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# Evaluation as a means for teacher improvement: Using the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System as a model

Beaver, Pamela B., Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1986



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# EVALUATION AS A MEANS FOR TEACHER IMPROVEMENT: USING THE NORTH CAROLINA PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM AS A MODEL

by

Pamela B. Beaver

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
of Doctorate in Education

Greensboro 1986

Approved by

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#### APPROVAL PAGE

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The purpose of the research was to assess educators' perceptions of a state-mandated system for evaluation of teachers and to examine these perceptions as they related to a review of the literature on evaluation. differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of The North Carolina Performance Appraisal System were also examined. Three questionnaires were administered to 400 teachers, 32 principals, and 18 central office personnel in the Rowan County Schools, Salisbury, North Carolina. The first administration was prior to the implementation of the new, state-mandated appraisal system. The second questionnaire was given at the end of the first year; the third administration was after the second year of using the appraisal system. The results of the questionnaires were investigated using percentages, means, and chi-squares for each group. The principals and central office personnel were then combined into one group and the chi-square statistic was applied to study changes that existed between teachers and administrators.

The results of the questionnaires indicated that high anxiety existed throughout the system prior to the implementation of the new mechod. While all three groups perceived the appraisal system as a change, teachers

and administrators had differences in their perceptions about evaluation. At the end of the second year, teachers and administrators still held significantly different views about evaluation, but neither group perceived it as the change they had originally anticipated. Anxiety had decreased and subjects felt that the system would likely be changed or replaced.

The research study supported what the literature review revealed about evaluation and about change efforts within a system. Change is very difficult to maintain after the initial phases of interest and excitement decline. Involving participants at all levels from the implementation point and throughout the first two years of a new program is critical for mutual understanding and success. Sufficient time and education for leaders to be able to implement the appraisal system are imperative. The role of leaders is paramount in maintaining a change effort. Also important to this study is the question of whether or not educators have defined what needs to be evaluated.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

# The Beginning of the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System

The 1980 North Carolina General Assembly mandated the creation of a unified statewide performance appraisal system to be used for public school personnel in North Carolina (NC). The legislature charged the NC State Educational Agency (NCSEA) with the task of researching, developing, and adopting a set of standard criteria through which evaluations could be conducted more consistently and effectively throughout the state.

During the remainder of the 1980-81 school year, a proposed instrument of evaluation and procedures was developed for field testing during the 1981-82 school year. The research and pilot studies continued throughout the 1981-82 school term, primarily under the direction of Mr. Bob Boyd, Director of Personnel Relations, and Dr. Craig Phillips, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the NC State Department of Public Instruction (NCSDPI). The purpose, defined by the NCSEA, was to develop a performance appraisal system that would lend uniformity to evaluation and improve instruction throughout NC.

The final draft (Appendix D), recommended to the NC Board of Education, included 33 performance criteria. Each Local Educational Agency (LEA) was given the option of adding to the state-adopted evaluation instrument. Each LEA in NC was mandated to begin using

the annual evaluation instrument in the fall of 1982. The introduction of a legislative mandate to standardize the performance of educators in NC led to the idea for this study. The original idea was to review the literature to determine what is known about teacher evaluation as a means of improving teacher performance and to use a questionnaire to monitor the perceptions that educators had about the NC Performance Appraisal System (NCPAS) as a newly adopted system of evaluation throughout NC. The original proposal was a rather fixed, straightforward, empirical study designed to focus on the NCPAS as teachers, principals, and central office personnel perceived it prior to its implementation in the fall of 1982; after one year, in May of 1983; and after two years, in May of 1984.

Early during the fall of 1982, after the first questionnaires were sent, the study began to change somewhat because the idea of the NC career ladder or a merit pay plan was being discussed as an alternative or addition to the original NCPAS.

At this early point in the study, it seemed critical to follow not only the perceptions about the newly implemented appraisal system but also to examine the change process and the philosophical views of evaluation as they related to the views that educators held about the NCPAS. Although this shift seemed subtle and the actual methodology changed very little, the importance of the study changed and became more complicated.

Basically, the question became one of what might be expected to happen with the NCPAS based on the review of the literature and an analysis of the early shift from the 1982 state-adopted plan to a

probable expanded or changed Career Ladder Plan by 1986. As the target shifted, it seemed important to ask, "What does the literature say can be expected to happen with statewide evaluation as a means of improving performance"; "What does change theory tell us about the success or failure of a new system's survival"; and "How do the perceptions of educators support what exists in the literature about evaluation"?

#### General Provisions by NCSDPI

The General Provisions set by the NCSDPI were explicitly outlined in the Handbook for Teacher Appraisal (1981).

- 1. Every LEA shall provide for the annual evaluation of all professional employees. The evaluation shall be based upon performance standards and criteria as specified in this section. A local board of education may adopt additional performance standards and criteria which are not in conflict with this section.
- 2. The primary purpose of the employee performance appraisal system is to assist employees to improve the instructional program for students. The appraisal system encourages job performance improvement and professional growth, which contribute to the effectiveness with which employees carry out their work. A second purpose of the performance appraisal system is to assist management and leadership personnel in making personnel decisions.
- 3. Teachers shall be evaluated by the superintendent or the superintendent's designee.
- 4. The principal shall be evaluated by the superintendent or the superintendent's designee.
- 5. Teachers and principals shall be informed of their job descriptions and the performance standards and criteria by which they will be appraised.
- 6. All teachers and principals shall be provided an orientation on the performance appraisal system of the LEA.
- 7. Information obtained through performance appraisal shall provide: (a) a basis for self-improvement on the part of the professional personnel, and (b) data to be used in planning

staff development activities for individuals and groups of individuals at the school, administrative unit, regional, and state levels.

8. Teachers and principals shall have the right to record written comments or to register dissent on their performance appraisal instruments (pp. 5-6).

By July, 1981, the NCSDPI stated the purpose of a performance appraisal system as one that provides "a vehicle whereby all personnel are provided the opportunity to continually improve performance" (Handbook for Conducting Performance Appraisal, p. 1). In its best and most positive light, an effective performance appraisal system encourages professional growth and development, provides employee satisfaction in knowing how well the job is being accomplished, and contributes to the effectiveness by which people, and in turn the organization, are achieving their mission, goals, and objectives. The cornerstone of the NCPAS is one which is supportive of employees and provides a means whereby personnel decisions can be made in a rational, objective manner that is mutually beneficial to people and the organization in which they are employed (Handbook for Conducting Performance Appraisal, 1981).

Since the charge to the NCSEA, in 1980, to develop an appropriate process of evaluation, state committees and 24 pilot systems worked for two years to offset the pitfalls that other states have made in mandating performance criteria (<a href="Handbook for Teacher Appraisal">Handbook for Teacher Appraisal</a>, 1981). When the NCPAS was implemented in the fall of 1982, the state department anticipated that the system would provide a basis for judging performance, making personnel decisions, and improving the quality of instruction. The state, in the procedural manual, defines the purpose of the appraisal system as follows:

The purpose of the performance appraisal program for appraising the performance of professional public school personnel in NC is to improve the teaching-learning process and provide guardianship of the public interest by setting higher standards and for developing efficient appraisal procedures. If the appraisal system is to serve this purpose, it must be an integral part of the educational process, not an appendage. Leadership positions in public education . . . at the local and state levels, as well as in teacher-training institutions in the state . . . should strive to ensure that the appraisal system is used in the identification, recruitment, employment and improvement and training of professional personnel who are, or will be, teaching in and managing the schools in the state (Handbook for Performance Appraisal, 1981, p. 3).

At the present, all 50 states have undertaken some legislative or state board activity in the area of setting standards for performance (Hammond, 1982, p. 5). Hammond emphasizes that the issue seems to continually return to whether or not the right definition of the teaching task and the right method for evaluating it are being employed; "Every teacher evaluation system must embody a definition of the teaching task and a mechanism to evaluate the teacher" (1982, p. 21). Many of the 50 states that have implemented statewide appraisal systems have adopted a combination of effective teaching characteristics that have been accepted as good practices even though disagreement continues over a precise definition of teaching. During the first two years after the NCPAS was mandated, the supervisors in the Rowan County Schools began in-service education, using several well-known models as a basis for studying characteristics of effective teaching and how to evaluate performance using the NCPAS.

# Purpose of the Study

One of the main purposes of this study is the analysis of the literature on teacher appraisal to discover what is the present state

of the art on teacher evaluation. In reviewing the literature, the major areas are to overview the historical development of evaluation in public education, to understand what events have led to present practices, and to examine those present practices as they are most currently perceived by leading writers and educators. In studying present views on educational evaluation and the issues that relate to the use of performance appraisal, major topics are summarized. One crucial area in the review of the literature is the use of stateadopted appraisal systems because of the use of the NCPAS as a target of the questionnaire for this study. After each section in the review of the literature, a summary is given to synthesize what currently seems to be accepted in the field of education as it relates to performance appraisal and teacher improvement. In each summary, I draw some tentative conclusions based on what is currently available in the literature about educational evaluation. This part of the study has a significant purpose because I have not found another study that links the historical development of public school evaluation with current issues, practices, and perceptions of standardized, statewide appraisal systems. Also, the results of the empirical study will be discussed in relationship to what the literature suggests.

Another purpose of the study is the empirical collection of data from 450 educators (teachers, principals, and central office personnel) in one school system mandated to implement a statewide system of appraisal. The primary intent is to collect data over a two-year period to determine how these educators perceive evaluation in general and evaluation as it specifically relates to the NCPAS, prior to the

implementation of the NCPAS, at the end of one year, and at the end of the second year. These data for 38 questions are tallied and compared for each of the three questionnaires over a two-year period (Fall 1982-Spring 1984).

This facet of the study is intended to determine how educators in one large school system in NC perceive evaluation and to examine their perceptions of evaluation and the NCPAS. Does what is stated in the literature support what educators perceive about evaluation as a practice today?

In context with the previously stated purposes, the final part of this study falls in place without question. It seems necessary to examine the process of state-mandated change to determine the longevity and stability of a state legislative program. To what extent does a standardized, statewide program have permanence? Does what happens in one system in connection with a state-mandated appraisal offer information that could predict what might happen in other similar situations or systems? The process of change becomes an important issue for the study in the area of what can be expected when a state mandates a standardized appraisal system.

The following general questions will demonstrate the purposes of this research study:

- 1. What does an overview of the literature reveal about the past and present thinking on performance appraisal as a means of improving instruction?
- 2. How do teachers, principals, and central office personnel view evaluation as a means of improving performance?

- 3. How do teachers, principals, and central office staff view the NCPAS?
- 4. Prior to implementation, are the three groups different in regard to their expectations for the NCPAS?
- 5. After a period of use, how do the three groups perceive the NCPAS?
- 6. After a period of time, how do the three groups view the NCPAS?
- 7. After two years, what perceptions change about the NCPAS?
- 8. How does the literature review support or negate what the perceptions of educators reveal?

#### Importance of the Study

The process of developing, adopting, and implementing an evaluation system as the result of legislation raises important questions for investigation. What do educators perceive about the process of evaluation as a means of judging and improving performance? What does the literature reveal? How does a state-mandated evaluation system impact local teachers, principals, and central office personnel? What happens over a period of time as the change process occurs? In order to understand what operates when an appraisal system is mandated through legislation, it seems useful to investigate the perceptions and expected outcomes in one school district prior to implementation and over an extended period of time. To study what teachers perceive about evaluation and the potential for the NCPAS to improve instruction, it seems valuable to describe perceptions prior to the implementation and at key intervals during the first two operant years of using the system in NC. To analyze the participants' perceptions of mandated change during the first two years of using the NCPAS is a study that

has value for the state, the school district, and for furthering knowledge about the concept and process of effecting change through evaluation. The beginning of the NCPAS seems to present a unique opportunity to use an empirical approach to examine the broad questions that other writers have raised about the nature of evaluation as it relates to pedagogy and to the study of what teachers perceive about state-mandated appraisal systems. Additionally, the opportunity exists to study one state as it implements such a system.

When the NCPAS was mandated in the fall of 1982, state personnel expressed hopes that it would provide a basis for accurately judging performance, making personnel decisions, and improving instruction. To examine the outcomes to those expectations seems to be a necessary part of re-examining the broader questions of what teaching is and how it is properly evaluated. The fact that a NC career ladder was proposed and passed by the NC legislature prior to the completion of the present study does not seem to reduce the importance of studying the NCPAS as it relates to what is known or believed about evaluation. Ironically, the fact that the NCPAS is being changed (effective for the 1985-86 school year for initially certified personnel and for all personnel by the 1986-87 school year) implies a greater need to answer the questions proposed by this study. Throughout the fall of 1985, school systems in NC have been involved in what the state department labels 'Effective Teacher Training," a program designed to supervise initially certified persons through a new evaluation process using mentors (master or tenured teachers at the school level), school-based administrators, and county office personnel, all of whom

combine their expertise to complete a total of nine observations per year using a new form that replaces the NCPAS. After this first year of practice and training with initially certified personnel, all personnel will be evaluated with a new instrument rather than the NCPAS. The Career Ladder Plan is being piloted in 16 LEAs.

When the importance of standardizing evaluation (statewide), seems to be a priority of NC as well as of other states, it is important to examine not only the literature on evaluation but also the perceptions of those in the field as their feelings compare to the literature and to the rapid changes that seem to be taking place. The results of this study will examine a combination of issues not previously synthesized—"What does the literature say about evaluation?; How does this correspond to what educators perceive about evaluation?; What does this allow us to predict about future statewide systems of appraisal?"

#### CHAPTER II

#### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

This review of literature will attempt to offer an historical overview of evaluation as a practice and will focus on problems and issues that seem inherent to the practice of evaluation. The approach is intended to be comprehensive because evaluation, teaching, improvement related to evaluation, the change process in education, and state-mandated appraisal are complicated issues that are all relevant to one another.

From the onset it is important to question whether or not the literature and research studies are conclusive or inconclusive about the effectiveness of any one method or system of evaluation to definitively improve instruction. While many studies have identified characteristics commonly found among good teachers, developing effective evaluation instruments to implement evaluation programs to measure these characteristics has been difficult and inconclusive. At the end of each section, some tentative conclusions will summarize what leading writers seem to be saying in the literature.

#### Overview of Evaluation

## Early Colonies

Appraisal of teachers in America is certainly not a new concept in public schools. Periodically, renewed attention is given to the

methods and the portent for accomplishing the task that both evaluators and evaluatees have historically viewed with trepidation and dread. When major overhauls of evaluation have recurred with great intensity, "school administrators have braced themselves for a renewal of the historic, even international, animosity between teachers and administrators" (Lewis, 1973, p. 7). The concept of evaluation in America began with the advent of schooling in this country. As early as 1642, the Colonial Legislature of Massachusetts passed a law requiring that a parent or a lay person in the community should inspect the schools and the corriculum (Bellon & Bellon, 1982). Until the late 1800's a form of community inspection to determine the status of student learning prevailed. For over 200 years in America evaluation remained a relatively simple process of an appointed lay person or committee in the community making a local and autonomous decision about the worth of a teacher. If the individual or the group felt that standards were not being met, a new teacher was hired.

The goals of education during the seventeenth century in America represented religious or family ethics that made standards and methods for evaluation different from those that later evolved as the early settlements changed from autonomous units to larger communities (Cremin, 1977). The primary impetus for change was the shift in the locus of control. The state of the art of evaluation seems much determined by the power structure because it is that authority that determines standards by which the profession is to be evaluated. During the formative years for the emergence of schools in America, the standards were set by each small community and no emphasis was placed on teacher improvement.

"It was not until early in the nineteenth century that the powers and duties of the inspection committees were assigned to educational positions" (Bellon & Bellon, 1982, p. 2). It is understandable that it took two centuries for a changing practice of teacher evaluation to evolve if the early Puritan values of prerevolutionary America are considered. The kind of communal life which the Puritans and others established and maintained cradled America's system of higher education, nurtured the common schools, and determined the practices that emerged (Borrowman, 1975).

An examination of the Puritan ideology in relationship to teacher evaluation and its evolution is possible to extract from the literature. Early Massachusetts' school legislation was consistent with the Puritan view of the community which reflected a belief in unity, consistency, and authority in accordance with religious beliefs (Borrowman, 1975). The question of what man should learn was not an issue because the school was intended to be a microcosm of the community. A teacher was evaluated according to whether or not the community and religious standards were met by the teacher, as determined by the subjective perceptions of the ones appointed to decide. Control by the oligarchy of the community was necessary to achieve the principle of shared values, with the focus being maintenance of the religious ethic. Although Puritanism was the most influential force on the development of the common schools, the same religious base for education is found in the Catholic, Protestant, and groups other than Puritans who settled early America (Gwynn & Chase, 1969).

Considering the roots of education in America, the importance of the concept of authority and control over teachers must be emphasized. "Among the Puritans, the state was the church, the ministers were the social and political leaders, and for the most part the ministers were the teachers" (Gwynn, 1969, p. 2). Even in the middle colonies, the colonial government demonstrated no active interest in the establishment of schools; thus, schools emerged as extensions of religious institutions. In the Southern colonies, education remained a private affair with both the community and the church indifferent, except for higher education, until the 1700's (Gwynn, 1969). As the colonial religious models emerged, the idea of authority and control over educators also emerged.

What McGreal (1983) defines as the "Common Law Model" for teacher evaluation is essentially a more elaborate version of the method used from 1600-1900. McGreal (1983) implies that this model is still the type of evaluation used most frequently in schools. The label "common law' is used since most districts who employ this form of evaluation have done so for so long that they have finally married it by formalizing the procedures (McGreal, 1983). No one takes credit for developing this model because it has existed since the first common schools emerged. McGreal (1983) estimates that 65 percent of the school districts in the United States today use this model which practices the following: (a) high supervision/low teacher involvement; (b) evaluation as synonymous with observation; (c) one set of procedures for all teachers; (d) an emphasis on summative judgments by the appointed evaluator; and (e) standardized criteria determined by the system. The fact that this model has remained the prevalent one for hundreds of years seems to be an indicator of how slowly educational practices change. The persistence of the first method of evaluation appears

evident today in the regularity with which new methods of evaluation are often done with the same common law model. As Sarason (1971, p. 46) described the phenomenon of change, "It is perhaps too charitable to conclude that the more things change 'the more they remain the same' if only because so many people continue to be unaware that basically nothing has changed."

The role of the teacher in the early seventeenth century configuration of education was as slow in gaining distinction or definition as was the concept of schools. The schools emerged slowly and changed less rapidly than did the church. Throughout the colonies, the steady erosion of religious establishments led to an increasing number of competing sects, including Quaker, Presbyterian, Baptist, Mennonites, Lutherans, and Methodists (Cremin, 1977). As the church pedagogy changed, teachers and their teaching also transformed at a slower pace. A significant change occurred in the form of control that began emerging during the early 1700's. Because of the

plentitude of cheap land, endowment became an inefficient form of educational support with the result that tuition fees and taxes had to be substituted and parents and taxpayers thereby gained a voice in school policymaking that was less common in England (Cremin, p. 18).

While the church had earlier appointed the person(s) responsible for evaluating the teacher, the general public began sharing a vested interest in this task during the eighteenth century.

The complexity of individualism in America, even during the colonial period, and the shifting of the locus of control caused the overview of evaluation of teachers to be extremely difficult. Not only were there differences in the New England, Middle, and Southern

colonies, but also there were vast social differences among those to be educated. On the one hand, Harvard emerged as an alternative to sending young American men abroad for higher education; on the other hand, "tribal ways and Anglo-American ways were mixed in some new and emergent combinations" (Cremin, 1977). The role of a teacher in American colonial days was determined by the locale and the needs of each separate constituency that decided to hire a teacher. "The educational authority in colonial America rested mainly with the parents who expressed that authority in a variety of private forms of education" (Karier, 1982, p. 3) prior to the emergence of public education.

Viewed historically, an overview of evaluation during the colonial days represents internal, decentralized, non-standardized practices that did not rest in state or public hands (Karier, 1982). While many individual and vastly different models were emerging, each private sector determined the methods for determining the worth of a teacher. All of the early models, district schools, Latin grammar schools, dame schools, tutoring at home, colleges, church schools, and others followed the practice of appointing one or more persons to decide, based on observation or discussion with others in the community, whether or not a teacher should be re-hired. The literature suggests that the teacher had no voice in the evaluation or the decision. No standard criteria were used for making the determination. The state posed no interference.

