, p = .0000 (< .0001), \text{Tau-B} = -.2756$

#### Hypothesis 24

There will be no relationship between perceived technical assistance availability regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results and superintendents' perceptions of the impact of the value-added assessment system on curriculum and professional development decisions.



The chi square test, with Kendall's Tau-B, was used to determine the relationship between the perceived technical assistance and curriculum and professional development decisions as impacted by TVAAS. Tables 36 and 37 reveal no significant relationship at the .05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 36

CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON CURRICULUM AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE RECEIVED

Response	Curriculum and Professional Development Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	35	42.7	31	37.8	16	19.5
No	5	17.2	17	58.6	7	24.1
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 7.5250, p = .1106 (> .05), \text{Tau-B} = -.0594$

TABLE 37  
 CHI SQUARE FOR TVAAS IMPACT ON CURRICULUM AND PROFESSIONAL  
 DEVELOPMENT DECISIONS BY SUPERINTENDENTS' PERCEIVED TVAAS  
 TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE NEEDED

Response	Curriculum and Professional Development Decisions					
	High		Medium		Low	
	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Yes	18	33.3	19	35.2	7	31.5
No	22	38.6	29	50.9	6	10.5
No response	0	0.0	1	100.0	0	0.0

$X^2 (4, N = 112) = 9.0026, p = .3579 (> .05), \text{ Tau-B} = .0898$

#### Analysis of Final Survey Items

Respondents were asked to complete two open-ended statements in survey items 50 and 51.

#### Survey Item 50

I feel the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program supports my decision-making responsibilities with the following advantages or strengths.

Forty-four superintendents responded to this survey item. The responses were analyzed and stated advantages

were grouped. Groupings were ranked from most frequently stated to least frequently stated (numbers indicate frequencies of responses) as follows:

1. Encourages curriculum and staff development. (9)
2. Enhances teacher performance and teaching strategies. (9)
3. Promotes student achievement. (8)
4. Provides national, statewide, and systemwide comparisons. (4)
5. Establishes clear cut educational goals, objectives, and standards. (4)
6. Provides an adequate educational accountability measure. (4)
7. Promotes overall school and school system improvement. (2)
8. Serves as a basis for teacher evaluation. (2)
9. Serves as a diagnostic tool based on three-year gains. (2)

Survey Item 51

I feel the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program restricts my decision-making responsibilities with the following drawbacks or weaknesses.

Fifty-eight superintendents responded with stated weaknesses of TVAAS. The responses were analyzed and grouped. Groupings were ranked from most frequently stated to least frequently stated (numbers indicate frequencies of responses) as follows:

1. Fails to provide comprehensive educational assessment procedures. (11)
2. Places undue stress on teachers, administrators, and, especially, students. (7)
3. Hampers positive school reform. (7)
4. Has questionable reliability. (7)
5. Gives state control of local decisions. (5)
6. Restricts a comprehensive education program. (4)
7. Hampers teacher creativity. (4)
8. Has questionable validity. (4)
9. Produces unfair consequences for students, teachers, schools, and school systems. (3)
10. Hinders long-term decision-making. (2)
11. Promotes public misconceptions about the condition of education. (2)
12. Allows for misplaced incentives and sanctions. (1)
13. Enforces an unfair educational accountability measure. (1)

This chapter contained the statistical treatment of the data. Summary, conclusions, and recommendations/implications are presented in Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS

#### Summary

This study focused on the impact of the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) on school superintendents' decision-making. In response to the national school reform movement, the Tennessee's Education Improvement Act of 1992 enacted TVAAS in accordance with National Standards (Bratton, 1993).

The purpose of this study was to assess whether superintendents' perceptions of TVAAS influence their thinking about student learning, teacher performance, school system success, educational accountability, educational equality, assessment procedures, personnel decisions, and curriculum and professional development. These eight areas (used as dependent variables) surfaced during the literature review as important concerns for positive school reform.

The literature review also revealed three factors (used as independent variables) that impact attitudes toward an educational assessment program: number of years as superintendent; perceptions of school personnel toward the program; and availability of technical assistance during implementation and interpretation of results (Mitchell &

Beach, 1991; Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, & Beck 1991; Bond, 1993).

Data were gathered by surveying Tennessee superintendents. Of the 139 Tennessee superintendents, 81% (N=112) responded.