# The Role of Teacher in Early America

Before leaving the discussion of teacher evaluation during the colonial period, the role of the teacher needs to be addressed in order to distinguish differences between this period and the beginning of the common school movement (1830), led by Horace Mann. Colonial schools suffered the growing pains that other institutions felt in America. Since the very identity of the school within the new society was not clearly established, it seems understandable that teachers were not viewed as professionals in the emerging public schools.

Colonial schools were not permanent or located in one place; neither were they accessible to all children within a community (Good & Teller, 1973). "Teachers had no formal preparation in regard to how or what to teach, and they made the curriculum from what they knew and what books were at hand" (Good & Teller, 1973, p. 33). Cremin (1977) observed that

native printing was initially confined to Massachusetts, though after the establishment of presses at St. Mary's City and Philadelphia in 1685, it spread rapidly. . . . The authorities regulated it /printing/ closely . . . before 1735, there were shifts in the character of colonial publications . . . . as printers lacked extensive fonts to print the classics . . . it was cheaper in any case to import them from Europe . . . . /Teachers/ concentrated on sermons, almanacs, schoolbooks, and later newspapers (p. 19).

The inaccessibility of printed materials, the lack of formal preparation of teachers, and diverse immigrant populations contributed to general lack of a system for schooling in early America. Furthermore, the attitude of a class structure as a carryover from English beliefs caused changes to occur slowly. Governor Berkeley of Virginia declared in 1671:

I thank God that there are no free schools and no printing presses in the Province; and I hope there will be none for a hundred years. Learning has brought disobedience and heresy, and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them, and libels against the best government. God keep us from both (Knight, 1941, p. 64).

The concept was widespread and the notion persisted, during the seventeenth and much of the eighteenth centuries, that public education was not a responsibility of the state (Stinnett, 1968). It was not until the ideas of the American Revolution emerged that "an independent nation began to make its own adaptations. For the first 175 years or so (from 1600 to 1775) England was the home country" (Stinnett, 1968, p. 7), and apparently the model for schooling.

To further complicate the teacher's role, the practice of "boarding round" was a custom that provided board and lodging to a teacher for a week at a time with one family and then another. "The practice did not enhance the dignity of the profession or make it easier to secure good teachers" (Good & Teller, 1973, p. 40). Wages were equal to those of a good farm hand; teaching was a part-time, often temporary, job; and the curriculum had to reflect what the community wanted children to learn, ranging from Latin and the Bible to trades (Good & Teller, 1973). While many teachers had college educations and taught in Latin schools, English grammar schools, or colleges, others had no training and taught in field schools or schools designed to reinforce religious beliefs and build character. This framework seems to represent the beginning of public education.

Considering the fact that the colonial period presents one half of America's history and the cultural transmission of educational and other influences from multiple immigrant sources, it is

understandable that the forms of internal, localized, subjective education and evaluation of education remained virtually unchanged until the 1800's.

If "the concept of supervision of educational programs in this country began with the advent of schooling in America" (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982, p. 1), the maturation has been a slow process. Bellon (1982) does add an interesting dimension to teacher evaluation, not found in other literature. The person(s) appointed to decide on a teacher's performance gave examinations to students to determine effectiveness (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982). This practice, in an expanded sense, did emerge later as a formalized option for teacher evaluation.

# Common School Movement and Effect on Evaluation

Cremin (1977) dates the colonial period in education from 16071783. Good & Teller (1973) and others postpone the date until after
the turn of the century. While debate may exist about an exact year,
little doubt exists about one significant event and one pivotal
person. The American Revolution and the influence of Horace Mann
caused a paradigm shift in education and related practices. During
the late 1700's and early 1800's, private education continued to be
the dominant form, but government authority continually increased.
The locus of control began to shift to a state form of authority
that needs to be examined in relationship to the effect on the practice
of teacher evaluation.

"The early history of America does furnish evidence that as a new philosophy of government came into existence, a new philosophy of

education came with it" (Gauerke, 1959, p. 24). This philosophy was directly related to the pre-revolutionary and Revolutionary War events and the voices of education during those years. The philosophy was expressed in the creation of the free public school, which gradually became "as essential to the preservation of the 'American ideal' as the organic documents in which the framework of the Republic was outlined and by which the freedoms of the people were guaranteed" (Gauerke, 1959, p. 24). Good & Teller (1973) call this the period of liberty and learning and note that "the American Revolution began before the American Revolution and continued after the peace" (p. 77).

While the educational authority in colonial America had rested mainly with the parents and churches, the late 1700's were characterized by increased laws and regulations being passed by the legislative bodies of the thirteen colonies. Education for all was viewed as more important for the future of the nation. It was the belief of many founders of the American government that the success or failure of an independent country would depend on the extent that young persons could be educated (Gauerke, 1959). Prior to the nation's independence, Jefferson expressed this national ideal when he said, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be" (Gauerke, 1959, p. 25). By the end of the Revolutionary War in 1783, a new era in the history of mankind had begun. Along with the "self-evident" truths was "inextricably intertwined . . . /the? widespread acknowledgment of the crucial significance of education" (Cremin, 1977, p. 42). This idea that education was essential to the nation's success as a self-governing

body was new (Gauerke, 1959), and resulted in the idea that free public education should be guaranteed by law. Naturally, the implications affected the role that teachers held within the system, the outcomes expected from teachers, and consequently the ways that teachers would be evaluated.

It is important to note that the federal government was not involved in issues related to education during the late 1700's and early 1800's. 'The Constitution did not include education as one of its responsibilities. . . . The power with which the federal government was to influence education was found in the 'general welfare' clause" (Gauerke, 1959, p. 26). The states (formerly colonies) assumed the leadership role in making educational decisions. Education in the United States developed with the states having control through their various constitutions and statutes. Courts during these formative years ruled that education was a state function (Edwards, 1955). Authority over school personnel shifted from private, family, and church control to the separate state-supported bodies. Before this time almost no state educational machinery had existed, and it was the local school community that set policies for teachers. The local unit 'had almost unlimited power in operating the school . . . all of the electorate--the men, in other words--met at the school house, where they decided . . . the selection of the teacher" (Gauerke, 1959, p. 35).

By the revolutionary years, the groundwork had been laid for free state-supported schools that emerged in America.

As the colonists spread westward from the Atlantic seaboard, they took with them the traditions of the district schools. . . . The seed had been sown for a flowering of a universal, nonsectarian system of free schools supported by public taxation (Stinnett, 1968, p. 10).

Along with the public support of schools through state dollars was the emergence of increased state and public interest in the quality of teachers and schools. The Federal Constitution remained silent on the matter of education, and the Tenth Amendment officially left issues like education to local jurisdiction. Of the sixteen states forming the Union by 1800, seven inserted clauses in their constitutions to establish the state's responsibility for education. By 1850 all states had constitutional support for free, public education (Stimmett, 1968).

Along with the idea of a new nation governed by a political democracy also emerged the belief that rule of the people could be successful only if the people were educated. Also, "the masses clearly saw that if their economic lot was to be improved for their children, the opportunity for education was basic" (Stinnett, 1968, p. 12). Spokesmen and leaders like Benjamin Franklin were forerunners for supporting the concept of practical, along with classical, education; but Horace Mann became the true voice of change. His views of the school as "the greatest instrument ever created to build a good society . . . /with/ its central purpose to create among all a common faith, a sharp sense of common interest, and love for a political order" influenced John Dewey and James B. Conant who later shaped American education (Borrowman, 1975, p. 34). As an acknowledged leader, Mann moved others toward the concept of state control. He was "distressed by the laissez faire localism of his own Massachusetts and described the pattern of fiscally independent, nearly autonomous school districts as an educational tragedy" (Clifford, 1975, p. 13).

As early as 1830, Mann and other leaders who followed his thinking envisioned state supervision of local public education for the training of teachers (Clifford, 1975). One of the conditions that Mann found deplorable in his state of Massachusetts was "boards violated certification laws and hired teachers as they pleased" (Stinnett, 1968, p. 19). Many of the teachers, Mann felt, were incompetent; and he used his Common School Journal to communicate his concerns (Stinnett, 1968). One of Mann's far-reaching accomplishments was the creation of a State Board of Education in Massachusetts, the first in the United States. Despite these accomplishments, Mann was not without opposition during the 1800's as Thoreau, Melville, and others advocated for romanticism and small, self-controlled schools (Borrowman, 1975). While this overview of evaluation cannot address the long lasting, philosophic debate over the centralization or decentralization of public schools, it is important to note that this continued to be a main issue until the 1900's and probably postponed any formal development of evaluation theory. Leaders seemed unable to agree on a definition of teaching or schools, much less a systematic way to evaluate teachers. Ironically, research began to identify characteristics of good teaching even though the evaluation process remained problematic.

America today has been endowed with both the Hebraic-Puritan and the Hellenic-romantic attitudes and their modified offspring, each vying to exert its influence on the schools. It is no wonder that our schools reflect the conflict of values mirrored in our many and varied communities (Ianni, 1975, p. 29).

## Evaluation in the Twentieth Century

As an overview of evaluation moves through the nineteenth century, it is obvious that the trials of a new country developing its own values preoccupied the minds of all leaders in the areas of education as well as in religion, politics, and economics. It is understandable that these formative years (with two major wars) postponed any systematic thoughts about teacher evaluation.

The twentieth century is the really exciting one that characterizes formal thinking about evaluation and opens the subject to more than tracing through obscure literature to piece together the parts of the evaluation puzzle. The overview of the colonial and revolutionary developments is necessary; but during the 1900's, certain set procedures appear to emerge. America had adopted a dual system (freedom of private education and right to public education). The twentieth century history of instructional evaluation shows an evolution from a slight interest to an intensified but sporadic interest through to the present (Doyle, Jr., 1983). Morsh and Wilders' (1954) exhaustive search lists only a half-dozen studies of instructional evaluation from 1900-1913.

Thereafter, the cyclical quality of this history /evaluation/ is clear; an increase during the early years of World War I, followed by a decline; another increase in the early 1920's, followed by a decline; a sharp increase for the decade in 1927, then a decline; and a gradual rise beginning shortly after the onset of World War II, peaking in the mid 1970's (during Vietnam); and the future is not perfectly clear--enduring or tapering off into the 1980's (Doyle, Jr., 1983, pp. 3-4).

Prior to 1900, the primary focus of educational energy was on defining education in America and broadening its availability to all people (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982). Formal systematized

evaluation activities did not seem to exist prior to the 1900's. Obviously, factors during the late 1800's, primarily through the voice of Horace Mann, were leading to a more systematized emerging practice. As early as 1843 Horace Mann introduced the idea of a school superintendent in America, arguing that his visits in Prussia had proved to him the value of having districts that could be carefully supervised by one educated and competent man (Bakalis, 1983). As Bakalis (1983) points out, the first superintendency was created in Boston in 1840 and was widespread by 1890. . . . 'The new profession began to alter the stable power relationship that had existed in education" (p. 40). Again, the importance of state government intervening in education and the impact on teacher evaluation is evident. Along with the widespread adoption of superintendencies followed the inclusion of supervisors within the educational settings. By the turn of the twentieth century, the role of teacher evaluation had moved from lay persons to educationally employed personnel. The key words used by Bakalis (1983) to describe the change in process are "centralization, expertise, professionalism, ...and efficiency" (p. 41). Added to this were the later scientific approaches that included accountability and objectives, but the groundwork had been laid by the time America moved into the twentieth century.

During the early years, the first decade of the twentieth century, supervisors were called "acting visitors, school clerks, or superintendents of schools" (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982, p. 2). During the first quarter of the twentieth century, the roles of the supervisor and the superintendent were unclear; but the supervisor

became more and more assigned to content areas and played an increasingly active role in the evaluation of teachers and programs.

It was during this period, the first quarter of the twentieth century, that the influence of scientific management aligned itself with teacher evaluation in America.

Supervisors worked to discover the best methods and 'give' them to teachers . . . teachers were to use new processes to improve learning . . . 'under scientific management'; children rather than the machinery of education, were to become the center of educational consciousness . . . the focus was to remain on ends; the development of the pupil . . . Manipulation of process was to be the means (Lucio & McNeil, 1979, p. 2).

From these years through the present the influence of scientific management and the methods of teacher improvement and evaluation have been a subject of research and concern, with the pendulum swinging from humanistic to scientific. This seems to be what Bruner (1983) means by the phrase 'wandering intellectual' when he describes himself as a 'rationalist, structuralist, and intuitionist' (p. 8).

The modern period of education is usually described as 1920 onward. The major critics of education continue to doubt whether or not there has been any real change. The term "Common Law" model of evaluation changed to the "Goal Setting" model during the scientific decades following the turn of the century, but there seems to be continued doubt about which model was truly implemented. Some of the harshest critics like Reitman (1977) say,

In the last seventy-five years or so, the structure of schools in American society has changed comparatively little from what it was during the nineteenth century. This is not to imply that schools have not changed at all—they have; however, most of the changes that have occurred since about 1920 have been related to improving technologies within the extant school system . . . rather than basic changes of that system (p. 113).

It has been noted by such authorities as Oscar Buros (1977) that in many ways measurement reached its peak in terms of both emphasis and excellence during the late 1920's and early 1930's.

During the late 1920's and 1930's, a notable emphasis on curriculum engineering was achieved . . . including the development of instructional materials, in-service teacher education, and the role of the school supervisor (Gress & Purpel, 1978, p. 197).

While supervision was originally considered simultaneous to inspection and done by the superintendent, persons entitled supervisors were delegated to aid in this inspection as the schools' and superintendents' responsibilities increased (Gress & Purpel, 1978). Throughout the first quarter of the twentieth century, the impact of industrial methodology had an increasing impact on the thinking of educational leaders, causing the task of supervision to shift to the determination of the standards of good teaching (Callahan, 1962). The supervisor's role seemed necessarily an evaluative role, but conflicts arose during this period of scientific management.

Supervisors found very little information about the best or preferred methods of teaching. To compound this problem, the supervisor was a visiting specialist who had limited time to help teachers.

The school principal was too busy with teaching and clerical duties to perform the supervisory function. . . This may have fostered the concept of supervision as inspection since it was carried out by a person who was not a member of the building staff (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982, p. 2).

After the first World War, the new emphasis on understanding (human relations) also impacted education and further confused the understanding of a supervisor's role. The negative view of supervision, combined with the growing importance of human-relations theories, led to a series of changes after 1930. As opposed to the scientific

management concept, the ideas after the depression and World War II focused on harmony and cooperation between evaluators and teachers to help teachers realize their full potential. Mosher & Purpel (1972) described the conflict between scientific and democratic supervision as one that is long-standing. The dilemma of evaluating by objectives was succinctly explained by Mosher & Purpel (1972, p. 2) as follows:

The concept of supervision is a simple one, describing a process common to all professions and occupations. The supervisor is charged with making certain that another person does a good job. Sergeants exist to insure that those under their command are good soldiers; football coaches are supposed to make sure their teams win games, and foremen see that assembly workers turn the right screws in the right ways. In such clearcut situations, the purpose and methods of supervision are self-evident; a good job is instantly recognizable as such when it is achieved. (As Vince Lombardi said, 'Winning is the only thing.') So, too, is the level of worker expertise needed to achieve the desired goal. When, however, we try to apply this simple notion of supervision to the profession of teaching, where objectives are less explicit and skills less precisely measurable, things become considerably more confused. . . . The difficulty of defining supervision in relation to education also stems, in large part, from unsolved theoretical problems about teaching. Quite simply, we lack sufficient understanding of the process of teaching. Our theories of learning are inadequate, the criteria for measuring teaching effectiveness are imprecise, and deep disagreement exists about what knowledge--that is, what curriculum--is most valuable to teach.

In considering the role of teacher evaluation in this context, it is understandable that the years from approximately 1940-1960 were confusing ones that included major debates over how teachers improve. Perhaps the vaguest years in terms of set methods of teacher evaluation occurred during the 1940's which were described as confusing years when supervisors assumed more of a manager's role, making sure teachers had committees and resources to decide what they needed.

Other factors, such as a growing concern for the quality of education, the rapid expansion of schools, and the beginning of federal

funding to states to be used for education led to another swing of the pendulum. Tyler, Bobbit, Charters, and other early proponents of measurable objectives entered the forefront in influencing methods for teacher evaluation.

### The Impact of Ralph Tyler

Although other influences were occurring prior to 1940, the Eight Year Study (1933-1941) was a single impacting study that seems to have influenced evaluation theory until the present. Ralph Tyler, as head of the study, established specific guidelines for program evaluation based entirely on objectives. Although his theories emphasize programs and "the importance placed on hierarchy, organization, and evaluation . . . " (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 15), the literature and theories have been used to trace the development of teacher evaluation, which is very different from program evaluation.

The analysis of the two decades prior to 1957 help explain

Macdonald's (1980) concern over teacher training as a term rather than

education or growth. 'The teacher was expected to be a specialist

in the practice who would produce the 'product'; the supervisor was to

specialize in the science relating to the process" (Mosher & Purpel,

1972, p. 16). During these years every state attempted varied forms

of teaching and evaluation methods, all entrusted to local units to

develop and administer. Some were acclaimed to work effectively,

but none lasted as conclusive methods of improving teacher performance.

During these same years, increasing evidence agreed on characteristics

of good teaching. Evaluating those characteristics in an objective,

consistent way seemed to be the problem.

No overview of evaluation, however brief, can overlook the Eight Year Study or the impact that Ralph Tyler's work had on evaluation and curriculum practices. The Eight Year Study made extensive use of "scales, inventories, questionnaires, check lists, pupil logs, and other measures in each of the thirty high schools" (Worthen & Sanders, 1973, p. 3) that were studied. Tyler's evaluation approach set precedent in evaluation methods and has influenced educational studies and theories since the 1930's. Tyler's measurements were designed to use academic goals and objectives as the method of measuring student progress. Although Tyler focused on program evaluation, his writings influenced all areas. Bloom (1956) used Tyler's research as a basis for his ideas on behavioral objectives that dominated education during the 1960's and early 1970's. Precise and valid comparisons of one individual to another and the concept of set standards that are either met or not met emerged (Worthen & Sanders). A major impact of Tyler's work was the government's mandate to use studies similar to the Eight Year Study to evaluate programs receiving state and federal funds. With the increased state and federal funding for education after 1950, new efforts were sought to prove that programs and administrators were attaining goals.

Systematic taxonomies of evaluation began to develop in response to ESEA Title I and II and other federally funded projects. Gage (1963), Lindquist (1953), Scriven (1967), and other leaders in evaluation theory expanded and applied Tyler's ideas. Although much of the literature on educational evaluation focuses on program evaluation, the influences on evaluation of individual performance have been equally significant.

When the post-Sputnik years brought cries for curriculum reform, the efforts to develop new evaluation methods were built on Tyler's work. Stufflebeam (1968), Stake (1970), and others expanded the state of the art and added to evaluation theory, but drastic criticisms have apparently occurred during the late 1970's and through the present. The scientific management of teaching embraced by Tyler and other rationalists led to further study about whether or not this approach improved education or teacher performance.

Further developments in the field were elaborations of elements of the Tyler work. But inquiry is not static; a field's problems perhaps are not susceptible to a <u>final</u> solution, 'rational' or otherwise. Indeed, it was the <u>status</u> <u>quo</u> of the field and the overly rational approaches in curriculum which, in part, prompted the upheaval of new forces in the field. The emergence of new social forces confronted the schools; their accompanying problems confronted the field of curriculum (Gress & Purpel, 1978, p. 42).

The optimism that school management by objectives would solve the problems of evaluation faded during the 1970's and theory building continued. Research did not prove objective decision making to accomplish what Lewis had described as a new approach that

involves a clear and precise identification of performance objectives, the establishment of a realistic action plan for their achievement, and an evaluation of performance in terms of measured results (1973, p. 13).

Objectives developed in Rochester, New York, and computerized in Los Angeles could not be applied in Kent or Orlando (English, 1983).

"The victory was hollow . . . the standard curriculum decisions were adopted in policy but abandoned in practice" (English, p. v.)

Theorists and writers since 1970 have cited a need to continue searching for change despite the fact that "school faculties are suspicious of anyone bearing curriculum gifts--proposals for change"

(English, p. vi.). Educators no longer seem to want modules or packages. The need to develop the language to define or redefine teaching is part of the search. The other part of the search seems to be the development of an evaluation system, led by competent evaluators, to encompass the facts that are known about good teaching. "The curriculum field is fraught with communication problems . . . among curriculum scholars as well as . . . curriculum practitioners" (Beauchamp, 1983). It seems that leading curriculum writers do disagree on the ways that good teaching can be evaluated although few disagree with the desired characteristics for a good teacher. Thus, from the 'morass of dialogue and research . . . findings from research on implementation /of evaluation practices are inconclusive and contradictory" (Loucks & Lieberman, 1983, p. 126). The state of the art for evaluation of programs, curriculum, and individuals is understandably in a state of confusion considering the fact that agreement does not exist about how teachers should be evaluated. 'Nothing about curriculum is simple. . . . Indeed, it is not clear what we mean by 'the curriculum'" (Vallance, 1983, p. 154).

"In a sense we are dealing with little that is new; yet, in another sense we are addressing standard problems with new and evolving practical skills that were not available to our forebears" (Vallance, 1983, p. 161). In the Foreword to Supervision - The Reluctant Profession (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. v.), the challenge to find the answer to the evaluation issue is expressed in the way educators

have pondered the existing evidence on what supervision has meant until now, what it has tried to do and how well it has worked. Driven to the honest conclusion that it has rarely had much success, they have simply refused to stop, because they know we

must develop a system of supervision that does work. There is too much at stake to allow us not to.

For evaluations to accomplish the primary goal of improving schools, this search has continued into the 1980's. Leaders are researching and rethinking both the concepts of teaching and the processes of evaluating it. Research is including more studies that examine more than the behaviors of students and teachers. Expectations and motivation were examined by Bloom (1982) to identify characteristics of master teachers. The study itself is interesting, but equally interesting is the evolution of Bloom's thinking since his writing of Taxonomy of Behavioral Objectives (1956).

Educators who follow Bloom's ideas of mastery tended to question and inspire educational leaders to examine theories, methods, preparation of teachers, leadership roles, and proposed changes, thus leading to the re-conceptionalist's line of thinking. "The professionalized focus on curriculum and curriculum planning /which automatically includes the field of evaluation \( \) . . . is a historically recent development" (Macdonald & Purpel, 1980, p. 1). The 1980 article, "Curriculum Planning: Visions and Metaphors" (Macdonald & Purpel) summarizes two important concepts that help to conclude an overview of evaluation. As educational thought in America is traced from the Herbartian movement to industrial (management) influences through Bobbitt's ideal of the democratic man, the researcher understands the evolution of ideas. When Huebner (1980) stated that evaluation using the Tyler rationale became a major instrument for control, the meaning explained by Macdonald and Purpel helps explain the necessity of understanding this as something other than heresy.

This school of thought implies that a Tylerian model is controlling in the sense that quantum leaps in thinking, even if these are irrational, are precluded. 'We  $/\overline{M}$  acdonald & Purpe  $/\overline{M}$  believe . . . that the Tyler rationale has outworn its usefulness as the major paradigm for curriculum planning' (Macdonald & Purpel, 1980, p. 5).

It is important to note that Tyler (1983) also espoused evolving definitions of goals because of previously mentioned social changes. Whether or not it was intentional, the moral dimension enters the arena.

School experiences may have lasting effects on values, attitudes and behavior. . . . A common practice when planning curriculum is to refer to published taxonomies. Taxonomies can be useful for their original purpose--clarifying goals already formulated-but they do not resolve the issue of relevance of any particular goal to contemporary society or to one's own students (Brandt & Tyler, 1983, p. 43).

Although few issues in education today are more controversial than the evaluation of teachers and teaching, there appears to be agreement that the quality of instruction needs to be improved and better evaluated. Educators do agree that the "overall purpose /of evaluation is to safeguard and improve the quality of instruction" (McGreal, 1983, p. vii.). The leading educators of the present seem concerned with finding the answers to questions that underlie theories of evaluation because the needed changes are both "internal to the schools and external to the larger society" (Campbell, 1983, p. 5), and the question of evaluation remains unanswered.

During the last ten years, more and more research has shown specific ways that teachers are effective in the classroom (Hunter, 1979). As Hunter (1979) says, "Professional decision making...is a far cry from

the 'dedicated and loves kids' product of many teacher education programs." A recent study by a group at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill is the Carolina Teaching Performance Assessment System (CTPAS, 1985). It is a summary of the research basis for each of 28 practices that provide the groundwork for 'Effective Teacher Training," the model that is now replacing the NCPAS as a means of evaluation. The research in this document clearly summarizes that characteristics of good teaching are known. Because the CTPAS calls for yet another new method of evaluating those practices, the question remains concerning the best way to judge a teacher's performance.

### Summary and Conclusions of Overview of Evaluation

In attempting to weave together an overview of evaluation in America, I found no prior review of the literature that had traced evaluation specifically from the advent of schooling through to the present. In bringing this overview of evaluation together, it seems that certain threads run throughout the fabric or rubric of what we label evaluation.

The process or attempt to evaluate performance seems to be inherent in the concept of one or more persons being assigned responsibility for the education of others. While the values of the group assigning that responsibility change from those of a colonial church community in 1650, to a common school in 1840, to a state-supported school system in 1930, the problems that apparently cause evaluation techniques to continually change have changed little.

During the first 200 years of education in America, teachers were judged by one or more lay persons who were assigned the autonomous

task of deciding whether or not a teacher should be re-hired. The decisions seemed to be subjective, based primarily on whether or not the teacher had represented the beliefs of the community. The teachers, who lacked professional status, had little if any input and were subject to local control.

During the 1800's as states became more involved in education, standards for what should be taught began to evolve. Although the standards often varied according to the predominant beliefs of those who lived within a particular state, evaluation practices began to originate as more definitive ideas about teaching emerged. Teachers still had little input, and the common law practices remained prevalent.

The influence of Horace Mann, the industrial revolution, and military techniques influenced evaluation after 1800. Leading to this change in the early 1800's was the idea of individualism and romanticism. The new philosophy of education that was expressed in the context of free public schools within the now free Republic began a change process and debate that centered on the need for a standardized way of evaluating teaching.

Not only were state governments more involved in evaluation of education, but also federal government began entering the picture. State boards of education and the concept of supervisors emerged as national trends by 1850. Formalized practices began to emerge as early as 1900, and systematization began an apparent trend. Superintendents and supervisors were recognized by 1900 as those assigned by the state to assume responsibility for education. During these early years when evaluators were attempting to define their roles, America was

involved in the developing scientific movement and in international battles; and education assumed a secondary role in the sense that other problems were more pressing. While outstanding educators continued to study public schools, it was not until Tyler's Eight Year Study that the nation seemed impacted by the need for improvement.

Since the 1940's ongoing efforts have been made by individuals, state agencies, institutes, universities, and federal agencies to understand the process of teaching as it relates to the seemingly inherent process of evaluating teaching. The launching of Sputnik by Russia in 1957 gave Americans a reason to be alarmed about the quality of education. Since the early 1960's the public and government agencies have expressed increasing concern that we need to re-study the concepts of teaching as well as the processes for evaluating the results.

The overview of evaluation does not seem to be pejorative; in fact, it seems to be positive in the sense that evaluation of teaching has evolved with the nation's ideas that all people deserve an education and local groups have private rights but not group control. Social changes have added to the challenges to education during the post-1950 years; however, the optimism lies in the number of recent writers who seek the answers for the future without negating the past. The overview of evaluation seems important if anyone who seriously studies the question attempts to find a simple solution. Like the overview, the history is complex and overlapping as the areas of teaching and evaluating teaching are overlapping.

#### Evaluation as an Educational Practice

#### A Controversial State of the Art

The very concept of evaluation of human beings implies complications because the idea of one person judging another leaves "a wake of dissatisfaction and doubt that the process is fair, thorough, or effective" (Jenson, 1980, p. 36). Even well-developed appraisal systems can be primitive administrative art and can result in dissatisfaction if they are inappropriately used or not part of an understood philosophy.

In the field of education, evaluation is a source of controversy because the state of the art is continually changing. Not only is the issue of performance appraisal very subjective, but it raises questions in relationship to purpose. In education, what is expected to occur as the result of required evaluation? While the answer is easier in industry, it is complicated and diverse in education. "The field of educational evaluation is a hotbed of activity" (Hosford, 1984, p. 124), with practices remaining diverse and developmental.

Industrial research in evaluation practices has contributed to changes in educational practices. For example, one goal of the NCPAS is that its use will improve performance. Whether or not an annual, summative appraisal can accomplish this is questioned by a study that was done by the General Electric Company. A study of General Electric's appraisal system concluded that a detailed evaluation of a worker's performance by a manager was of questionable value in relationship to improving performance (Deal and Celotti, 1978). In fact, the more criticism a person received, the greater the defensive

reactions seemed to become. Not only did this study analyze the threat to self-esteem resulting from strong criticism, but it also established an inverse relationship between productivity and appraisal criticism. The most criticized employees showed less goal achievement 10 to 20 weeks later than those who received fewer critical comments. The idea of developmental evaluations with long-range goals was proposed as an alternative to summative appraisals with short-term annual goals (Sashkin, 1981) and is one recommendation to avoid or offset negative perceptions by evaluatees.

Educational research (Deal and Celotti, 1978) supports the conclusions of Sashkin's industrial research that evaluation has little effect on improving performance if it is not part of a systems approach. The study goes a step further by stating that the three levels of educational organizations--district, school, and classroom-operate independently as do individuals on each level. Where does this conclusion leave administrators who wish to influence what happens behind classroom doors? To believe that the state can mandate improvement of performance, that the local administration can adopt procedures to meet the state's goal, that principals can evaluate teachers to carry out the local board's objectives, that supervisors can provide help to teachers with specialized needs identified by principals, all assume that underlying these activities is a tightly knit, connected organization. The opposite is true according to Deal and Celotti (1978) who concluded that methods of classroom instruction are virtually unaffected by organizational or administrative factors because the district, school, and classroom, as well as the individuals in these settings, operate independently. This three-year research

project included 34 school districts in California. Administrators and teachers in 103 schools were interviewed and asked to complete questionnaires twice to describe organizational impact. By comparing the perceptions, Deal and Celotti (1978) concluded that classroom instruction was unaffected by size, wealth, evaluation processes, or the leadership style of the superintendent. The idea of the classroom as a relatively autonomous unit shielded from formal influence by the central office or principal raises some critical concerns about evaluation processes in public schools.

### Complications Involving Personnel Decisions

The use of evaluations to rank teachers for merit pay further complicates the cloudy issue of performance appraisal. When a local system decides to reward outstanding performance, the key issue has to include evaluation (South, 1980, p. 31). Ranking of staff, by each principal, must be a part of the evaluation in order to judge who deserves reward or re-hiring. While this system often appeals to school boards and superintendents, as it did to Superintendent Jack Hunt of the Paradise Valley Unified School District in Phoenix (South, 1980), it rankles unions, teachers, and many principals. Teachers often feel threatened by their relationship to the principal and competitive with their colleagues. The main objections by principals are that ranking precludes having all acceptable teachers and destroys unity.

When the NCPAS was mandated, the ideas of using it for re-hiring and for merit pay were anticipated quickly by the NC Association for Education (NCAE). Teachers in NC wanted to know who would be conducting evaluations, exactly how the process would work, and how the results

would be used (Martin, 1982). The present attempt to change and standardize the NC method of evaluating all personnel is a reflection of political assumptions that appraisal can improve performance and instruction and that the results can be used to make personnel decisions. Nevertheless, this assumption is one that continues to be debated and studied by those interested in evaluation.

A 1981 Superior Court Case (Register, Tharrington, Smith, & Hargrove, 1982) describes the dilemma from a school system's point of view. The case, Nestler vs. Chapel Hill/Carboro City School Boards of Education, was appealed to the Superior Court by Clyde H. Nestler who felt that he had been unfairly terminated from his teaching position on the basis of an inadequate appraisal process.

Dr. Nestler appealed the Board's decision to the Superior Court and presented two arguments in favor of his petition for reinstatement. First, he contended that the statutory standard permitting dismissal on the grounds of inadequate performance was unconstitutionally vague. He claimed that the statutory language does not provide teachers with sufficient notice of improper or unsatisfactory behavior and that imposition of the inadequate performance standard is therefore an unconstitutional denial of due process. As his second argument, Dr. Nestler claimed the Board's decision was not supported by substantial evidence as required by North Carolina General Statute 150A-51. This argument was primarily based on the fact that no objective measurements were used to establish the inadequacy of Dr. Nestler's instructional methodology and that some of the specific criticisms of Dr. Nestler's teaching were based on information obtained from secondhand sources. Superior Court held for Dr. Nestler and ordered his reinstatement. . . . The decision of the Superior Court in the Nestler case strikes at the heart of the North Carolina dismissal statute, North Carolina General Statute 115C-325 (Register, et al., 1982).

This court case is indicative of one major reason behind the NC legislature's mandate to the NC State Board of Education to adopt and implement a statewide, standardized system. At the time of this case there was 'no reported case which provided a detailed definition of any

general grounds for teacher dismissal" (Register, et al., 1982). The Nestler decision was reversed by the NC Court of Appeals; NC schools were the first required to define inadequate performance in objective terms, in effect, to develop a specific code of professional conduct for teachers. On February 7, 1984, the NC Court of Appeals held that there was substantial evidence to support the board's decision to terminate Dr. Nestler and the inadequate performance standard was not unconstitutionally vague as applied to him (The Network, 1984). In the wake of the dilemma was the challenge to implement a statewide, standardized method of teacher appraisal rather than each LEA developing its own method.

# The Pressing Issues

The issue is not really whether or not Nestler or the state was right or wrong in this decision but whether or not an evaluation or appraisal system can be developed or implemented to improve performance. One extreme view is that teaching has not been clearly defined; thus, the underlying flaw in evaluation is the assumption that "good" teaching can be scientifically measured.

The scientific flaw is that any . . . classroom observation involves observing and judging style . . . that observation and judgment involve an assumption regarding whether or not what is observed represents good teaching (Scriven, 1980, p. 9).

Scriven (1980) points out that over 2,000 studies on teaching style have not resulted in identifying the criteria by which it can be validly judged. Another observer emphasizes that the processes traditionally used to assess teaching become very preoccupied with the preciseness and circumvent or avoid the examination of teaching

(O'Kane, 1981). Assessment is done 'with little hesitation, with no humility, and with a great deal of arrogance built upon our collective enthrallment with the 'rational' objective claims of scientism . . . " (O'Kane, 1981). While these views are embraced by many of today's writers, there are other educational writers who continue to seek answers through evaluating what is known about teaching and the process of instruction. To study evaluation as a practice requires one to recognize the paucity of inconclusive results about measuring good teaching, but this does not preclude the ongoing positive attempts to find solutions for effective appraisal. It does imply a need to examine more than a scientific approach. As Bruner (1983) stated, "Significant learning combines the logical and the intuitive, the intellect and the feeling, the concept and the experience, the idea and the meaning" (p. 8). This type of basis for curriculum would be difficult to evaluate in the standard ways that are traditionally known. It is for this reason that attempts continue to be made to define teaching in order to define appropriate appraisal.

The issue of an evaluator's discerning good teaching is one that dominates recent literature on evaluation as an educational practice. Hilliard (1984) stated the belief that there is a "real crisis in educational evaluation" (p. 115). The root of the problem is the controversy over whether teaching is an art or a science; the reasons and methods for performance appraisal vary widely depending on how this question is answered. As Hilliard (1984) and other leading curriculum writers believe, the crisis is not due to the lack of systems of datagathering; it is due to conflicting, competing philosophies and theories

of education. The research to discover the qualities of good teaching has been preponderant; sadly, agreement on consistent outcomes has not been found.

It is . . . a sad commentary about our educational system that it keeps announcing publicly and privately that good and poor teaching cannot be distinguished. . . . Probably no issue in education has been so voluminously researched as has teacher effectiveness and conditions which enhance or restrict this effectiveness. Nonetheless, we still read that we cannot tell the good guys from the bad guys (Hamacheck, 1968, p. 191).

Considering the fact that principals or supervisors are given the job (daily) of making important decisions about performance, it is a hopeful sign that researchers continue to seek answers that might make the task of appraisal easier. Not only is the present job or job description of an evaluator confusing, but also the tasks that person faces are overwhelming. To compound the problem, the state of the LEA periodically changes the system by which personnel should be appraised in a legitimate attempt to improve the process. Considering the time limitations, the question of whether or not there is sufficient in-service education for the job required continues to be important. When the leading research does not indicate to evaluators what "best practices" they are appraising and the job responsibilities reduce evaluation to a low priority, problems seem sure to exist. Considering the responsibility that an evaluator has, along with the unanswered questions about evaluation, it is not surprising that anxiety exists among those involved in the process.

Other recent research has resulted in similar concerns about appraisal of teachers. McLaughlin (1982) investigated educational evaluation practices in 32 LEAs in 24 states. The LEAs were selected

through Rand research as ones that represented systems believed to have well-developed evaluation practices. Discussion of the study was based on data collected from the individuals who had primary responsibility for teacher evaluations, LEA goal statements, evaluation instruments, collective bargaining agreements, and state legislation, if evaluation was state-mandated. The LEAs considered to have quality appraisal systems shared the following characteristics: (a) mature teaching force (average of 14 years of service); (b) financial retrenchment, reducing staff due to declining enrollment; (c) teacher organizations in 25 of the 30 LFAs, with set procedural policy about evaluation. In all districts the existing evaluation practices were the result of dissatisfaction with previous systems that were described as too informal, too inconsistent, and too subjective. Interestingly, teachers had been the main proponents for the initiation of less antiquated systems. McLaughlin's data yielded four broad goals perceived by educators in connection with evaluation. Included were personnel decisions, staff development, school improvement and accountability. Differences in the McLaughlin study reflected different weighting applied by LEAs to one or more of the goals, usually due to a particular program used as a model for the system (e.g., Redfern or Hunter). As is the case in other recognized studies on teacher performance, McLaughlin was able to identify criteria for teacher competence in the following five areas: (a) teacher procedures; (b) classroom management; (c) knowledge of subject matter; (d) personal characteristics; and (e) professional responsibility.

The differences that McLaughlin (1982) found were also similar to conclusions drawn in other studies. Only 10 of the 30 LEAs responded

that the evaluators had a high intensity of preparation for the job assigned. A wide variety existed in the number of times a district required evaluation, ranging from twice a month for nontenured teachers to every four years (when contracts were due) for tenured teachers. Although broad goals were very similar, the instruments designed for appraisal were found to be substantially different. One of McLaughlin's interesting findings was that 22 of the 30 LEAs placed moderate or low emphasis on curriculum guides incorporated into teacher evaluation. "Given that curriculum guides /were/ fairly well developed . . . this diversity suggests variation in district coordination of instructional management and evaluation" (McLaughlin, p. 10).

The summary by McLaughlin (1982) suggests the concern by many reconceptualists that a philosophic problem exists in connection with evaluation practices. Although broad practices look the same, they diverge as local decisions and even school-based choices are made.

McLaughlin (1982) used not only his study but also a thorough review of the literature in concluding:

Scant agreement about instrumentation, frequency of evaluation, and the role of the teacher in the process exists . . . there is little consensus about 'best practice.' . . . It points to the fact that teacher evaluation presently is an underconceptualized and underdeveloped activity. . . . To this point, although almost all districts investigated had one or more particularly strong features, only a few districts had teacher evaluation practices that appeared to represent a well developed system in which relationships among various evaluation activities were thought through, and relationships between teacher evaluation and other district practices were established (pp. 11-12).

The dilemma continues to challenge educators to solve the evaluation problem. At the same time, a battle exists that has more to do with whether education has defined good teaching rather than

how performance will be evaluated. One extreme view suggests that objective measures are impossible. One alternative is for students to evaluate the instructor, basing the appraisal on satisfaction and amount learned; another is for the educator to conduct a self-evaluation. Peer evaluations have periodically enjoyed popularity. Researchers continue to find fault with any single method and tend to seek approaches that are more theoretical, conceptual, and systems-oriented.