Analyses of data included the chi square test for relationships based on contingency tables of frequencies and percentages with Kendall's Tau-B correlations test for strength of relationships. Hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. When significant relationships were found at the .001 and .0001 levels, reports of these findings were also presented.

### Conclusions

Results and findings of this study led to the following conclusions:

1. Based on an endorsement of this study from Tennessee's Office of the Commissioner of Education (Appendix B), there is a commitment at the state level to explore all avenues in the evaluation of the validity and reliability of TVAAS.

2. Based on the high rate of participation, it is concluded that a significant level of interest and concern exists among Tennessee superintendents regarding educational assessment procedures mandated for their school districts.

Outcomes of these procedures that will be used as an accountability measure, with rewards and sanctions, for teachers, schools, and school systems appear to create a significant amount of apprehension among superintendents.

3. Data analyses findings indicate there are significant relationships between superintendent's perception of the level of TVAAS acceptance by school personnel and seven of the eight dependent variables. Significant relationships exist for student learning, teacher performance, school system success, educational accountability, educational equality, assessment procedures, and curriculum and professional development. These findings support other research findings (D'Amico & Corcoran, 1985; Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, & Beck, 1991; Mitchell & Beach, 1991; Roberts, 1991; Bond, 1993).

Based on these findings, it may be concluded that possibly a majority of Tennessee superintendents prefer the decentralization of educational mandates and the implementation of participatory leadership, where school personnel's educational philosophies, theories, and practices are respected, welcomed, supported, and incorporated into decision-making responsibilities. It is also indicated that superintendents trust their school personnel to develop assessment procedures at the local



level as they plan teaching strategies to guide individual student learning in alignment with curriculum.

Findings indicate no significant relationship exists between superintendent's perception of the level of TVAAS acceptance by school personnel and the personnel decisions variable. This could have been influenced by the fact that, currently, personnel decisions are primarily a joint responsibility between superintendents and elected boards in Tennessee. This study was limited to surveying only superintendents. It may also be concluded that, again, participatory leadership is favored where other administrators (supervisors, coordinators, and principals) are entrusted, in part, with such decisions.

Data analyses indicate there are no significant relationships between years of experience and any of the eight dependent variables. This finding does not support research of Mitchell and Beach, 1991. The survey for this study allowed for categories ranging from 0 to 25+ years of experience. Analysis of this data showed that 76 (67.9%) of the respondents had experience from 0 to 10 years and 36 (32.1%) had experience from 11 to 25+ years. Concentration of experience in the 0 to 10 years category in this study may have influenced the significance of the relationships.

It may be concluded that Tennessee's less experienced superintendents are not as concerned with position and power

as with professionalism in their roles as educational leaders. This also may indicate that shared decision-making is practiced in many Tennessee school systems.

The dependent variable, superintendents' perceptions of technical assistance availability, was analyzed in two parts: technical assistance received and technical assistance needed. Results of data analyses for relationships between superintendents' perceptions of TVAAS technical assistance received and the eight dependent variables show no significant relationships exist for seven of the eight variables. A significant relationship does exist between perceived technical assistance received and educational accountability. This finding supports, in part, the findings of D'Amico and Corcoran, 1995, and Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, and Beck, 1991.

No significant relationships exist between technical assistance needed and any of the eight dependent variables. These findings do not support findings of D'Amico and Corcoran, 1995, and Fitzgerald, Zigmond, Kay, and Beck, 1991.

Reasons for lack of significant relationships between technical assistance availability and all but educational accountability (for technical assistance received) of the eight dependent variables may be explained in an open-ended response item on the survey. This item allowed for

superintendents to explain their TVAAS technical assistance needs. An overwhelming majority of stated needs were related to school personnel's conceptual understanding of the assessment system. This concentration on the basic "need to understand" may have influenced the level of significance of the relationships. However, concern for accountability of teachers and schools in meeting TVAAS objectives was expressed by a significant number of superintendents. This possibly influenced the significant relationship in this area.

It may be concluded that the Tennessee superintendents see themselves as safeguards of accountability through an open and participatory process. It also appears that strategic planning may be a major component of Tennessee superintendents' management processes, where accountability is primarily based on individual student learning results rather than on satisfying mandated technical regulations.