To define teaching excellence in certain ways because those are the ways that can readily be measured is to allow the methodology to wag the question. This error has been compared to that of the man who, although he had lost his watch in the middle of a dark block, searched for it at the corner because there was a street light there (Rodin, 1975, p. 60).

The extreme view of an alternative to a formal appraisal by a designated evaluator is not as unusual in universities as it is in public schools. The faculty council at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG) states the following:

The present state of knowledge concerning the methodology of evaluating teaching does not permit reliable and valid rankings or ratings of teaching quality on any continuous scale. However, faculty members can be placed with acceptable reliability into one of four categories of teaching effectiveness—unacceptable, acceptable, superior and distinguished (Faculty Handbook, 1981).

The <u>ad hoc</u> Committee on Teacher Evaluation at UNCG stated seven other premises in the Supplement to Section IV of the Faculty Handbook (1982) along with recommendations for professors to be placed in one of the four categories. Reflecting their concern about evaluation practices in education, the committee emphasized the need to consider multi-assessment and not a single rating by students, peers, self, grades or other single criterion. For classification, as distinguished

by superior, and satisfactory, similar characteristics defined by other recognized research are used as determinants. The <u>ad hoc</u> committee's report is representative of the fact that evaluation cannot be a simple process, completely objective, or based on a single instrument. The practice of educational evaluation continues to be a developing concept with unanswered questions about the best practices.

During the past decade, complicating the problem, the public and the press have demanded answers to the unanswered questions about how to improve schools. While these efforts have addressed a variety of school activities and operations, there seems to be increasing emphasis on improving teacher performance as a key to improving overall quality (Smith, 1980). Interest in evaluation of schools has been heightened by the efforts of the state and federal governments and the interest of the public. Underlying this movement of accountability remains the question of how conceptualized the theory of evaluation is and whether or not appraisal can improve the quality of schools.

Perhaps, as Reilly (1983) at UNCG suggests, the problems are more complicated because the universities are not drawing quality students in schools of education. Reilly proposes sweeping changes that would preclude mediocre students from entering education. His view represents another dimension of evaluation. If education is not drawing potential teachers of high scholastic caliber, what is any appraisal system expected to accomplish?

What I am really talking about is a restructuring of American education. . . . It has to start in the training institutions . . . and it has to start with the public . . . the first step is to get poor teachers out of the schools and stop the wholesale production of poor teachers by closing inferior schools of education (Reilly, 1983, p. B).

The practice of evaluation has deeper implications than the choice of a state-adopted instrument. As Reilly suggests, there is a need for researchers to continue to investigate the issue.

The fear that evaluation is viewed as a panacea to a more serious problem of mediocre professionals is reinforced by other curriculum writers. "It is . . . a generally accepted but unpublished view that insofar as teaching can be judged, most teachers are not excellent; indeed, most are considered competent or adequate at best" (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 22). When teaching salaries are not competitive with other entry-level professions, with or without four or more years of college, fewer superior students are choosing to major in education. Mosher & Purpel (1972) conducted a thorough review of literature and restated what has been found through research; teachers have lower scores on standardized intelligence tests than do others in different professions.

The fact that education offers few rewards is evident in Linda B. Lee's choice to leave education and sell real estate, after being named N.C. Teacher of the Year in 1980. Her frustration, after 19 years of teaching, centered on the lack of rewards and the state's inability to focus realistically on the problems facing education.

Four years ago, Linda B. Lee was North Carolina's Teacher of the Year. Now she sells real estate.

The change came this year, after 19 years as a high school English teacher, most of them with the Burlington schools. Frustrated by the low salaries paid to public school teachers and the large number of students packed into the classrooms, Mrs. Lee, 43, of Burlington, chose to shut the textbooks and start selling houses.

'There were so many things that I wanted to fix and I couldn't fix them,' Mrs. Lee said in a recent interview. 'What really

struck me was that with all the changes, all the reports, all the commissions and all the ink, we've done nothing to improve the lot of what's going on in the classroom. I really grew weary of fighting the battle.'

One of the main reasons Mrs. Lee gave for leaving a profession she loved was the salary. After 19 years, she was earning \$18,075 a year, or slightly more than \$2,000 a month for the nine-month school year. So far this month, she has doubled that monthly figure in her new job (Frustrated over Pay, 1984, p. 2B).

Another frustration expressed by Lee (Frustrated over Pay, 1984) is the continual effort by government to change the system without solving the real problems. Although the NCPAS was introduced as recently as the fall of 1982, a career ladder is now being proposed as a new plan.

A proposed career ladder plan expected to be considered by the N.C. General Assembly in 1985 will not improve the lot of teachers, she said. Instead, she said it will result in teachers who become quasi-administrators so they can earn more money.

'We're too far into it to make a change,' she said. 'It would tost the state too much money to bring class sizes to a teachable level. It's going to cost more money than they're /legislators/willing to pay' (Frustrated over Pay, 1984, p. 2B).

# Defining Teaching

The snake again raises its ugly head as the questions about evaluation are asked. The need for improving instruction and quality exists, but "the magnitude of the need for supervision—for teaching teachers how to teach—is so immense that it almost screams impossible" (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 22). Accompanying this problem is education's tendency to continue seeking change without following through or addressing the issues defined by those in the field.

One of the issues related to evaluation practices continues to be whether or not educators have defined teaching in order to evaluate it or to know what changes to make. Basically, little disagreement exists in the literature about the qualities that are the benchmarks of a good teacher. Although the characteristics may vary slightly, Hosford (1984) summarizes the characteristics found in major studies. A superior teacher has a sound "foundational knowledge base" (Hosford, p. 141) and stays well informed in the subject matter teaching field. A superior teacher has a theoretical understanding of human development—cognitive and emotional. Planning and organization are keys in lessons. The needs of individuals are met through diagnostic procedures and a variety of teaching and evaluation techniques. Hosford does embrace the concept, not found by all in the review of the literature but found in more recent writings, that a superior teacher has a feel, an artistic grace.

The genius of the artistic teacher is not predetermined by genetics. To be sure, genetics may preclude some, but the superior teacher is not 'born.' Training and experience make essential contributions to the development of the functioning superior teacher. Superior teachers must become what they are (Hosford, p. 142).

The battle to define teaching as either a science or an art seems academic in the sense that even an art is not instantly mastered by the artist. There are learning experiences, studies of the past, and practices that have helped establish the profession. Thus, it seems unending to debate whether teaching is a science or an art in order to know how to evaluate it. After a half century researchers agree that we do not know. We know much about those characteristics that typify good teaching, but whether or not we know how to evaluate "good" teaching remains questionable. This implies two viewpoints that must be considered equally in order to analyze evaluation practices.

On one hand Popham (1971), Moody & Bausell (1971), Travers (1973) and others have concluded that teachers make very little difference and that studies have produced little evidence that a teacher impacts student learning. "Another viewpoint asserts there is substantial evidence that teachers do make a difference with regard to student outcomes" (Ornstein, 1982, p. 63). Since 1979, Good & Brophy have contributed to insight about ways to judge teacher performance. Their studies have identified the following factors as being responsible for student learning:

- 1. Variety in the use of teaching methods and media
- 2. Teacher enthusiasm
- 3. "With-it-ness," awareness of what is going on, alertness in monitoring classroom activities
- 4. "Overlapping," sustaining an activity while doing something else at the same time
- 5. "Smoothness," sustaining proper lesson pacing and group momentum
  - 6. Holding students accountable for learning
- 7. Realistic teacher expectation in line with student abilities and behaviors
  - 8. Realistic praise, not praise for its own sake
  - 9. Flexibility in planning and adopting classroom activities
  - 10. Task orientation and businesslike behavior
  - 11. Indirectness
  - 12. Student opportunity to learn what is being tested
- 13. Teacher comments that help structure learning of knowledge and concepts

Good, Brophy, Flanders, Gage and others have provided a framework for evaluating teachers. The controversy "over what effects a teacher is called upon to produce" does not disappear and "is representative of a larger problem in social science, a problem that calls attention to the complexity of human behavior" (Ornstein, 1982, p. 68). This explains why evaluation practices have always been difficult and changing.

With few exceptions, research studies have failed "to correlate measures of the teacher's attitudes or values, adjustment, needs, personality factors or intelligence with ratings of teacher effectiveness" (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 37). Scientifically validated data have not been found to indicate to evaluators exactly what can be measured objectively. Although scientific approaches have been sought, no single theory of evaluation has been developed without criticism.

Supervisors want a knowledge base to free them from charges of personal arbitrariness in their supervisory practice. Teachers, even though they at times disdain the results of scientific inquiry into teaching, see the need for such activity, if only to strengthen the myth that teaching is a profession as evidenced by the use of scientifically validated procedures which are not possessed by and which cannot always be judged objectively (Sergiovanni, 1982, p. 31).

While researchers continue to seek the ideal evaluation methods that measure educational performance, the research to date has been inconclusive in showing the extent to which appraisal leads to improvement. One reason that research has not influenced the improvement of teaching may be that studies have concentrated primarily on teaching behaviors such as time on task rather than the quality of the task (Doyle, 1977) or enthusiasm (Good, 1975). Teaching involves more than can be scientifically measured, and the issue of judgment

by the evaluator continues to emerge. Instead of seeking a scientific solution with authoritativeness, Doyle (1977) suggests that a reconstructed framework defining effective teaching be constructed from facts, theory, and practical insight about what happens in a classroom.

The need for a reconceptualized understanding of teaching is one that underlies the difficulties in defining supervision and evaluation.

The difficulty of defining supervision in relation to education also stems, in large part, from unsolved theoretical problems about teaching. Quite simply, we lack sufficient understanding of the process of teaching. Our theories of learning are inadequate, the criteria for measuring teaching effectiveness are imprecise, and deep disagreement exists about what knowledge—that is, what curriculum—is most valuable to teach. There is no generally agreed upon definition of what teaching is or of how to measure its effects (Mosher & Purpel, 1972).

Before teaching was adequately defined, the industrial notion of scientific management of behavior arose and education adopted appraisal approaches to see that employees were performing satisfactorily.

The word <u>supervision</u> was originally used in the industrial context (Eisner, 1982).

Factories and offices have supervisors whose job it is to see that other employees perform their jobs as prescribed.... One of the basic tenets of scientific management as formulated by Frederick Taylor around the turn of the century was that efficiency could be greatly increased in industrial settings if the behavior of the worker could be scientifically managed (Sergiovanni, 1982, p. 54).

What Eisner (1982) and others suggest is that a new examination of teaching needs accompany more than the measurement or ranking of performance and individuals. A beginning has been made during the past twenty years through a shift toward educational theory generating its own language. Colleagueship, consultation, partnership, and

other terms have replaced hierarchal terms like supervision. Leaders in curriculum are recognizing the importance of language if teaching is to be redefined. If the conceptualization emerges as an integration of the scientific, clinical, and artistic views, a search for meaning will be an added dimension (Sergiovanni, 1982).

I /Sergiovanni) have suggested that the problems of supervision and evaluation of teaching need to be addressed in a fashion that emphasizes interpretation and meaning. Developing accurate and objective records of the real world of teaching as defined by the canons of objectivity would be only part of the process. Of no less importance would be the subjective world of teaching. The phenomenological life of the classroom, teaching as expressions of cultural, and hermeneutical inquiry are the areas that should now receive our attention . . . as a method of analysis /for/ evaluation of teaching (Sergiovanni, 1982, p. 75).

Recent research studies have supported the idea of viewing teaching and evaluation in a redefined way. Like most educational change, the process is a gradual one that has been built on previous research. Flanders (1964) has been influential in applying the work of Stake, Stufflebeam, Hammond and other educational evaluation theorists who have been proponents of evaluation reflecting more than formal, objective data gathering. Flanders' work is important because he developed a system for studying dialogue within a classroom and the effects of the interaction among teacher and pupils. Flanders began examining the quality of the verbal interactions rather than the percentage of time that the teacher talked. During the past two decades educational evaluation practices have changed very little although the evidence has steadily mounted to indicate that evaluation practices are ineffective.

The importance of Ralph Tyler's work in curriculum and evaluation theory cannot be denied; but too often educators in charge of

evaluation seem to fail to move beyond an objective, behavioral approach. The idea of the evaluator as a curriculum specialist who evaluates as part of curriculum development (Worthen & Sanders, 1973) is one that assumes that "curriculum is equated with only the technical matter of achieving certain ends" (Gress & Purpel, 1978). Evaluators appraise what Macdonald (1966) calls instruction defined as "imparting of information, knowledge, or skill" rather than "the interaction between persons, materials, ideas, performances, and objects of the contrived curriculum environment." Using this framework for evaluation, teaching is viewed in a Labor mode; teaching activities are scientifically planned, 'programmatically organized, and routinized in the form of standard operating procedures" (Mitchell & Kerchner, 1981, p. 35). Perhaps too often practiced today, this Tylerian model focuses on the behavior of the teacher in following prescribed objectives, with the primary measurement being the attairment of set student outcomes. The evaluator is an administrator or supervisor who determines whether or not goals are met in a direct concrete formal way.

As early as the 1950's, curriculum writers began expanding the concept of teaching to include professional standards and the possession of specialized skills other than teaching content. The evaluator is viewed as a manager who indirectly monitors what the evaluatee is expected to do, knowing that the performance standards make the tasks clear and detailed.

This view of teaching work assumes that general rules for applying specific techniques can be developed, and that proper use of the rules combined with knowledge of the techniques will produce the desired outcomes (Darling-Hammond, Linda, Wise, A.E., & Pease, Sara R., 1982, p. 22).

This concept assumes that teaching involves methods that can be learned through a training program; thus, the evaluation practice is one that measures performance of skills that can be observed along with student outcomes.

In Darling-Hammond's (et al., 1982) review of the literature on teacher evaluation, the conception of teaching as a <u>profession</u> and <u>an art</u> closely resembles what Macdonald (1966) and others define as teaching as opposed to instruction.

Currently, teaching is regarded as a multifaceted process that may take a variety of forms of relating to another--both giving and receiving, rewarding and punishing and challenging, directing and observing, and many more, if done with the deliberate purpose of helping another to understand and deal with his world (Gress & Purpel, 1972, p. 23).

Within this framework of teaching, an evaluator becomes a consultant in the truest sense of the word. The language does seem to change because the definition brings a different meaning to the term teaching. Teaching requires adherence to standards, knowledge of subject matter, awareness of objectives, but also interaction (dialogue) among those engaged in the process. "Teaching is seen as not only requiring a repertoire of specialized technique but also as requiring the exercise of judgment about when those techniques should be applied" (Shavelson, 1976; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). This approach is what Macdonald would call teacher education as opposed to teacher training. The professional is asked to solve problems, make decisions, choose among alternatives, view an environment larger than the objectives for mastery of a content area. The teacher as an artist becomes one human being interacting with another, exploring a field for the knowns and unknowns. Not all of student outcomes are predictable,

and the teacher assumes responsibility for the inquiry that occurs. An earlier leader in developing this concept was Broudy (1956) who emphasized the responsibility that must be assumed by educators who choose to adopt teaching as a profession. No longer is a programmed format followed and either met or not met. 'We ask him /teacher to take total responsibility for both strategy and outcomes" (Broudy, 1956, p. 182). By nature of this framework, the evaluator must be a post-Tyler thinker. The collegial approach must include dialogue and inquiry because this is the model being judged. The failure to change evaluation to match definitions of teaching has clouded the understanding of teaching because those who believe one ideology know they are judged by another. Within the context of educational evaluation practices, it is frightening that presently used methods are too often authoritarian, administrative, behavioristic, and supervisory; appraisal systems should be more conducive to reinforcing the teacher who enjoys open-ended inquiry as a means of teaching.

To define teaching as an art is not to ignore techniques, skills, objectives, outcomes, or convention. A misunderstanding has occurred because this type of teaching does not divorce itself from science. The teaching art involves

a process that calls for intuition, creativity, improvisation, and expressiveness—a process that leaves little room for departures from what is implied by rules, formulas, and algorithms (Gage, 1978, p. 15).

The real problem that teaching implies, if defined as an <u>art</u>, is that the teacher must be autonomous in the sense of being theoretically grounded yet willing to diverge within the curriculum in order to meet the needs of students. Within this context, evaluation must consider

self-assessment and assessment by peers and students (Darling-Hammond, 1982), including "the study of holistic qualities rather than analytically derived quantities, the use of 'inside' rather than externally objective points of view' (Gage, 1978, p. 15). It appears that evaluators should use more than a state-mandated appraisal instrument because the uniqueness of teaching and the personal qualities of teaching, relying on high inference, are equally important.

The view assumes that teaching patterns (i.e., holistic qualities that pervade a teacher's approach) can be recognized and assessed by using both internal and external referents of validity (Darling-Hammond).

Additional review would be needed to fully understand the varied practices of evaluation. The influence of Tyler and of evaluation theorists could be carefully researched to match theories with concepts of teaching. Definitely, the theory and process of change in education in connection with evaluation procedures could be followed. The fact that NC moves from merit pay, tenure statutes, the NCPAS, to a presently proposed career ladder indicates the possibility that more emphasis should be placed on follow-up to ideas that are implemented with political interest and educational hopes of finding panaceas.

While no practice of educational evaluation exists in a pure form, it seems conclusive that educators have not agreed upon the definition of the profession they attempt to evaluate. Because each of the presently existing concepts of teaching implies a different means of evaluation, the state of the art remains confusing and paradoxical. Recognized writers lead the field in different arenas. Popham (1964) adheres to appraising teaching based on objective student performance. Millman (1981) and others seem to hold this objective view. On the

other hand, re-conceptualists or conceptualists who are still trying to define teaching look for a formative and personal way of changing the system. A conclusion that re-conceptionalists make is that those in the field of curriculum 'have failed to conduct the empirical research needed to clarify the nature of the phenomena and problems we address" (Gress & Purpel, 1972, p. 510).

Educational evaluation remains a clouded issue that suffers because terms have not been clearly identified. When evaluators "talk as though they have a clear-cut, written curriculum when all they really have is a set of vague assumptions about what is being taught" (Shutes, 1981, p. 21), it is unlikely that appraisal practices will impact changes in performance in the next decade. The NCPAS is similar to the systems used by most LEAs in evaluating teacher performance although it, like many other proposals, was introduced as a new method.

#### Evaluation for Merit Pay or Career Steps

Most educational evaluation systems, like the NCPAS, recognize one primary reason for the existence of evaluation. The intent is to improve instruction and teacher effectiveness. This purpose accounts for 99 percent of evaluation efforts (Ross, 1981). The second purpose is to terminate poor teachers, but that effort comprises only one percent of the evaluation effort. The breakdown by Ross seems logical because fewer than one percent of teachers in the U.S. are fired annually. The emphasis of an evaluation is to promote effective teacher performance, to recognize good teachers, and to encourage all teachers to upgrade their skills. Although state legislatures have

become more involved in mandating systems for appraisal, often in conjunction with certification, tenure, and merit pay, the basic outcomes of these efforts have produced insignificant change.

Research has failed to show consistently any significant improvement in performance as the result of appraisal or rating efforts. 'Most school rating schemes have evolved as descriptions of so-called ideal practices which have little or no basis in instructional theory or research" (Link, 1969, p. 172). Merit pay was a concept that evolved from outside pressure and industrial influence. The concept still enjoys popularity at large but is unpopular in the field of education because it too often results in practices that intimidate teachers and create competition among colleagues with no real, objective measures. One "question involved is whether we . . . want a type of authoritarian evaluation which guides individuals into unquestioning obedience and submissiveness to persons superior in status" (Link, p. 174). A second issue presented by Link and others who analyze merit pay is the degree of tension and anxiety produced by the concept of colleagues being ranked for purposes of reward and punishment. Too often the result with merit pay systems seems to be that individuals and systems have spent years overcoming the iatrogenic effects. Teachers object and react hostilely toward evaluation that classifies people into different categories of adequate or excellent because these are terms specific to situations as well as to people. Yet, the NC Career Ladder, piloted in 1985-86, used this concept.

Rewarding performance through merit pay based on evaluation results has not proved feasible in the past, yet President Ronald Reagan has

chosen merit pay as a major issue, and state legislatures are proposing the method again.

Merit pay is an idea whose time has come--not because the benefits have been researched and documented and not because teachers strongly support this drastic change. Instead, merit pay for teachers is now a priority interest because it has become a political issue (Dodd, 1984, p. 23).

Respected theorists of change like Sarason (1972), Shane (1977), Comer (1980), Goodlad (1966), and others have documented the ineffectiveness of change imposed on one system by another. 'Merit pay plans have been tried unsuccessfully in several states, including Florida, NC, and Utah' (Dodd). They failed because they were not initiated and planned by educators, because of faulty evaluation procedures, and because of the adverse effects of the competition created among professionals. Yet, states and LEAs are again moving into merit plans appearing to make the same mistakes.

In August, 1984, the NC legislature warned that it would not support further increases in teacher pay until a career development program was implemented (Career Plan for Teachers). The NC Board of Education has approved a new program that was piloted in 1985-86 and will be implemented in 1986-87. This displaces the short-lived priority given to the NCPAS, piloted in 1981-82 and implemented as recently as 1982-83. The career development plan calls for creation of five career steps--initial, provisional, and career status I, II, and III (Career Plan for Teachers). Each career step will bring a 10 percent salary increase based on demonstrated excellence in teaching and added job responsibilities. A new instrument and practices for appraisal will accompany the adoption of the career plan. Part of

this is a required 30-hour workshop, "Effective Teacher Training," to be completed by every educator in NC during the 1936-87 school year. Additional training will be required for administrators.

Although few leaders in education doubt that change is needed, the fear arises that what is viewed as new may not be new or better but may be the "exchange of one burden or disadvantage for another" (Comer, 1980, xii). Again, we experience the idea of a proposed change, and the question about its effectiveness will need to be answered.

Common failures that schools encounter in attempting changes are cited by educational theorists who study the process of change. Too many programs have been reactions to political furor, like Sputnik, but most of these were not implemented with adequate planning or attention to the feelings or relationships of those involved (Comer, 1980).

Many educational changes have been proposed and some have been effected since the 1950's but to describe what has been happening to the schools as 'revolutionary' would be overstating the case. The talk far exceeds the achievement (Goodlad, 1966, p. 11).

Goodlad (1966) and others provide harsh criticism of change, and in viewing evaluation practices and trends much relevance exists and is worthy of examination. The NC Career Ladder does not seem to be a paradigm shift but a revision of merit pay and possibly an incorporation of the NCPAS. The phenomenon that Goodlad (1966) calls a determination to seek an end prevents the development of "external criterion against which to judge the effectiveness of the new and old" (p. 94). Another dangerous aspect of change theory that educational planners seem to underestimate is the predictable problem of loss of

enthusiasm. At first "the excitement is easily generated by a sense of mission, a sense of positive change, one superior to the previous or present setting" (Sarason, 1977, p. 76). Too often, like the NCPAS, the follow-up generates less enthusiasm than the implementation, and a new plan takes priority before the old has been completely studied. "The clash between individual(s) and overall purposes or goals and the initial euphoria . . . is like a broadway show that can die an early death" (Sarason, p. 84).

This pitfall leads directly to another that is cited by leading writers on the concept of change. Major educational change requires resources, but planning fails to realistically prepare for the limited resources that are available. The NC Career Plan would allow a teacher with 31 years of experience to earn as much as \$45,696 and give beginning teachers \$18,790. . . . The top salary now is \$24,840, and the beginning salary is \$15,680. "The cost of implementing the plan is not known. It has cost an estimated \$7 million, however, to test the program /in 1985-867 in 16 school systems" (Career Plan for Teachers, p. 2B). During the initial phases of too many programs,

there tends to be little or no concern about the quantity or quality of resources; during the later stages of implementation concern increases and the myth of unlimited resources is debunked (Sarason, 1977).

The topic of change theory and process in connection with evaluation is one that highlights the need for continued study. Since the intent of evaluation is to create change within individuals and within systems, a thorough study of planned change would seem appropriate in offering insight to curriculum and evaluation planners since every change agent must assume responsibility for interdependence of all

subparts of a system and the unexpected effects that one planned change will create among the various parts (Spalding, 1958).

As educational evaluation practices and issues continue to undergo study and change, increased emphasis on the moral commitment for protecting and redefining the school organization, an evolving view of teachers and the profession, is likely to develop.

A basic mark of any recognized profession is that it is self-determining; that is, it manages its own affairs. It sets standards—and sees to it that they are enforced—to assure competence of those admitted to membership. It defines ethical conduct and standards of professional practice. . . . The cluster of responsibilities and rights is termed professional autonomy (Lieberman, 1956, p. 275).

It appears that the challenge of improving evaluation practices is one that needs to be met, considering

the inescapable conclusion to be drawn from any review of the literature . . . that there is virtually no research suggesting that supervision of teaching, however defined or undertaken, makes any difference (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 50).

The challenge involves the willingness to continue raising the questions as reforms and changes are sought.

# Summary and Conclusions of Evaluation as an Educational Practice

The practices of educational evaluation, as they are presently known, seem to be viewed continually as highly subjective because of the nature of the job that is being evaluated. An inherent problem is the subjective nature of evaluation despite the apparent sophistication of the system.

Although industrial research and evaluation procedures have led to evolving educational ideas, increasing recognition exists about the differences between the two settings. Research in education does not seem to point to a positive correlation in teacher improvement. Although industrial research and evaluation procedures have led to evolving educational ideas, increasing recognition exists about the differences between the two settings. Although disagreement continues, the two organizations (industry and education) apparently have many dissimilarities.

Educational practices in relationship to evaluation have been in debate since the 1900's and in constant public attention since the concept of merit pay was introduced in the early 1960's. Evaluation of any kind rekindles the fire of rating for payroll purposes and for hiring or re-hiring which apparently failed as solutions to the problems of the 1960's.

The NCPAS is another of many efforts by the state to solve the problem of mediocre schools as public schools are often called by the public. It is yet to be determined whether or not the NCPAS will bring about change more than have previous attempts. Introduced as recently as the fall of 1982, the NCPAS will now be replaced by the career ladder beginning in 1986-87.

The basic issues of whether evaluators understand what they are evaluating and whether they can judge "good teaching" are critical. While major writers who have thoroughly reviewed the literature conclude that we do know what effective teaching involves, it is debatable whether or not we have yet learned how to judge or evaluate it.

Certainly, evaluators must have appropriate education and time to appraise teachers. Obviously, certain characteristics of good teachers are known and should be recognized. Evaluations, however, need to be multidimensional and interpersonal. Evaluations (or instruments, per se) do not seem to be solutions to the problem(s), no matter how much objectivity is built into the system.

The other major question is one related to change. With the problems recognized today, educators must become more aware of and resistant to changes as they relate constructively to the study of school individuals or groups. There are growing needs for a new language to describe the problems and to communicate (among professionals) the solutions. It seems important to recognize the work of positive, critical, and re-conceptualist thinkers as researchers continue to understand and synthesize what has happened and is happening with educational practices.

It seems that change often occurs in education as the result of public opinion which pressures political groups to mandate what appears to be a solution. In the case of the NCPAS, the NC legislature assumed that a standardized, stronger appraisal system could lead to the improvement of instruction and a better method for re-hiring personnel. As the mandated changes are filtered to the local and school levels, the assumptions and commitment to the intended outcomes can become different from what was originally intended.

The process of change as the result of using the NCPAS has been further complicated by the philosophic difference that continues to exist in relationship to the idea of teaching and how it should be evaluated. The evolving practices of educational evaluation have present challenges to educators to better understand the process of teaching and ways to improve it.

#### Issues Related to the Evaluator

#### Difficulties Surrounding Evaluation

Despite the fact that agreement exists among educators that an appraisal system is needed to safeguard and improve instruction, extraordinary controversy continues over the difficulties surrounding the ways evaluations are done (McGreal, 1983). The literature on the difficulties for the evaluator includes the vast array of problems ranging from inadequate instruments for evaluation (Popham, 1981) to inability to define teaching (O'Kane, 1979). Although solutions have been sought by Bellon and Handler (1982), Hunter (1982), Lewis (1973), Redfern (1980), and others by producing particular models for systems to adopt and implement, researchers and writers recognize the difficulties involved in acclaiming any single appraisal system as a solution to the problem. Petrie's (1982) writing addresses the key responsibility or role of the principal in making an appraisal system work effectively. He reviews the literature of Furst (1971), Gage (1978), Raths (1969), and others who discuss the idiosyncratic, unique process of teaching and the inherent difficulties involved in a principal's attempts to judge teaching skills.

The evaluation instrument is only one part of what needs to be a total appraisal process which includes the evaluatee and the evaluator having understanding and input about the purposes. Accepting the fact that it is "virtually impossible to legislate good teaching through administrative fiat" (Sweeney, 1962, p. 38), it seems necessary that principals understand the importance of the evaluator's role as an influencing factor and possible hidden agenda in any approach to an

objective, unbiased appraisal system.

A key question that is being asked today is whether or not the person assigned the responsibility for appraising performance knows what conditions facilitate meaningful learning and which ones impede it (Dedrick & Raschke, 1984). While some writers claim to have models that can improve instruction, others state, "Educational research indicates that there are no clear-cut dimensions which differentiate good teaching from poor teaching" (Dedrick & Raschke, p. 494). To further complicate the issue, the practice of evaluation, like many other public school issues, seems to be challenged more intensely than ever before in the history of American education (Campbell, 1983). It is inevitable that issues surrounding the evaluator's role--principal, supervisor, curriculum specialist--receive close examination. Not only is the issue of the evaluator being examined, but also the questions surrounding leadership within the system and the system itself are being raised.

The 1984 report by the National Commission on Excellence in Education intensified the focus on the public schools with charges of widespread mediocrity and inadequacies. Although the report received deserved criticism in regard to recommendations, few argued with the need for a revision of the internal mechanisms regarding retention, advancement, and compensation for those who excel in teaching. The question of how those exemplars can be fairly selected remains the challenge for the evaluator. The systems of the past have been easy to administer and perhaps that has lead to their entrenchment and survival. The problem is that the research of the literature indicates

that there is no conclusive evidence that previous appraisal systems led to significant or lasting improvement.

Over the past hundred years almost every aspect of our national life--industry, transportation, communication, computation, entertairment--has changed almost beyond recognition. Our schools remain essentially the same. And now, in the space age, the reformers are offering the nation an educational horse and buggy. They would improve the horse, keep the passengers in longer, and pay the driver more. It would still be a horse and buggy (Leonard, 1984, 1B).

In the National Commission's Report on Excellence (1984) is the implication that one call for reform is that the role of leadership and the role of the evaluator seem to be a major part of the arena for change. The simple solutions, like increasing the length of the school day, attack the surface problems. Recent studies by Goodlad, Levin, and others on the effects of time versus influences of other variables on learning concluded that what is done with the time has more influence on student achievement than the length of time spent (Leonard, 1984, 4B). More and more educational writers and researchers are focusing on the need for instructional leaders and evaluators to be competent and capable, equipped with knowledge and skills to utilize an appropriate appraisal system in order to be change agents and to understand the problems.

The need for evaluators who have a conceptual grasp of the present body of knowledge and an understanding of the philosophical arguments related to teaching is recognized as a rudiment in beginning to reform educational practices. "Critics have compared our classrooms to old cottage industries, with each teacher toiling alone to turn out a good product" (Ryan, 1975, p. 287). An alternative to the cottage industry, if it does emerge, seems contingent on a new role for leadership.

#### The Role of the Leader

If school leaders are to have added responsibility, 'More rigorous expectations . . . should be established and greater care should be exercised in their selection' (Campbell, 1983, p. 11).

It is essential that the school have the personnel and technical tools to effect significant improvement . . . . our educational system needs both external challenge and vigorous internal renewal . . . . the aspirations of the public, the government, the universities or of school men themselves . . . cannot be met realistically without personnel capable of substantial educational leadership (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 9).

Since researchers appear to agree that one of the single most important ingredients in defining any organization's quality is the leadership system, it is certainly appropriate to examine the role of the evaluator in relationship to problems faced and challenges for the future.

Although many possibilities exist for the determination of who will evaluate teaching, the large majority of public schools assign the task solely to the building principal. Principals have significantly different levels of education and training, an issue which raises serious questions about their competence to serve autonomously as evaluators (McLaughlin, 1982). In a study of 32 LEAs that were chosen because of their reputations for high standards of evaluation, 25 solely used the principal to complete the process (McLaughlin, 1982). The study indicates the importance of the principal being a curriculum expert with the time, expertise, and judgment to evaluate fairly the performance of teachers.

One noteworthy study, The Weber Study, one of the first to test the hypothesis that schools can make a difference, was a longitudinal

study of four schools chosen from 95 that were recommended for their achievement in teaching children to read in the inner city (Weber, 1971). Weber visited each of the schools, administered achievement tests, and interviewed and observed principals and staff. Strong leadership was identified as a key to the success and achievement. "All four schools had a clearly identifiable instructional leader. In three cases these individuals were principals; in one case, the area superintendent" (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981, p. 179). Other studies have verified the hypothesis that the principal's role is one factor that accounts for differences among schools. In the Michigan Study (Weber, 1971), six improving schools and two declining schools were studied to determine relationships among school social structure, climate, programmatic or personnel changes, and consistent patterns of increasing or decreasing achievement. In the improving schools, the principals were more likely to be instructional leaders, viewed as assertive and as strong disciplinarians (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1979). Responsibility for evaluating achievement of basic objectives was assumed by the principal. In The Delaware Study (Venezky and Winfield, 1980) in schools that felt leadership was strong, the attitudés of teachers and students were more positive and achievement-oriented.

The findings in these and other studies seem to establish the relationship between the principal's role and the perceptions and achievements of students and staff within a school. The positive correlation that seems to exist between the principal who is perceived as a strong instructional leader and the motivation of staff is one that has interesting implications in relationship to evaluation

practices. The work of Fiedler, Tannenbaum, Thomas, and others has explored leadership characteristics in the attempt to find styles that encourage school improvement and change. The idea of leaders having a particular style that impacts staff is not new, but definitional problems, vague concepts, and global variables have surrounded many studies (Hall, Rutherford, Hord, & Huling, 1984). Recent studies continue to focus on educational leadership styles using a more comprehensive approach. "The more multivariate approach to defining leadership has emerged in several recent studies . . . that attempt to provide operational descriptions of styles" (Hall, et al., 1984).

Three basic styles have been described by educational studies during the past five years. Thomas (1978), and Hall, Rutherford, and Griffin (1982) have been leaders in examining leadership styles in relationship to what happens within a school setting, especially as the styles relate to innovation and change in schools. Not only are the three change facilitator styles identified, but also a set of descriptive dimensions related to concerns, motivation, tone, and behaviors are discussed (Hall, Rutherford, & Griffin, 1984). The labels of Responder, Manager, and Initiator are discussed in terms of the differences that occur in relationship to eleven different broad dimensions of an administrator's role as a change agent. Examples of the implications for the study of evaluation are evident in the following quote from the goal-setting dimension:

The <u>Responder</u> responds to teachers, students, and parents in terms of goals of school and district. The <u>Manager</u> collaborates with others in reviewing and identifying school goals. The

<u>Initiator</u> establishes /a/ framework of expectation for the school and involves others in setting goals within the framework (Hall, Rutherford, Hord, & Huling, 1984, p. 25).

The basic styles may emerge from business theories, but a difference exists because educational theorists seem to be attempting to restruct a framework that applies to education. Management systems that have worked effectively in business have not been proved to transfer to education with conclusive success. The theories evolved within business in organizations that enjoy a relatively high degree of uniformity have objectives that are limited, have considerable control over the variables that affect performance, and judge successes and failures by far less complicated standards than those in education (Gibson, 1982).

Education, by contrast, deals with the totality of human experience. Every human being who goes through our schools is a unique individual. Lacking teacher conscription, uniform standards, coercive powers, and a narrow range of educational goals, public education is obviously unsuited to a military/industrial management system. The use of such a system sets up within the profession a constant, debilitating conflict that robs us of our potential effectiveness (Gibson, p. 682).

The idea that education differs from other organizations because of the product being human beings is one that leads to the major criticism of evaluation. Even if appraisal is based strictly on objectives specified for performance, the fact is that one human being is judging another. The ways in which an evaluator expresses leadership, uses power and authority, arrives at decisions, and interacts with evaluatees are influenced by preexisting psychological factors. These include past experiences, personality, value systems, philosophies of education, and goals. The evaluator's mental self is expressed in the form of assumptions about those being appraised.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), McGregor (1960) and others have studied the importance of expectations and assumptions that have encouraged other studies about these issues as they relate to evaluation. Besides being complicated and time consuming, the most objective instrument or process in existence seems to be completed on the basis of the evaluator's judgment.

In one recent research study on teachers' perceptions about evaluation practices, more than 90 percent of respondents, even those who believed that principals were supportive, felt that the principal's attitude, competence, and ability . . . were problematic (McLaughlin, 1982).

Since its inception, teacher evaluation has consisted of subjective judgments of teachers' skills; the implicit assumptions have always been that the judges know what good teaching is and can recognize it when they see it' (Soar, Medley, & Coker, 1983, p. 240).

The frightening thought expressed by many writers is that principals often lack the current information base or the conceptual grasp of theory to effect a change in practices. 'Many administrators describe a good teacher as anyone who teaches the way they were taught" (Lasley, 1984, p. 282). When the empirical data are lacking to know how teacher effectiveness can be established, teacher evaluation, teacher accountability, teacher performance, and teacher competencies are subjective judgments. Evaluation is an uncomfortable experience because of its subjective nature. Few principals, supervisors, or others who are responsible for evaluation would disagree.

Unfortunately, textbook descriptions of warm, caring, and friendly educational supervision mask the conflicts inherent in the process. In reality, supervision calls up feelings of inadequacy, of being judged, of having to conform to the arbitrary standards of others (Squires, Huitt, & Segars, 1984, p. 25).

The effects of evaluation as a present practice impact the evaluator as well as the one being appraised. "Supervisors as well as teachers feel conflicts and tensions within this relationship. Bad decisions, capriciously made, affect personal and professional lives" (Squires, et al., p. 26).

In consultation theory, Parker (1975) emphasizes the issues that plague theoreticians and practitioners if a model of helping teachers (consultation) is sought in place of the supervisory model. Consultation is differentiated from evaluation or supervision because it eliminates the judgment outcome and involves the educator who seeks help in the process of solving problems. Most traditional or presently used models have overlooked the principle of involvement of all parties in problem solving and goal setting. Research seems to indicate that the process of change is one that involves less judgment, more collaboration of professionals, and more follow-up by all participants. The process of consultation (Bardon, 1980) is one that evaluation theorists could study in deciding whether or not a union of consultation and supervision might be possible as a new practice in performance appraisal. The present curriculum revolution is forcing educators to reassess the role of the principal and supervisor in relationship to curriculum effectiveness. Certainly, the evaluation of teachers has to be studied if the traditional threat of being judged and the impotency of not impacting change are to alter.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) devoted the NASSP Bulletin (1982) to the topic of teacher evaluation, focusing on the need for more involvement from teachers and more emphasis

on consultation. Traditional models of appraisal dictate that a preconference, an observation, and a post conference be conducted. Many recent writers are stressing the need for evaluators to possess and use interpersonal, consultative skills in handling the accepted phases of the evaluation process. "The principal . . . meets the teacher in a conference /after observation that offers productive interaction possibilities for both principal and teacher" (Sadler, 1982). Sadler (1982) suggests that the evaluator and the evaluatee can at this point engage in problem-solving activities that use consultation skills (listening, reflecting, goal setting, follow-up) as a base. Dunkleberger (1982) reinforces the idea that an evaluator has the power to diverge from the system in the sense that the traditional phases can be expanded into a means of building interprofessional trust that can lead to professional growth. Dunkleberger (1982), Bellon & Handler (1982), Hunter (1982), Sweeney (1982), and others are encouraging evaluators to employ existing systems but offer an effective framework within those systems for teachers to view the evaluator as helpful. Blecke (1982) explains that 'Faculty evaluation is the bane of many principals. A myriad of evaluation styles are in use; many more have been used and discarded." Blecke (1982) and others are writing that evaluators must begin finding resourceful ways to build relationships within the confines of the system. Developing alternatives is not always possible, but changing a style from directive to cooperative seems to be viable. While some radical writers might "throw the baby out with the bath water," many others like those featured in the NASSP Bulletin (1982) seem to be looking

seriously for ways to affect the kind of improvement that Vroom (1964) found in his research—the perceived probability of success has a strong affect on the effort an individual will exert. "Both the attitudes of teachers toward the principal and the perception of the principal's expectations in terms of productivity are important aspects of teacher motivation" (Matthews & Holmes, 1982, p. 23).