4. Two additional open-ended response items allowed for superintendents to express the perceived strengths and weaknesses of TVAAS relative to their decision-making responsibilities. Superintendents' stated feelings were primarily aimed at the positive and/or negative impact TVAAS has on their systems, schools, teachers, and especially, students. Stated strengths were more generalized; whereas, stated weaknesses were more specific. This specification of

more weaknesses may indicate a lack of confidence in the TVAAS to comprehensively and adequately assess student learning, teacher performance, and school system success at the local level. Again, this supports the conclusion that a significant level of concern exists among Tennessee superintendents regarding educational assessment procedures mandated for their school districts.

#### Recommendations/Implications

Based on the conclusions and outcomes of this study, the following recommendations/implications are offered:

1. Based on the high degree of interest shown by Tennessee superintendents in educational assessment, as indicated by the high rate of participation in this study, it is recommended that the Tennessee Department of Education initiate another similar study in the near future as TVAAS is renewed, updated, as used as the comprehensive state-wide assessment program. Acceptance and approval of mandated educational programs is important for successful implementation at the local level. Incorporation of local views and input may enhance both acceptance and approval levels.

2. Because this study was limited to Tennessee superintendents, it is recommended that the study be replicated using school personnel as the population.

Because superintendents' perceptions of school personnel's acceptance proved to strongly impact superintendents' feelings, a comprehensive study of the attitudes of central office personnel, principals, teachers, parents, and students toward TVAAS should prove significant and useful.

3. Further study of TVAAS as an adequate educational accountability measure is implicated, targeting school board members, superintendents, central office staff, principals, and teachers. Results should prove useful to the Tennessee Department of Education as it continues to evaluate mandated educational assessment procedures that incorporate accountability measures.

4. It is recommended the Tennessee Department of Education initiate a survey to determine the extent of usage of locally developed alternative assessment strategies throughout the state. Development of alternative assessments to use along with TVAAS should be encouraged by the State. Documentation of the impact of such strategies on student learning, teacher performance, and school system success should provide valuable information to state policy makers and educational planners as they decide the future of TVAAS as an educational accountability measure.

5. Results implied that state school reform legislation in Tennessee has increased the stakes in testing, putting teachers and administrators under great

pressure to demonstrate high student scores. It is recommended that the Tennessee Department of Education address this issue with professional development and training seminars and workshops aimed at understanding TVAAS measurement techniques and strategies for using TVAAS results to improve student achievement.

6. As Tennessee legislators look at the Tennessee School Improvement Act (during their evaluation of TVAAS), they should also rethink their ruling that Tennessee superintendents have a bachelor's degree, with no endorsement requirements. It is critical that school administrators stay prepared through continued educational leadership training and growth. Entering the superintendency with no educational background, training, nor experience may serve an injustice to school systems, particularly to students as their learning is assessed and used for school accountability measures.

7. Tennessee legislators should consider the results of this study as mandated assessment procedures are evaluated and decisions are made about their continued use as the sole educational accountability measure. TVAAS has been mandated at the state level. However, the success of this mandate for students depends upon what happens locally across Tennessee; therefore, it is important to consider how the TVAAS is perceived, trusted, and used at the local

level. It may prove beneficial to further investigate possible differences between perceptions of elected and appointed superintendents.

8. Finally, since Tennessee is geographically and demographically diverse, it is recommended that all further studies regarding TVAAS investigate differences between rural and urban school systems.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**  
**THE INSTRUMENT**

**Value-Added Assessment: Perceptions of Tennessee Superintendents**

\*\*\*\*\*

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System (TVAAS) on administrative decision-making in public schools as perceived by Tennessee superintendents.

**DIRECTIONS:** Please indicate your total years of experience (in and out of Tennessee) as a school superintendent in the spaces provided and respond to the two questions below.

Years Experience As Superintendent

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1 - 5 years
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6 - 10 years
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11 - 15 years
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16 - 20 years
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21 - 25 years
- \_\_\_\_\_ more than 25 years

Please respond to the following according to your perceptions:

1. To what degree do your school personnel accept value-added assessment?
  - \_\_\_ Accepted by great majority      \_\_\_ Accepted by majority
  - \_\_\_ Accepted by less than majority      \_\_\_ Accepted by very few
  
- 2a. Have your personnel received technical assistance regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results for your school system?
  - \_\_\_ Yes    \_\_\_ No
  
- b. Do your personnel need technical assistance regarding data analysis and interpretation of value-added assessment results for your school system?
  - \_\_\_ Yes    \_\_\_ No    (If you answered yes, please explain the needs.)