Research offers support for the reasons, other than human nature, that teachers feel threatened by evaluation and need the reassurance that the evaluator's primary intent is to help. Ratings of teachers vary widely depending upon the person completing the assessment. Mosher & Purpel (1972) give an excellent explanation of the reasons that analyses of teaching vary radically.

A primary reason . . . is the absence of agreement as to the 'right' way to teach. A second explanation is the unreliability of the rating instrument used in supervision and research. . . . A third cause of variation is attributable to supervisors /evaluators/ themselves: supervisors either see different teaching behavior when they observe a classroom in action or they evaluate the same behavior differently. . . . Supervisors typically see a fraction of one percent of the teaching of individuals they evaluate; whether this is an adequate (that is, representative) sample depends on whether one asks the supervisor or the teacher. The fact remains that there are real possibilities for error in the supervisor's analysis of a teacher (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 51).

Other research supports the idea that evaluation has not made a significant difference in improving instruction. Cogan, a pioneer in the field of supervision, laments, "the still unbridged gap between the observed behavior of teachers and the learning outcomes of students, represents a serious weakness in the use of observational systems in clinical supervision" (1973, p. 160). The fear of being judged by another seems to become increasingly significant as the shortcomings

are recognized. The search for a "newly articulated set of skills: those of analyzing the process of teaching and reinforcing and/or remediating and/or stretching from both a curricular and a pedagogical theory base" is a logical and necessary pursuit in restructing the role of the principal and supervisor (Humter, 1984, p. 183).

The role of the evaluator is one that continues to raise questions about the current leadership preparation. "The importance of the role of the principal in creating an effective school has always been assumed, but only recently has the criticality of that person's skills been affirmed and documented" (Hunter, 1984, p. 183). Leading writers of the last decade are emphasizing the need for what Frymier (1983) calls a time for vigorous leadership in the public schools. Appropriately, critics are raising questions about the educational preparation of principals and supervisors. Instructional leader is a recent term that gained popularity because of the connotation that theory, knowledge, and interpersonal skills are key parts of a principal's job. 'While in the past, evaluation has been conceived mainly as a process of passing judgment, nowadays it is seen as a continuous process of collecting information and supplying feedback for improvement" (Levin & Long, 1981, p. 39). The new leadership that is necessary if public schools are going to succeed or survive is being defined by leading writers.

It seems that the active leader of the future needs to aspire to more than a manager's or administrator's role carrying out directions from a central office. Today's challenges clearly require leaders who are change agents, innovators, and leaders committed to personal growth of self and others. "School systems seldom rise above the vision and competency of the superintendent, and individual schools seldom rise above the leadership qualities of the building principal" (Stoops, Rafferty, & Johnson, 1975, preface). To not only be prepared but to also be part of needed and emerging changes is apparently the mandate for leaders who hope to ensure the future of public schools in a way that will improve society. Changes are taking place in areas of instruction, organization, public relations, and personnel management; a competent principal must be prepared for emerging conditions.

Change, per se, is not necessarily good, and there is no assurance that the new will be better than the old. However, awareness of change is necessary; but it must be evaluated in terms of its effect on improving the education of students. If there is no commitment to change and innovation, nothing remains but the continuation of the status quo and the abandorment of progress (Stoops, et al., p. 14).

The emerging role of a principal or supervisor as an instructional leader will be complicated by the present dichotomy between the principal as one who helps yet judges. Role conflict is an unresolved problem and one that may not change unless the nature of evaluation changes. In recent research on perceptions about evaluation practices, central office respondents believe that conflict between principal as instructional leader and principal as evaluator has not been resolved (McLaughlin, 1982). The most frequently cited problem in research related to evaluation continues to be participants' concerns about the evaluator's role as judge. Because principals are disinclined to be viewed as the 'bad guy,' the teachers in McLaughlin's study (1982) felt the important variations in performance were masked. In

too many cases, the tendency to give teachers a satisfactory rating for less than acceptable performance seemed to be the practice. Also, most respondents in McLaughlin's study felt that principals view evaluation as a necessary evil and a time-consuming chore added to the principal's responsibility without deleting other functions (McLaughlin, 1982).

## Adequate Time and Training

Whatever side is taken about the effectiveness of evaluation, the issue of inadequate time is viewed consistently as a problem. In a 1979 survey done by the NASSP to study principal's workload, the data indicated that the average school principal works a 56-hour week and spends the majority of this time managing details (The American Principal, 1979). The NASSP (1979) report suggests that

an awareness is developing of the importance of the principal to educational quality . . . but one must ask whether a person can perform a satisfactory leadership role as the job is now structured, considering the expectations for time and job tasks that currently exist (The American Principal, p. 626).

Recognizing the importance of adequate time being available for an evaluator is an issue that arises repeatedly in the literature.

Research indicates that on the average a principal is responsible for comprehensively evaluating 15 to 20 teachers each year. Preevaluation conferences, multiple classroom observations, postevaluation briefings, ongoing assistance, and continual informal conferences make teacher evaluation a time-consuming chore for most building principals (McLaughlin, 1982). Because of the present nature of a principal's job, buses, sales representatives, discipline, errands, and other assigned managerial tasks interfere with time needed for

principals to be involved in instruction and evaluation. Principals in a 1978 study indicated that they would like to spend the most time on personnel followed by program development but they actually spent the most time on school management, which they agreed should have a lower priority than the other two areas (Gorton & McIntyre, 1978).

The principals indicated that they should spend the next-toleast amount of time during the year on student behavior, but in reality they spent more time on this area than on planning, community, district office, or professional development (Gorton & McIntyre, p. 29).

It is an ongoing reality that principals must spend too much time doing the tasks that they consider managerial. Although the challenges presented to administrators in education address areas related to low test scores, low teacher morale, insufficiently defined scope and sequence of instruction, and needs for staff development, very few principals see themselves having sufficient time for these assignments. The constant challenges for new leadership to emerge are boggled by the jobs presently assigned to the leaders. When a majority of time is spent with other problems, little time remains for personal inservice education.

The dilemma of inadequate time as the present job responsibilities exist for principals raises the issue of needed time for staff development and personal growth if administrators are to move into a changing role for leadership and fully understand concepts involved in a new leader's role. When a new evaluation plan like the NCPAS is mandated by a state legislature and adopted by the NC State Board of Education, a valid issue is the amount of in-service education that is

initially and continually offered to those required to implement the system. In change theory, leading questions are 'What happens to changes in a school's instructional program once they are implemented? Do they endure? Or are they casually discarded once the attention of curriculum developers, outside consultants, district curriculum coordinators, and principals shifts elsewhere?" (Corbett, 1982, p. 190).

As the NCPAS has been used, the state has recognized the need for further training of evaluators. Beginning in the fall of 1985, training for all principals and supervisors in NC has been in progress. Using a state staff development package, a few key people from each LEA were selected to complete 60 to 80 hours of in-depth workshops on evaluating effective teaching, using the new instrument, studying characteristics of good teaching, and learning how to help teachers improve. During the 1985-86 school year, those trained by the NCSDPI started ongoing training sessions for all administrative personnel involved with evaluation in the LEA by requiring a 30-hour workshop. "Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument" (TPAI). This workshop prepares administrators for the changes that will occur in the NCPAS after the fall of 1986. During the 1985-86 school year all initially certified teachers were also involved in 'Effective Teacher Training" (ETT). Prior to the spring of 1987, every teacher in NC is expected to complete the training. The proposed changes include the required training, a new evaluation instrument, and a Professional Development Plan (PDP) for every teacher in each system. Ongoing staff development in the LEA's is planned for implementing the changes. The role that ongoing staff development plays in a program's persisting or resisting change is often overlooked. If an exemplary principal's work day is approximately  $9\frac{1}{2}$  hours, in addition to three nights per week on school business as one study indicates (Gorton & McIntyre, 1978), staff development is reduced to a low priority unless it is also district or state mandated. When the principal does not have the knowledge base or the time to commit to a change, there is likely a tendency to use power to expand control and resist the change (Popkewitz, 1979). 'Efforts to change become slogans and rituals that are incorporated into the existing order . . . . The rituals create an illusion that the school is responding to its constituency' (Popkewitz, p. 8). Unless a system is cautious, the impetus for change may originate outside the school setting and overlook change theory as it relates to involving and supporting those building leaders ultimately responsible for implementation.

The likelihood of anxiety during a program change is often heightened by the fact that many participants do not have an opportunity to have input into the planning, implementation, and evaluation process. As a result, there is an inadequate communication of goals and methods of achieving them, but more importantly there is little "gut level" acceptance of these goals and methods on the part of many program participants. There is little sense of ownership of the program and less than the necessary commitment to make it work (Comer, 1980, p. 67).

To offer the staff development needed for effective continuation with a change program is a challenge that the system involved in a change program must address. Linear rather than spiral support for principals and leaders can lead to early death of many programs (Frymier, 1969). Principals need to receive sufficient in-service education from the onset of a program to internalize a philosophy that

supports the change.

Studies often indicate that principals spend very little time in in-service education designed to meet their needs. In one study of 60 exemplary principals, the principals were asked to list inservice education programs in which they had engaged, totaling at least three days per program since 1973. Fourteen principals recalled no such programs, 24 cited one or two activities, and 22 listed three or more (Gorton & McIntyre, 1978). This is particularly interesting because the principals involved in the same study mentioned teacher behavior and teacher incompetence as the problems handled least well (Gorton & McIntyre).

One fear that teachers express is that principals do not always know how to evaluate teaching. The harshest critics are fearful that the varied and time-consuming tasks facing principals preclude instruction being a top priority. "Instructional leadership (in terms of time spent in classroom observation and teacher supervision) is not the central focus of the principalship" (Morris, Crowson, Hurwitz, Jr., & Porter-Gehrie, 1982). If evaluation of teachers, whether locally developed or state mandated, is to improve instruction and/or change schools, the principal's or evaluator's knowledge of theories as they relate to teaching, leadership, human needs, and learning is a priority that must move to the top. Teachers must feel assured that evaluators understand the process of teaching and have the time and the commitment to direct the instructional program based on this knowledge. When Tyler (1983) critiqued Goodlad's findings in the monumental "Study of Schooling" (1983), Tyler emphasized this need

by saying,

Individuals in schooling . . . to be effective, should understand the purposes they are trying to achieve, should believe those purposes to be important, should understand their own roles in the school, and should have the confidence to undertake those roles and the skills to carry them out. . . . Most reform efforts have given far too little attention to active participation and to the education of responsible and effective participants (pp. 463-464).

As a resurgence of interest in educational reform dominates the field during the 1980's, it seems critical that the roles of the principal, supervisor, and other leaders be re-examined. Although the interest in teacher competence is more than justified, the role of leadership must be carefully reviewed for positive changes to occur in professionalizing teaching. 'Professionalization and bureaucratization are poor bedfellows' (Howsam, 1980, p. 94). The leader of the future must be able to accept the responsibility to be specifically educated to understand theories of learning, the practice of evaluation, and characteristics of effective teaching as well as be capable of demonstrating:

methods . . . . implementing and evaluating instructional designs . . . . His clinic is the classroom or wherever instruction is going on . His method is the systematic and critical analysis of practice (Bolster, 1967, p. 193).

One of the important concepts involved in the restructured, emerging idea of an evaluator's role is that of responsibility for designing and supervising plans of improvement rather than simply rating teachers for the purpose of finishing evaluation forms for the central office by a given date. The principal as an evaluator emerges with new meaning. The challenge is great because the uncertainties about what good teaching is and how it should be evaluated continue

to be unresolved.

Over the years, thousands of studies have sought to identify the characteristics of effective teachers and effective teaching. However, teaching is a very complicated activity; what works in some situations with some students may not work in other settings. . . . It has proven very difficult to determine which teacher behaviors are associated with specific student behavior and outcomes (Ornstein & Levin, 1981, p. 592).

When leaders like Broudy (1969) reason that we can define good teaching any way we like, it is logical to desire new definitions for evaluators and to hope for better understanding between leaders and those being evaluated. Certainly, it is time to dispel myths about evaluation that have confused the process for decades.

The presently proposed in-service education plan for administrators in NC, TPAI, addresses the need for evaluators to understand and be able to recognize good teaching. A handbook for each administrator, Handbook for Teacher Performance Appraisal Instrument, is devoted to researched characteristics of effective teaching (NCDPI, 1985). The state department's exhaustive plan with the well-researched handbook is one state's (NC) way of dispelling myths about evaluation and preparing administrators for the more complex changing process of evaluation that will replace the NCPAS and encompass a Career Plan for teachers in NC.

## Evaluation as a Means of Hiring and Firing

One false impression that evaluators have held is that evaluation procedures can lead to firing incompetent personnel. It is not fair to administrators to perpetuate this myth. Perhaps this notion, like others, is based on the idea that what works in industry will work in education.

Most school administrators have dreamed about taking uninhibited, decisive action when evaluating a teacher who doesn't meet expectations. Part of the dream usually involves firing the person on the spot. Moreover, the administrator fantasizes that if he or she worked in the private sector, that's the way it would be--no tenure, no teacher's contract, no due process, no fooling around! . . . a number of myths exist about evaluation-some of them spawned by wishful thinking and others by past practice. These myths hamper the development of supervision and evaluation programs that are effective in motivating and improving performance (Goens, 1982, p. 411).

It seems likely that an appraisal system does not in itself facilitate firing or provide information for re-hiring. An appraisal system often is made to sound very simple and idealistic, but evaluators may later realize that the system cannot accomplish what they had hoped. For instance, Victor Ross (1981), assistant superintendent in the Iowa Bettendorf Community Schools, presented his ideas that an effective evaluation system is possible and will work to make personnel decisions and to improve instruction. Ross very thoroughly outlines a six-step plan for evaluation that he concludes allowed Bettendorf principals to

recognize how important teacher evaluation is to good instruction; they saw the link. And we discovered that, although none of them previously had expressed concern over their weaknesses or fears about evaluation, all principals were grateful for the specific, step-by-step training provided (1981, p. 27).

Ross' article (1981) describes opposite conclusions to the results of previously cited research. The assumption in the Bettendorf schools, after using a more standardized appraisal system, is that principals and teachers recognized the value of principals who know they are better evaluators and teachers who know that "principals understand the elements of good teaching, recognize good teaching when they see it, and can provide teachers with useful suggestions for improvement

and good job targets" (Ross, 1981, p. 27). In reviewing the literature, very few writers find the task of evaluation to be this simple.

# Other Research Related to the Evaluator

A principal's job of evaluating the performance of teachers is "complicated by the absence of a satisfactory yardstick to measure teacher effectiveness. Research on performance evaluation indicates a lack of consensus on the most appropriate method of evaluation" (Pembroke & Goedert, 1982, p. 30).

Perhaps one of the obstacles of accepting any one study that claims effectiveness in teacher evaluation is what Sapone (1982) calls the emphasis on developing appraisal systems based on specific characteristics of the teaching process, assuming that identifying and evaluating these micro variables can be a means of appraising teaching and improving performance. Sapone reflects that few studies have investigated a 'macro approach to the appraisal and evaluation of the total teaching process, a total systems model of an appraisal and evaluation plan' (Sapone, 1982, p. 47). The paucity of significant research at a systems level might easily lead school superintendents, board members, or the public to embrace a model that judges 'micro' aspects of teaching. Sapone writes as follows:

/When/...given the limited research and validation procedures used in current teacher appraisal and evaluation systems. . . . Most teacher appraisal and evaluation models fall short of their expected outcomes. It appears, from the limited data in the current literature and through field experiences, that today's teacher appraisal and evaluation practices seem to make little difference in improving a teacher's performance, especially as that performance influences and attempts to improve student achievement scores (Sapone, 1982, p. 47).

This type of thinking implies that the idea of congruency and meeting individual needs might be an alternative or a solution (McGregor, 1966). In order to effect a motivational, consultative approach, a strong instructional leader and a philosophy underlying the objectives of the system would be needed. These ideas seem to indicate again the need for an evaluator who understands the theories and history related to appraisal of personnel. The perceived probability of success by a teacher seems to have a strong affect on the effort an individual will exert to perform a task (Vroom, 1964). Other researchers have found similar results.

Mathews & Brown (1976) integrated critical aspects of teacher motivation into a comprehensive model. In this model the principal is reported to be able to influence three critical components of teacher motivation: attitude toward the principal, perceptions of the principals' expectations for improved student achievement, and perceptions of the probability of success in improving student achievement.

These aspects of teacher motivation seem to relate to the effectiveness of a school's leader rather than a particular appraisal system to be employed. The idea that principals or evaluators are more responsible for the effectiveness of the system and the outcome seems to be more in the literature during the 1980's.

In evaluating teachers, principals must be guided primarily by a desire to improve the quality of instruction in their own building. While continued efforts should be invested in improving the methods for gathering evaluation data, care should also be taken to avoid unnecessary conflict, anxiety, or confusion (Savage, 1982, p. 44).

The role of the evaluator as it relates to the issues involved suggests one reason that alternative methods of evaluation have been tried as solutions to the thorny problem of evaluation. Various studies suggest self, peer, student, achievement, or outside evaluations

of performance, none of which have been supported by research as answers to the dilemma.

Recognizing the role that the principal has and the difficulties surrounding the evaluator have led to the idea of outside evaluators as a possibility. One study, that resembles others suggesting that an outside person be assigned to conduct evaluation, implies that responsibility should be shifted from the internal leader.

All formal evaluation of schools, programs, and personnel will be conducted by evaluation specialists who are employed by the state legislature and who function independently of any education agency. The primary responsibility is to serve local school districts and the state legislature by carefully assessing the performance of each school. The use of independent evaluation specialists allows administrators to function as trusted professional leaders who are responsive to the needs of the staff, the students, and the community (Gibson, 1982, p. 683).

The proposed alternatives for improving education are unending, and others take the opposite extreme to outside evaluation. Teaching is autonomous and the improvement of teaching is rarely placed on a schoolwide agenda . . . . the improvement of teaching continues to be a matter of individual responsibility (Goodlad, 1970).

When studies are read on peer evaluation, student evaluation of teachers, self-evaluation, student achievement, central office evaluation, or other methods, the results are not conclusive that any single method improves instruction. It is true that all teachers are evaluated by all possible combinations. They are evaluated by students, parents, other teachers, administrators, supervisors, and the public. The question is not whether teachers should be evaluated, since this cannot be avoided, but rather how systematic the evaluation should be and what the role of the evaluator is in the process. "In the past,

the teacher appraisal interview and classroom observation represented the totality of the evaluation process" (Darling-Hammond, 1982, p. 49). The question of evaluation remains one to be studied.

It does not appear possible to make a definitive statement about the role of the leader in relationship to performance appraisal except to say that it is a challenge for educators to define and redefine both the subject(s) being evaluated and the means of accomplishing this goal. "It is time to celebrate our educational accomplishments and to continue the challenge of pursuing excellence in a rapidly changing world" (Dedrick & Rascheke, 1984, p. 495). There seems no better time than the 1980's for the concept of evaluator as consultant, curriculum specialist, clinical professor, instructional leader, or other different conceptions to emerge. As Mosher and Purpel (1972) say, "Such a clinician may be the first truly professional educator" (p. 206). These leaders will act from their own center outward (Sergiovanni, 1971). Positively, the role of the evaluator and issues related to the evaluator's role will be explored. New terms and expanded theories are continually evolving to fulfill this responsibility.

The importance of the role of the principal in creating an effective school has always been assumed, but only recently has the criticality of that person's skills been affirmed and documented. To fulfill that responsibility, contemporary principals need a newly articulated set of skills (Hunter, 1983).

As each administrator and/or teacher faces the process of evaluation, each cited area of research or literature is important. While there are many areas that lack sufficient study, there is little if any disagreement about the importance of the leader's role.

## Summary and Conclusion on Issues Related to the Evaluator

Several main issues seem to predominate the nature of evaluation as it relates to the role of the evaluator. The overview of evaluation implies the animosity that inherently exists between evaluator and evaluatee. This underlying current confuses the progression of a theory of teacher evaluation.

A person truly caught in the middle is the building principal who remains responsible for evaluation, for morale of staff, for curriculum within a given school, and for using evaluation as a means of improving instruction. An IFA's appraisal system, whether state mandated or locally determined, seems to be directed by the principal. While few reports argue with the need for revision, few give specific recommendations for a change in the principal's role. The National Commission's Report on Excellence (1984) seems to imply many problems that are inherent to the principal's role. The review of the literature suggests that the evaluator plays a key part in the successful outcome of evaluation, despite what instrument or system is being used. Researchers seem to agree on the importance of the role of the leader as a positive influence on motivation of teachers and quality of instruction.

One continual problem is that the principal seems to be assigned this task without consideration of other responsibilities. Somehow, the job of evaluation is one that does not seem to take priority. While we recognize that principals make a difference, we must also recognize that most systems do not allow principals the time to make a difference. A principal who is perceived by teachers to have the

time and expertise to evaluate instruction seems to be a rarity in the research. As evaluation and accountability become more important, the leadership skills of a principal seem to become more important. It becomes apparent that the evaluator's competence is important. Perhaps consultation theory or re-conceptualists' theory will be the answer. It seems certain that new answers will be sought, ones that examine not only evaluation but also teaching. Leaders will hopefully be part of this future. The principal must become the instructional, curriculum leader. Whether evaluation instruments remain static or change, the time seems clear for the instructional leader to emerge as an educator who is strong in both curriculum and leadership theories. North Carolina is making this type of effort in proposing changes in the process of evaluation, including a new method to replace the NCPAS and a career plan to begin in 1986-87.

The idea of resistance to change is one that has plagued education. Change theory seems to have been overlooked in the process of teacher evaluation. As new changes are implemented, this area is one that should be examined closely.

#### State Adopted Evaluation Systems

### Demands for Change

During the 1970's and 1980's the evaluation of educators has been mandated and standardized—by the LEA if not by the state agency. The two decades prior to the 1970's emphasized the need for reform and accountability that resulted in the present centralization of state efforts to improve education through mandate, such as the use of a

state performance appraisal system. Whether the assignment is enjoyed or effective, it does exist (Hyman, 1975). Not since the late 1950's have the public, government, and leaders in education been clamoring for reform as they are during the 1980's.

'When the Soviets put a basketball-sized object named Sputnik I in orbit in October, 1975, America's opinion makers concluded that it was our schools' fault that the Soviets had beaten us to space" (Leonard, 1984, p. 2A). Whether or not the logic was reasonable or the conclusion justifiable, the result was a demand for reform that resulted in increased government involvement in the examination of public education. The interest remained high during the 1960's; but by 1970 the fear of another Sputnik had been forgotten, and the appraisal of programs had become less important. School enrollment began declining, and Americans found themselves more concerned with lowering taxes than with maintaining and improving the schools (Leonard, 1984).

When a "paper Sputnik" was launched on April 26, 1983, in the form of the report of the National Commission on Education, entitled "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform," it was no surprise that major shortcomings were rampant in the schools (Leonard, 1984). The call for sweeping reform was one that had been heard before and had been mounting in pitch since the last reforms of the 1960's and 1970's had not solved problems. One of the many areas that began receiving focus was (and continues to be) methods by which teachers are evaluated.

National news magazines, television shows, researchers, writers, and other critics of education during the 1970's targeted the ideas that teachers were underqualified, undermotivated, mediocre, and underpaid (Ross, 1981). Numerous plans or proposed solutions emerged to solve the problems. Articles and books entitled "Here's How Teachers Should Be Evaluated" (Ross, 1981), and Appraising Teacher Performance (Lewis, 1973) suggested very specific, standardized methods of performance appraisal, designed to improve instruction without the heavy subjectivity involved in attempting to evaluate without a plan. Although differences existed, the plans included similar characteristics, even if each LEA used guidelines to develop local systems.

/The/ first job is to establish specific evaluation criteria . . . . Translate each evaluation criterion into specific characteristics that readily can be observed or measured. . . . Review your evaluation form. . . . Develop a standard classroom observation form and review observation, post observation, and conference techniques with principals. . . . Develop an evaluation timetable for administrators. . . . Establish a training program for administrators and teachers (Ross, 1981, pp. 25-27),

In a similar way and for similar reasons, educational evaluation theory became more sophisticated during the 1970's.

Evaluation is one of the most widely discussed but little used processes in today's education systems. This statement may seem strange in the present social context where attempts to make educational systems accountable to their publics are proliferating at a rapid pace. The past decade has seen legislative bodies at both national and state levels authorizing funds to be used expressly for evaluating educational programs to determine their effectiveness (Worthen & Sanders, 1975, p. 1).

The late 1950's and 1960's (post-Sputnik years) were ones that echoed for curriculum reform that brought new evaluation ideas into existence.

The historical unfolding of concern over evaluation provided impetus to conduct evaluations of educational programs, and thus educationists gained important experience in applying evaluation concepts and techniques (Worthen & Sanders, 1973, p. 4).

The theories were built, but many of these were in the embryonic stages and their effects have resulted in state-mandated evaluation systems in the 1970's and 1980's. For example, the California Legislature passed the Stull Act in 1971 which required each school system in California to develop an "objective system of evaluation of teachers" (Hyman, 1975, p. 8) to include a written plan for improvement for all personnel. Other states followed similar laws for evaluation, merit pay, and tenure. Because of an increased emphasis on accountability, this problem is one that has been pressed more and more by anxious school boards, the public, or legislative bodies, even though research is inconclusive that better teaching results from any evaluation process (Lewis, 1973). California and Colorado were forerunners in developing statewide systems as the result of legislative mandates. NC followed their model with a General Statute passed by the NC General Assembly in May, 1980, that mandated the implementation of the NCPAS to begin in the fall of 1982.

One reason that many states like NC have begun mandating teacher appraisal systems is that declining enrollment and decreased funds are forcing cuts in staff. When personnel decisions about rehiring and firing become necessary, those making decisions prefer objective criteria. School systems become more interested in accountability. "Schools are asked to demonstrate how each program is productive and why each professional position is necessary" (Bellon & Bellon, 1983,

p. 7). As J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon explain, a natural outcome of the accountability movement has been legislation requiring periodic, standardized evaluation of school personnel.

The legislative expectations have monumental problems for those faced with implementing the law that the state believes is one way of demonstrating the expectation that schools should be held accountable for quality education (1982, p. 7).

#### Demand for Quality

Concern about the quality of American education has virtually exploded during the 1980's. There may or may not be a rising tide of mediocrity, but educators seem to be riding a wave of state initiatives in public education. While many of these innovations seem to be trends, only time will indicate what impact reform attempts, such as state-mandated appraisal systems, have on improving the quality of schools. An indication, only four years after NC's move to a statewide appraisal system, is that the NCSEA had new legislation passed in July, 1985, for a career ladder to alter what presently exists. The fact remains constant that state governments continue to be involved in setting criteria for judging performance.

Among those states that have mandated appraisal systems, variation exists. In "A Preliminary Investigation of Teacher Evaluation Practices" (McLaughlin, 1982), 32 LEA's in 24 different states were studied because they had been nominated as having well-developed teacher evaluation programs. Although the majority of the districts expressed dissatisfaction with the formerly used evaluation scheme, it took statelevel action to initiate the new method in most states. McLaughlin's research (1982) shows that 22 states have passed statutes since the

California Stull Act of 1972. Three other states have regulations regarding evaluation procedures. The trend since the early 1970's has obviously been toward standardizing and emphasizing evaluation procedures.

#### State Plans

Interestingly, the results of McLaughlin's research (1982) show that, there is much difference in the ways that states develop procedures. State-level requirements differ markedly in specificity and authority. In New Mexico, for example, legislation requires only that all districts keep some kind of record on personnel performance. Other states, in contrast, have very specific mandates and guidelines as to the nature, frequency, and level of local teacher evaluation (McLaughlin, 1982).

California, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Washington are examples of states taking a strong position on teacher evaluation. Each of these states specifies the purpose and nature in some detail. The state of Washington goes further to outline the broad philosophy guiding their teacher evaluation requirements and to suggest a model to guide local practice. Connecticut, too, has taken a particularly active role by providing grants to support local development efforts. Local respondents in these states point to state mandates as a major factor in the initiation and development of their teacher evaluation efforts. In particular, because of this state action, teacher evaluation is no longer discretionary; LFA (Local Educational Agencies) officials with strong commitment to teacher evaluation have been able to build comprehensive local activities upon this State authority (McLaughlin, 1982, p. 4).

The state of NC, a state that began standardized appraisal system in the fall of 1982, uses the detailed model of California, Connecticut, and New Jersey. The NCSDPI's <u>Handbook for Teacher Appraisal</u> (1981) and Handbook for Performance Appraisal (1982) outline very specific purposes and practices.

Since the time that the NCPAS was mandated in NC in 1982, much has happened including concern that this system will be replaced. Perhaps one of the most vocal groups is the NCAE which has continually raised questions about the evaluator's training, the instrument itself, and the process of the appraisal. The questions have led to changes and likely a change of, if not a replacement of, the NCPAS by the fall of 1986. Again, legislation in NC has been a determinant and that seems to be a pattern in public education of the 1970's and 1980's. The fact that all 50 states have state board legislation is an indicator of the state's role in setting standards for LEAs (Darling-Hammond, 1982).

What apparently began as a trickle of state influence in seeking an answer to objectifying evaluation has become a raging torrent (Karier, 1982). "Not only have the goals of education and the locus of authority changed but also the acceptable means for implementing these goals" (Karier, 1982, p. 3). It is paradoxical that LEAs praise themselves for programs that emphasize individual differences among students while adopting teacher evaluation systems that rely on standardized criteria (McGreal, 1983). While legislative mandates have created problems and raised questions about evaluating teacher performance, the same legislation has challenged new studies and new ideas to emerge. The state mandates "are one way of demonstrating the expectation that schools must find ways to provide quality education" (J.J. Bellon & E.C. Bellon, 1982, p. 7).

#### Summary and Conclusions on State-Adopted Evaluation Practices

During the past two decades there has been an increased interest expressed by state agencies to standardize methods of insuring the public and government agencies that quality performance is a practice among professionals in public schools. The post-Sputnik years emphasized the needs for change, and the present educational critics have renewed that interest in the need for reform. As a part of this interest, methods for evaluating performance of educators have been investigated and questioned. The most recent attempt since the early 1970's has been a move toward state-adopted, mandated systems.

The present appraisal system in the state of NC is one that most states have followed in attempting to change and standardize the practice of consistently evaluating all personnel in public education. It reflects the trend toward standardized appraisal at the state level designed to improve instruction. In 1982 NC joined the ranks of employing a statewide evaluation procedure. Although these systems vary widely, the impetus has been public and political concern about the quality of education and an attempt to find a standardized solution.

Whether or not the state systems of evaluation prove to be significant in improving education has not yet been determined. Whether or not any state or other formal evaluation system can lead to improvement is an issue that merits continued study. As legislative attempts and changes are made to add consistency and standardization to state procedures, it seems important that studies continue to research the areas of teacher evaluation and improvement.

#### Statement of the Problem

Based on the review of the literature on teacher evaluation, one might expect that there is no proved, significant relationship between evaluation and performance. The literature would lead us to expect initial anxiety and gradual changes in perceptions in relationship to the NCPAS during the first two years of its use. The literature review would lead one to expect the perceptions of teachers and administrators to be more extreme during the implementation period, perhaps somewhat resistant to a perceived change, but to gradually be perceived as less of a change than originally expected. The literature leads to the possibility of predicting the fading of the NCPAS and its replacement after a few years. This study is intended to examine the perceptions that teachers and administrators (principals and county office personnel) have about evaluation issues and the NCPAS as a newly adopted statewide system designed to improve job performance and provide data for LEAs to use in making decisions about employees. The following specific questions will be investigated:

- 1. How do teachers and administrators (principals and central office personnel) view evaluation as a process?
- 2. What are the perceptions of teachers and administrators (principals plus central office personnel) toward formal evaluation and the NCPAS as a means of improving performance?
- 3. Prior to the implementation of the NCPAS, what are the perceptions and expected outcomes of teachers and administrators (principals and central office staff) in connection with the use of the NCPAS?
- 4. After two years, what are the significant differences between the

perceptions of teachers and administrators?

- 5. How does the literature support or negate what the questionnaires indicate that educators believe?
- 6. What does this study of the NCPAS reveal about what happens to change over a period of time?

In using the questionnaire data and the review of the literature to examine these questions, the study of evaluation might be better understood. While the study is not expected to bring definitive answers to what appears to be a long-standing set of problems, it is intended to bring added insight to both the issues related to evaluation and the way educators implement change processes.

#### CHAPTER III

#### METHODOLOGY

#### Characteristics of Rowan County

For readers to understand and use the information in this study of educators' perceptions in Rowan County of the NCPAS during a two-year period, it is essential to describe the county in which the study was conducted. For the information to be useful to others, it seems necessary to discuss the characteristics of Rowan County that might explain comparability to the rest of the state or to other school systems. Appendix A is used to allow readers to select those aspects that might be of special interest and to make the description of the county understandable.

#### Subjects for the Study

The subjects for the present study, "Evaluation as a Means for Teacher Improvement - Using the NCPAS," were chosen through random sampling. The 1982-83 personnel directory listing all teachers employed for the year was used to assign consecutive numbers from 000 to 725 (total teaching population) to all teachers. A sample size of 400 was decided upon as desired by the researcher to adequately collect data for analyzing teachers' perceptions reflecting the twenty-three school faculties. The Statistical Methods (Snedecor and Cochran, 1967) chart of ten thousand random numbers and procedures was used to identify the desired number of participants. This method produced a representative sample of teachers--318 were female and 82 were male.

Determination of socioeconomic status was not used because the occupation itself is an indicator of this variable. Of the 450, 199 were from elementary grade levels and 201 were from secondary levels. Because of the small size of the subgroups, 100 percent of the 32 principals involved with evaluation and 18 central office staff members were included in the sample representing the 23 schools for Rowan County. There were 30 male principals and 2 female principals involved in the study. These represented 13 elementary schools, one middle school, and nine secondary schools. The central office sample consisted of 18 participants—8 females and 10 males—including all administrators at the central office. For purposes of statistical analysis, the central office personnel and principals were collapsed to one group of administrators because of the small sample size and the similarity of roles.

The research proposal was described for the Human Subjects

Committee at UNCG. The committee approved the proposal at no risk

to the participants. All planned research was in accordance with

ethical standards of the American Psychological Association (APA).

A cover letter (Appendix C) that accompanied each of the questionnaires was designed to explain to the participants the nature of the study. The letters included assurances to the participants with regard to confidentiality, statements of sanction from the associate superintendent of the Rowan County Schools, explanations of the purposes and planned use of the study, and an identification of the researcher. The participants were told that the assistant superintendent of the Division of Personnel Relations at the NCSDPI

was interested in using the results for future planning in the continued use of the NCPAS. The letters stated that the final results for the system, not individuals, would be available to participants. Participants were assured each time that the results would be used to discuss the school system and not individuals.

The cover letters were reviewed by Drs. Bardon and Jaeger, professors at UNCG, and by three supervisors and two psychologists for the Rowan County Schools. Suggested changes for clarity and additions for assurances were made.

The return rates for the first questionnaires sent were as follows:

	<u>lst</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>
Number of Teachers	362	350	318
Percentage	90.5%	87.5%	79.5%
Number of Principals	30	30	26
Percentage	93.7%	93.7%	81.2%
Number of Central Office Participants	16	17	17
Percentage	88.8%	94.4%	94.4%

Each participant who did not return a questionnaire by the requested date was sent a follow-up letter (Appendix C). If the participant failed to return the questionnaire after the second request, a phone call was made as a reminder. The high return rate may be due to these efforts, combined with the fact that I was working with participants within the school system surveyed while I worked as a supervisor known by most of the participants. The attrition rate over a two-year period is primarily due to natural causes—those who retired or left education.

# Instruments and Design

Three questionnaires (sent to all participants who answered the first) were used to collect data from the selected sample. The questionnaires (Appendix C) were designed by the researcher to collect data on the participants' perceptions prior to the implementation of the NCPAS and during the first two years of its usage. Each questionnaire had two parts; section one, designed to collect data on belief about evaluation and awareness of the new appraisal system, consisted of 18 statements using a five-point response system ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"; section two contained . 17 statements related to what the participants believed the outcomes would be as the result of using the new appraisal system. The response format was the same as for section one. Concise directions were given prior to the beginning statement in each section. Space was allowed at the end of each section for comments. The second and third questionnaires were designed to send to all those in the sample who responded to the first questionnaire. The second and third questionnaires paralled, item by item, the statements in the first questionnaires with tenses and wording changed to solicit perceptions that could be compared after one year and again after two years of experiencing a new appraisal system.

Items were chosen to determine how teachers, principals, and central office personnel perceived the need for formal evaluation and specifically for the implementation of a statewide appraisal. Each item relates to an area of evaluation or an area of change that has been unresolved (i.e., time available for the evaluator, anxiety about

change, evaluation as a means of improving instruction). Through pretesting the questionnaire, items were added, revised, or dropped in order to focus on the main themes of how educators perceive evaluation, the NCPAS, and a system-wide change.

In developing the first questionnaire, Drs. Bardon and Jaeger, professors at UNCG, were used for consultation. Two psychologists and three supervisors from the Rowan County Schools completed the questionnaire for field testing. Suggested changes were made to gain clarity, avoid halo effect, and gain appropriate statements to collect desired data. Each questionnaire was sent with the cover letter and a pre-addressed return envelope.

A large teacher sample of 400 was initially chosen to allow for the probable decrease in the responses to the three questionnaires. The school system had 725 teachers in both 1982-83 and 1983-84. All 725 were included in the pool of participants for random selection; thus, 55 percent of teachers were used as a sample. All 18 central office personnel and all 32 principals and assistant principals were included as participants because of the small sample size available. These two groups were later collapsed to one group of administrators (for statistical computations) because of the small sample size of each and the similarity of roles.

#### Data Analysis

The results from the three questionnaires were hand recorded twice to assure accuracy of raw data with the large number of participants. The responses from the Likert Scale were recorded for the 35 questions for each of the three questionnaires. The raw data were transferred

to 80-column Fortran paper for purposes of assigning responses and participant information to designated columns to allow a more manageable means of studying all responses on each of the questionnaires for any particular item. Responders' code numbers and coded numbers for their schools and school assignments (teacher, principal, central office personnel) were also recorded.

Values were chosen for converting responses on the five-point scale that asked each participant to respond to the given statement by indicating whether he or she strongly agreed (SA), agreed (A), was not sure (NS), disagreed (D), or strongly disagreed (SD). The following point values were assigned: SA = 1, A = 2, NS = 3, D = 4, SD = 5.

For each question the response rates were given for each item for each of the three groups—teachers, principals, and central office personnel. This was done by indicating the percentage of responders who selected each alternate for each item. Because the study was designed to be descriptive, there was no attempt to determine cause or effect relationships.

Through this process the data were explored in relationship to the statement of the problem. The data were computed by hand by the researcher to calculate percentages and means for the three questionnaires. The results were checked a second time for accuracy and displayed in table format (Table 1).

In order to visualize the impact of extreme scores, the mean was computed for each of the 35 questions for the total respondents in the three groups. This allowed every score to be considered in studying

central tendency and allowed a way of comparing the responses of teachers with principals or principals with central office personnel. Later, the chi-square statistic was used to determine the significance of change. For this statistical application, the principals' results and the central offices' results were collapsed. The mean was still used as an inferred way of comparing changes. For chi-square purposes the categories of agree/strongly agree, and disagree/strongly disagree were combined.