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## VALUE-ADDED ASSESSMENT SURVEY

**Directions:** The following survey statements address your perceptions about the impact of the TVAAS on administrative decision-making responsibilities you have as superintendent in your current school system only. Please **READ** each statement carefully and respond by **CIRCLING** the number that most closely represents your opinion or perception on each item.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree**
- 2 = Disagree**
- 3 = No Perception or Don't Know**
- 4 = Agree**
- 5 = Strongly Agree**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Perception Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3. I have a basic understanding of the impact of Tennessee's Value-Added Assessment Program on my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I have a clear understanding of the systemwide "cumulative gain" concept of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Factors that influence student achievement (learning) can be measured comprehensively by the value-added assessment statistical procedure.	5	4	3	2	1
6. State comparison of students in my school system with a standardized group (national norms) promotes academic excellence.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Establishment of performance goals to be accomplished by the year 2000 is a realistic state effort.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Norm-referenced tests are an effective way to measure student learning.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Criterion-referenced tests are an effective way to measure student learning.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Performance-based assessments are an effective way to measure student learning.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Perception Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. A combination of norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, and performance-based assessments is an effective way to measure student learning.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Student assessment procedures should be developed at the school system level.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Teachers should be held accountable for student learning as reported by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP).	5	4	3	2	1
14. Individual schools should be held accountable for student learning as reported by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP).	5	4	3	2	1
15. School systems should be held accountable for student learning as reported by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP).	5	4	3	2	1
16. School systems should be held accountable for cumulative gains as calculated by the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program based on TCAP scores.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I have initiated positive curriculum development in response to the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I have directed positive changes in instructional strategies with the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
19. Teacher transfer requests have increased with the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
20. Teacher tenure decisions have been made on the basis of value-added assessment gains.	5	4	3	2	1
21. Teaching strategies should be determined at the individual school level.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I am knowledgeable of the value-added assessment plan currently being implemented by the State of Tennessee.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Perception Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
23. Value-added training opportunities are available to school administrators.	5	4	3	2	1
24. The value-added assessment program creates undue stress on teachers.	5	4	3	2	1
25. Standardized testing of students is the key to assessing teacher performance.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Student assessment policies should be established locally.	5	4	3	2	1
27. Value-added assessment should "appropriately" be used to measure the accountability of school systems for student learning.	5	4	3	2	1
28. The value-added assessment program should "adequately" be used for assessing individual differences in students.	5	4	3	2	1
29. I understand the true impact of the completed phases of the value-added assessment program for my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
30. Systemwide teacher evaluation procedures have been influenced by the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Systemwide professional development programs have been improved due to implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
32. The value-added assessment program has influenced personnel selection decisions.	5	4	3	2	1
33. Site-based management is promoted by the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
34. Budgetary decisions for my current school system have been made based on cumulative gains reported by the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Perception Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
35. Student promotion/retention decisions have been influenced by the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
36. The value-added assessment program fairly judges what students should know in my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
37. The value-added assessment program promotes educational equality in my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
38. A portion of <u>teacher</u> accountability should be assessed based on students' cumulative gains on standardized test scores.	5	4	3	2	1
39. A portion of <u>school</u> accountability should be assessed based on students' cumulative gains on standardized test scores.	5	4	3	2	1
40. A portion of <u>school system</u> accountability should be assessed based on students' cumulative gains on standardized test scores.	5	4	3	2	1
41. Value-added cumulative gains as reported by the state have encouraged curriculum improvements in my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
42. Faculty development programs have been expanded since the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
43. New local teacher evaluation procedures have been improved due to the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
44. The overall quality of education has improved in my school system since the implementation of the value-added assessment program.	5	4	3	2	1
45. Value-added assessment brought about a needed curriculum re-evaluation in my school system.	5	4	3	2	1
46. The value-added assessment program conflicts with current systemwide management policies.	5	4	3	2	1

47. Flexibility in decision-making relative to school management has been hampered by implementation of the value-added assessment program.

48. I feel threatened by the possibility that state funds appropriations to school systems will be based on value-added outcomes.

49. The value-added approach to student assessment provides a clearer account of student learning in my district/county.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Perception Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
47.	5	4	3	2	1
48.	5	4	3	2	1
49.	5	4	3	2	1

Please complete the following two open-ended statements:

50. I feel the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program supports my decision-making responsibilities with the following advantages or strengths:

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51. I feel the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program restricts my decision-making responsibilities with the following drawbacks or weaknesses:

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Please feel free to use the back of this sheet if additional space is needed.

THANK YOU SO VERY MUCH FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY.

**Kay M. Goode**  
**Route 6, Box 179**  
**Tazewell, Tennessee 37879**



**APPENDIX B**

**LETTER OF ENDORSEMENT FROM TENNESSEE DEPARTMENT OF  
EDUCATION, OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONER**



TENNESSEE  
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER  
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE 37243-0375

July 28, 1995

Ms. Kay Goode  
Rt. 6, Box 179  
Tazewell, TN 37879

Dear Ms. Goode:

I have read your prospectus related to your thesis, "The Impact of the Tennessee Value Added Assessment System on School Superintendents' Decision Making."

The information you have compiled should be helpful to educators throughout the state as we renew, update, and use the Tennessee Value Added Assessment System.

I endorse your study and look forward to reviewing the completed work. I wish you success in your studies and continued success in your professional career.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Earl V. Coffey".

Earl V. Coffey  
Deputy Commissioner  
State Department of Education

EVC/jcm

**APPENDIX C**  
**LETTERS TO SUPERINTENDENTS**

Route 6, Box 179  
Tazewell, TN 37879  
October 23, 1995

Dear Superintendent:

As an educational leader in the state of Tennessee, I know you value the effects of assessment practices on your students, teachers, schools, and school system. I am a doctoral candidate in the department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at East Tennessee State University studying the impact of the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment Program on administrative decision-making responsibilities as perceived by Tennessee superintendents. **This study has the endorsement of Dr. Earl V. Coffey, Deputy Commissioner of Education, Nashville, Tennessee.**

I need your help in determining perceptions of Tennessee superintendents relative to the impact of value-added assessment on a number of decision-making aspects. I am also trying to determine the perceived degree of acceptance among your personnel of the statistical value-added assessment system and perceived technical assistance needs regarding the data analysis and interpretation of results. I have designed a survey for this purpose and would appreciate a few minutes of your valuable time to complete it on such an important and timely subject.

The return envelope is numerically identified for "return rate" purposes only. Please be assured that your responses will be kept totally confidential. The information received will be compiled into broad categories and processed by computer.

I understand your busy schedule but would really appreciate your returning this survey as soon as possible, preferably within the next two weeks. Thank you so much in advance for your help.

Sincerely,

Kay M. Goode

Enclosures

Route 6, Box 179  
Tazewell, TN 37879  
November 16, 1995

Dear Superintendent:

Approximately one month ago you received a survey requesting your help in determining the perceptions of Tennessee superintendents relative to the impact of value-added assessment on a number of decision-making aspects. As a doctoral student at East Tennessee State University, I am conducting this study. As of this date, a number of superintendents have not responded. The response rate has been most favorable, but I must receive sufficient responses to complete my study. Since this study has the endorsement of the Office of the Deputy Commissioner of Education, the results should prove very helpful in future plans for educational assessment in Tennessee schools.

The number on the return envelope is strictly to assist the researcher with return rate information. This envelope will be immediately separated from the survey upon receipt, making the survey totally anonymous. The data will be grouped into broad categories for computer processing. Thus, no individual school system will be identified in any manner, ensuring complete confidentiality.

For your convenience, I am enclosing another copy of the survey as well as a self-addressed, stamped envelope for returning the survey. An immediate response would be greatly appreciated. In the event that you have already responded to the first request, please ignore this one. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Kay M. Goode

Enclosures

**APPENDIX D**

**LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY ASSESSMENT FORM**



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**TENNESSEE**  
**STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**  
*First Tennessee Regional Office*

1110 Seminole Drive  
Johnson City, TN 37604-7134

PHONE: (423) 434-6490

FAX: (423) 434-6495

July 10, 1995

Ms. Kay Goode  
Route 6, Box 179  
Tazewell, TN 37879

Dear Kay,

You have my permission to use the survey assessment form found in *The Degree of Usage of Strategic Planning in Tennessee School Systems*.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Bill Snodgrass".

Bill Snodgrass, Consultant  
Secondary Education

BS:ml

APPENDIX E

LETTER TO EXPERTS REQUESTING HELP IN ASSESSING INSTRUMENT



Route 6, Box 179  
Tazewell, TN 37879  
July 11, 1995

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to serve on a panel of experts to evaluate a survey instrument on the impact of Tennessee's Value-added Assessment System on superintendents' decision-making responsibilities. As a doctoral candidate at East Tennessee State University, I am investigating this problem.

Your experience in the area of assessment and evaluation highly qualifies you to evaluate the enclosed instrument. An assessment form is included for your convenience. Changes in the survey will be made in accordance with your evaluation. A stamped, self-addressed envelope is enclosed for returning the assessment form. I would appreciate receiving your response as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Kay M. Goode

Enclosures

**APPENDIX F**  
**SURVEY ASSESSMENT FORM**

**SURVEY ASSESSMENT FORM**

Please respond to the following questions concerning each item on the Value-added Assessment Survey. Each question on this form corresponds to the same numbered items on the survey. If your answer to either A or B is "no", please indicate whether the question should be revised or deleted and the reason why. If you feel the question should be revised, please specify the advised change.

	Is this question			
	A. Clear and unambiguous?		B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #1</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #2</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #3</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #4</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #5</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Is this question

A. Clear and unambiguous?      B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?

---

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #6</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #7</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #8</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #9</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #10</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #11</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Is this question

	A.		B.	
	Clear and unambiguous?		Relevant to the purpose of the survey?	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #12</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #13</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #14</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #15</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #16</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #17</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Is this question

A. Clear and unambiguous?      B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #18</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #19</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #20</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #21</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #22</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #23</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Is this question

	A. Clear and unambiguous?		B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #24</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #25</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #26</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #27</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #28</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #29</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Is this question

A. Clear and unambiguous?      B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?

	<u>Yes</u>		<u>No</u>	
<b>Question #30</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #31</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #32</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #33</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #34</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #35</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____



Is this question

A. Clear and unambiguous?      B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #36</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #37</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #38</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #39</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #40</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #41</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

	Is this question			
	A. Clear and unambiguous?		B. Relevant to the purpose of the survey?	
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #42</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—
<b>Question #43</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—
<b>Question #44</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—
<b>Question #45</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—
<b>Question #46</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—
<b>Question #47</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	—	—	—	—

Is this question

A.	B.
Clear and unambiguous?	Relevant to the purpose of the survey?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<b>Question #48</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #49</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #50</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #51</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<b>Question #52</b> Changes _____ _____ _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Do you have any additional questions or suggestions for improving this survey and strengthening its validity? If so, please explain them below. Use the back of the page if needed. Thank you.

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## VITA

Kay M. Goode

- Address:** Route 6, Box 179  
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- Personal Data:** Date of Birth: January 10, 1947  
Marital Status: Single
- Education:** Public Schools, Hancock County, Tennessee  
East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee;  
elementary education, B.S., 1971  
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee; curriculum, M.S.,  
1975  
East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee;  
educational administration, Ed.D., 1996
- Tennessee**  
**Endorsements:** 001 Elementary Education 1-9  
075 Reading Specialist K-8  
094 Attendance Supervisor K-12  
090 Superintendent  
109 Administration/Supervision K-8  
110 Administration/Supervision 7-12
- Professional**  
**Experience:** Teacher, grades 5 - 8, Hancock County Schools, Sneedville,  
Tennessee, 1967-1969  
Teaching Principal, Hancock County Schools, Sneedville,  
Tennessee, 1969-1980  
Principal, Hancock Central Elementary School, Sneedville,  
Tennessee, 1980-1984  
Educational Programs Director, Clinch-Powell Educational  
Cooperative, Tazewell, Tennessee, 1984-1996  
Adjunct Faculty, Professional Studies, Tusculum College,  
Greeneville, Tennessee, 1995-1996
- Memberships:** Little Mulberry Baptist Church  
Kappa Delta Pi  
Phi Delta Kappa

TN Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development  
National Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development  
Tennessee Association for Special Populations  
Southeastern Association of Educational Opportunity Program  
Personnel  
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**Interests:**

reading  
home decorating  
flowers  
traveling