Because percentages could not adequately present the significance of change during the two-year period (using three questionnaires), the chi-square statistic was applied to identify significant changes in the ways the two groups (teachers and administrators) perceived evaluation. The chi-square results were achieved through computer analysis of the previously tabulated results. This analysis involved comparing teachers' changes in perception over a two-year period, comparing administrators' changes in perception over a two-year period, and comparing the differences between teachers' and administrators' perceptions in September, 1982, and May, 1984.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### SUMMARY OF DATA RESULTS

#### Questionnaire Results

The purpose of the data analysis of the questionnaire results was to determine personnel perceptions of the NCPAS and changes in these perceptions over two years, using three questionnaires (September, 1982; May, 1983; May, 1984). Although the data collected lend themselves to complex statistical analyses, it was decided to keep data analysis simple and to concentrate only on answering the central questions posed in this study.

Number and percent of responses were calculated for each of the three administrations of the questionnaire for teachers, principals, and county office personnel. In order to determine if any significant changes occurred for each group over time and between groups from the first to the last administration of the questionnaire, the chi-square statistic was used. Appendix B includes all ratings, percentages, numbers, means, and chi-square analyses for all administrations of the questionnaire.

Examination of the results for percents indicated that the low number of principals and county office personnel made chi-square statistical comparisons of these two groups impossible. For chi-square purposes only, it was decided to combine principals and county office personnel into a simple group of administrators and do three kinds of analyses: 1) a comparison between teachers and the combined

administrative personnel from the first questionnaire to the third;

2) a comparison of teacher responses from the first through the last administration of the questionnaire; and 3) a comparison of administrative ratings from the first through the last administration of the questionnaires.

In order to use the chi-square statistic appropriate to the data, the ratings strongly agree and agree (1 and 2), and disagree and strongly disagree (4 and 5) were combined for the administrative group and for the comparison between teachers and administrators.

Further, comparisons of teachers and administrators were made only between results for the first administration and the third administration of the questionnaire. The chi-square tables were as follows:

#### Teachers

3rd Administration

ist Administration		ļ			ļ <u>.</u>		
2nd Administration						_	
3rd Administration				<del></del>			
Administrators							
		,	A	NS	D	)	<b>.</b>
1st Administration							
2nd Administration				<u> </u>			
3rd Administration				<u> </u>			
Teachers Vs. Administrate	ors						
			A	NS	D	)	
lst Administration							
				1	l		

For each question a null hypothesis was assumed, accepting that no significant difference in opinion would occur over a two-year period with three administrations of the questionnaire. The null hypothesis was tested at an .05 significance level and either accepted or rejected. An overview of the results for all questions on the questionnaire is provided in Table 1, including all of the data  $(n, \overline{x}, percents)$  for the three different groups as well as the chisquare results for the principals and central office personnel when collapsed.

# Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 1 , Section I - Personnel in the school system do not need
a formal evaluation in order to improve.

# Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	11	69	41	194	47	362
(May, 1983) 2nd	15	57	49	166	63_	350
(May, 1984) 3rd	14	57	33	165	49	318

 $X^{2}(8, N=1030)=8.121$ p > .05 NS

Total 1030

#### Administrators Over Time -

		_A	<u>NS</u>	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	7	6	33	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	12	6	29	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	12	2	29	43

 $X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 4.106$ p > .05 NS

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	A	NS	<u> </u>	<u>lotals</u>
Teachers	80	41	241	362
Administrators	7	6	33	46

 $X^{2}(2, N=408)=1.173$ p > .05 NS

Total 408
<u>Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984</u>

Teachers Administrators

	Α	NS	D	Totals
	71	33	214	318
İ	12	2	29	43

$$X^{2}(2, N=361)=10.004$$
  
p > .05 NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 2 , Section I - Educators want help, through formal evaluation
in knowing what can be improved.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	37	185	84	50	6	362
(May, 1983) 2nd	37	206	56	49	3	351
(May, 1984) 3rd	35	198	38	43	3	317

 $\chi^{2}(8, N=1030) = 8.121$  $\underline{p} < .05 \underline{p} = .020$ 

Total 1030

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	32	10	4	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	33	5	9	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	31	6	6	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 4.106$$
  
 $P > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

	<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
1	222	84	56	362
	32	10	4	46

$$X^{2}(2, N=408)=1.173$$
  
p > .05

Total 408

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers
Administrators

	Α	NS	D	Totals
-	233	38	46	317
	31	6	6	43

$$X^{2}(2, N= 360)=1.794$$
  
p .05

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 3 , Section I - Educators only improve through personal
motivation, not because of formal appraisal.

# Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	
(Sept., 1982)	1st	34	78	63	181	6	362	
(May, 1983)	2nd	35	85	55	165	10	350	
(May, 1984)	3rd	27	72	52	158	9	318	]

 $X^{2}(8, N=1030)=3.029$ <u>p</u> > .05 NS

Total 1030

# Administrators Over Time -

	_A	NS	D	Totals	_	
(Sept., 1982) 1st	12	4	31	47	χ <sup>2</sup> (4, N= 136)= 3.900	
(May, 1983) 2nd	18	4	25	47	X*(4, N= 150)= 5.900	NG
(May, 1984) 3rd	13	7	22	42	<u>p</u> > .05	No

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u> A</u>	NS		Totals		
Teachers	112	63	187	362	$X^{2}(2, N=409)=4.005$	
Administrators	12	4	31	47	<u>p</u> > .05	NS

Total 409

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

	_A_	NS	D	Totals	_	
Teachers	99	52	167	318	$X^{2}(2, N=360) = .003$	
Administrators	13	7	22	42	<u>p</u> > .05	NS
			Tota	al 360		

#### Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 4</u>, <u>Section I</u> - There was no need for the NC Legislature to mandate the Performance Appraisal System.

## Teachers Over Time -

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	17	97	90	144	12	360
(May, 1983)	2nd	20	86	80	160	9	355
(May, 1984)	3rd	19	67	67	154	11	318

 $X^{2}(8, N=1033)=7.450$ p > .05 NS

Total 1033

# Administrators Over Time -

		A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	16	6	23	45
(May, 1983) 2	2nd	17	7	23	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	12	2	39	43

$$X^{2}(4, N=135)=4.604$$
  
 $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 135

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers	
Administrators	

_A	<u>NS</u>	D	Totals
114	90	156	360
16	6	23	45

$$\chi^{2}(2, N=405)=3.033$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 405

## Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers
Administrators

Α	NS	D	Totals
86	67	165	318
12	2	29	43

$$X^{2}(2, N=361) = 7.058$$
  
 $P < .05$   $P = .031$ 

Total 361

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 5, Section I - Staff development has been adequate at all levels to help personnel understand the Performance Appraisal System.

Total 1020

### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	
(Sept., 1982)	1st	29	186	<u>70</u>	64	7	356	W2/0 W 1000 \ 16 000
(May, 1983)	2nd	30	227	46	39	8	350	$X^{2}(8, N=1020)=16.928$
(May, 1984)	3rd	21	188	51	50	4	314	p < .05 p = .031
								י בייניים אורידי בייניים

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

	_A_	NS	<u>D</u>	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1	st 30	6	10	46
(May, 1983) 2	nd 28	5	14	47
(May, 1984) 3	rd 27	9	7	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 3.699$$
  
 $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A_	NS	0	Totals
Teachers	215	70	71	356
Administrators	30	6	10	46

 $\begin{array}{c} X^{2}(2, N=402)=1.165 \\ p > .05 \end{array}$ 

Total 402

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

_A	NS	D	Totals
209	51	54	314
27	9	7	43
	209 27	A NS 209 51 27 9	A NS D 209 51 54 27 9 7

$$X^{2}(2, N=357)=0.595$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

#### Table 1

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 6, Section I - School personnel feel that the Performance Appraisal System is a vehicle to help individuals identify areas of job performance that need improvement.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	
(Sept., 1982) 1	lst	14	203	84	56	3	360	V2/0 N 1005 \ 0 001
(May, 1983) 2	2nd	11	191	82	59	7	350	$X^{2}(8, N=1025)=2.321$
(May, 1984) 3	3rd	12	174	73	51	5	315	<u>р</u> > .05 NS

Total 1025

# Administrators Over Time -

		<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals		
(Sept., 1982)	lst	25	12	9	46	V2/4 N= 120)= / 155	
(May, 1983)	2nd	27	9	11	47	$X^{2}(4, N= 136)=4.155$	NIC
(May, 1984)	3rd	31	7	5	43	<u>p</u> > .05	NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	A	<u>NS</u>	D	Totals		
Teachers	217	84	59	360	$X^{2}(2, N= 406) = 0.617$	
Administrators	25	12	9	46	<u>p</u> > .05	NS
			Tota	1 406		

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

	<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals		
Teachers	186	73	56	315	$X^{2}(2, N=358)=2.707$	
Administrators	31	7	5	43	요 > .05	NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 7, Section I - The amount of anxiety is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year.

# Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals_
(Sept., 1982) 1st	86	160	52	54	2	354
(May, 1983) 2nd	42	156	54	94	7	353
(May, 1984) 3rd	15	83	74	133	9	316

Total 1023

## Administrators Over Time -

	_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	31	10	5	46
(May, 1983) 2nd	35	8	14	47
(May, 1984) 3rd	8	7	28	43

Total 136

X²(4,	N= 136)= 3	31.645
<u>p</u> <	.05	p = .004
	SIGNIFI	CANT DIFFERENCE

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers	<u> </u>
Administrators	

<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
346	52	56	354
31	10	5	46

$$\begin{cases} X^{2}(2, N= 400) = 1.985 \\ \underline{p} > .05 \end{cases}$$

NS

Total 400

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

	Α	NS	D	Totals
	100	74	142	316
į	8	7	28	43

$$X^{2}(2, N=359) = 6.249$$
  
 $\underline{p} < .05 \quad \underline{p} = .045$ 

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 8 , Section I - The amount of anxiety among principals is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year.

# Teachers Over Time -

	,	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	37	128	155	40	2	362
(May, 1983)	2nd	20	120	130	66	8	344
(May, 1984)	3rd	6	74	141	105	8	334

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 1040

#### Administrators Over Time -

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	35	5	6	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	30	9	8	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	17	3	23	43

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 136

## Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	165	155	42	362	X <sup>2</sup> (2, N= 408)=18.444
Administrators	35	5	6	46	p < .05 <u>P</u> = .004
		SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE			
Teachers vs. Admini	stra				

	<u> </u>	112	U	lotais	
Teachers	80	141	113	334	
Administrators	17	3	23	43	
					•

 $X^{2}(2, N=377)=20.060$  $p < .05 \quad p = .004$ SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

## Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	28	92	123	113	6	362
(May, 1983) 2nd	18	76	90	142	12	338
(May, 1984) 3rd	9	35	94	157	14	309

 $X^{2}(8, N=1009)=48.505$  p < .05 p < .001SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 1009

## Administrators Over Time - '

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	11	13	23	47
(May, 1983)	2nd	12	12	23	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	4	9	29	42

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 5.801$$
  
 $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u>A</u>	<u>NS</u>	_ <u>D</u>	Tota
Teachers	120	123	119	362
Administrators	11	13	23	47
•				

Total 409

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers	
Administrators	

<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
44	94	171	309
4	9	29	42

$$X^{2}(2, N=351)=2.839$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 10</u>, <u>Section I</u> - Teachers will not appreciate the increased amount of time that principals will spend observing in classrooms.

# Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	16	67	94	164	19	360
(May, 1983)	2nd	5	60	88	173	34	360
(May, 1984)	3rd	6	43	84	162	24	319

 $X^{2}(8, N= 1039) = 15.611$ P < .05 P = .048

Total 1039

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1	st	8	10	30	48
(May, 1983) 2	nd	12	13	22	47
(May, 1984) 3	rd	6	11	26	43

$$X^{2}(4, N=138)=3.460$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 138

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

_A	NS	D	Totals
83	94	183	360
8	10	30	48

$$\begin{cases} X^{2}(2, N=408) = 2.342 \\ p > .05 \end{cases}$$
 NS

Total 408

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

A	NS	D	Totals
49	84	186	319
6	11	26	46

$$X^{2}(2, N=365) = .088$$
  
 $P > .05$  NS

#### Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 11, Section I - The Performance Appraisal System is a process that will make it less difficult for all personnel to improve the level of performance with which they carry out their work.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	,	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	
(Sept., 1982)	1st	5	139	127	83	4	358	W2/0 W 1000 \ 10 700
(May, 1983)				122		9	352	$X^{2}(8, N=1022)=12.722$
(May, 1984)	3rd	2	110	97	100	3	312	р > .05 NS

Total 1022

#### Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS_		Totals		•
(Sept., 1982) 1:	st	28	_11	7	46	X <sup>2</sup> (4, N= 136)= 3.449	
(May, 1983) 2r	nd I	22	11	14	47	(1)	
(May, 1984) 31	rd [	25	8	10	43	<u>p</u> > .05	NS

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A_	NS	D	Totals	_
Teachers	144	127	87	358	$X^{2}(2, N= 404)= 7.122$
Administrators	28	11	7	46	p < .05 p = .030
			Tot	al 404	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
Teachers vs. Admini	istra	tors	- Ма	y, 1984	
	_				

NS D Totals Teachers 97 103 312 25 10 43 Administrators

 $X^{2}(2, N=355)=7.966$ p < .05 p = .020

Total 355

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question12</u>, <u>Section I</u> - The Performance Appraisal System is an improvement over the previously used evaluation system in Rowan County.

# Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	_
(Sept., 1982)	lst	28	31	128	54	13	354	W2/0 W 000 \ 100 (00
(May, 1983)	2nd	32	137	77	71	13	330	$X^{2}(8, N=990) = 109.639$
(May, 1984)	3rd	27	147	63	63	6	306	p < .05 p < .001
						Tota	1 990	STONTETCANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

Administrators

		<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals		
(Sept., 1982)	1st	30	11	5	46	V2/A N= 100\= 1 717	
(May, 1983)	2nd	29	11	7	47	X <sup>2</sup> (4, N= 136)= 1.717	_
(May, 1984)	3rd	28	7	8	43	<u>p</u> > .05 Ni	5

Total 136

## Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	59	128	67	254	$X^{2}(2, N=300) = 32.943$
Administrators	30	11	5	46	p < .05 p = .003
			Tota	1 300	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
Teachers vs. Admini	stra	tors	- Ma	y, 1984	
	Α	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	174	63	69	306	$X^{2}(2, N= 349)= 1.059$

Total 349

43

#### Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Ouestion 13, Section I</u> - The supervisors will be more involved in helping teachers improve through the implementation of the new system.

# Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	21	158	127	48	5	359
(May, 1983) 2nd	12	102	88	92	18	351
(May, 1984) 3rd	45	366	314	250	47	312

 $X^{2}(8, N=1022)=58.111$ P < .05 P < .001

Total 1022

Administrators Over Time -

	,	Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	21	14	11	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	17	9	27	53
(May, 1984)	3rd	13	9	21	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 142) = 8.986$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 142

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

$$X^{2}(2, N=405)=2.592$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

	<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
į	114	88	110	312
	13	9	21	43

$$X^{2}(2, N=355)=3.041$$
  
p > .05 NS

# Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 14, Section I</u> - The primary purpose of the Performance Appraisal System is to help personnel to accomplish mutual goals.

### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	<u> </u>	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1:	st <u>23</u>	207	96	23	4	353
(May, 1983) 2	nd <u>23</u>	211	72	39	5	350
(May, 1984) 3	rd <u>11</u>	192	76	35	4	318

 $\begin{array}{c} X^{2}(8, N=1021)=12.254 \\ \underline{p} > .05 & NS \end{array}$ 

Total 1021

#### Administrators Over Time -

		A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	35	4	7	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	30	11	6	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	28	12	3	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136)=6.541$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 136

## Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
230	96	27	353
35	4	7	46
	230 35	A NS 230 96 35 4	A NS D 230 96 27 35 4 7

 $X^{2}(2, N=399)=9.025$  p < .05 P = .012SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

	Α	NS	D	Totals
	203	76	39	318
1	28	12	3	43

$$\begin{array}{c} X^{2}(2, N=361)=1.169 \\ \underline{p} > .05 \end{array}$$
 NS

Total 361

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Ouestion 15, Section I - The Performance Appraisal System is not designed to gather information to make decisions about employment.

### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	_ A	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	7_	97	166	72	16	358
(May, 1983)	2nd	7	76	149	112	9	353
(May, 1984)	3rd	1	91	140	76	6	314

Total 1025

Administrators Over Time -

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	13	14	19	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	15	13	19	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	14	8	21	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 1.905$$
  
P > .05 NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A	NS
Teachers	104	167
Administrators	13	14

Totals 358  $X^{2}(2, N= 404)= 6.636$ 19 p < .05 p = .038SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

NS Totals Teachers 140 92 82 314 14 8 21 43 Administrators

 $X^{2}(2, N=357)=13.062$ p < .05 p = .005SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 357

Table 1

Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 16, Section I - The Performance Appraisal Instrument is actually very similar to what has always been used.

# Teachers Over Time -

	_	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1	lst [	2	121	59	166	10	358
(May, 1983) 2	2nd [	5	159	38	137	9	348
(May, 1984) 3	3rd [	4	145	39	122	6	316

 $X^{2}(8, N=1022)=17.519$  p < .05 p = .025SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 1022

# Administrators Over Time -

	,	<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	19	8	19	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	19	6	12	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	18	5	20	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 0.812$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u> A</u>	N2	<u> </u>	lotals	
Teachers	123	59	176	358	,
Administrators	19	8	19	46	]
					_

 $X^{2}(2, N=404)=1.101$ p > .05 NS

359) = 0.575

NS

Total 404

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

 Teachers
 149
 39

 Administrators
 18
 5

	Totals	D	NS	Α
X2(2, N=	316	128	39	149
р > .0	43	20	5	18

#### Table 1

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 17, Section I - Educators will not resent having improvement plans.

### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	15	208	90	39	4	357
(May, 1983) 2nd	32	249	49	25	2	357
(May, 1984) 3rd	35	225	36	20	1	317

 $X^{2}(8, N=1031)=45.146$  P < .05 P .001

Total 1031

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

		Totals
18	9	46
5	14	47
13	11	43
	18 5 13	18     9       5     14       13     11

 $X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 10.289$   $\underline{p} < .05 \underline{p} = .038$ 

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	223	90	43	356	$X^{2}(2, N=402)=7.754$
Administrators	19	18	9	46	p < .05 p = .022
			Tota	al 402	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
Teachers vs. Admini	stra	tors	- Ma	y, 1984	

Total 136

NS Totals Teachers 260 36 21 317 Administrators 11 43

 $X^{2}(2, N=360)=32.212$ p < .05 p = .003SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 18, Section I - The informal observations will not have significant influence on the results in the summative evaluation.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	1	34	137	168	14	354
(May, 1983)	2nd	6	53	95	182	15	351
(May, 1984)	3rd	2	47	87	163	11	310

 $X^{2}(8, N=1015) = 20.129$  $\underline{p} < .05 \underline{p} = .010$ 

Total 1015

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

## Administrators Over Time -

		<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	5	9	32	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	4	9	34	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	10	5	28	43

Total 136

# $\chi^{2}(4, N= 136) = 5.185$ p > .05 NS

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
35	137	182	354
5	9	32	46

 $\chi^2(2, N=400) = 6.631$   $\chi^2(2, N=400) = 6.631$  $\chi^2(2, N=400) = 6.631$ 

Total 400

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

## Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

_A	NS	D	Totals
49	87	174	310
10	5	28	43

$$X^{2}(2, N=353)=5.701$$
  
p > .05 NS

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 1 , Section II - Principals will not have sufficient time to
carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	36	107	107	98	- 5	353
(May, 1983) 2nd	34	92	81	126	16	349
(May, 1984) 3rd	18	90	51	135	17	311

 $X^{2}(8, N=1013) = 38.671$ p < .05 p = .001

Total 1013

# Administrators Over Time -

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	19	5	22	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	21	4	22	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	22	6	15	43

Total 136

# $X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 2.144$ p > .05 NS

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

Α	NS	D	Totals		
143	107	103	353		
19	5	22	46		
Total 399					

$$\chi^2(2, N=399)=10.004$$
  
 $p < .05 p = .007$   
SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

Α	NS	D	Totals
108	51	152	311
22	6	15	43

$$\chi^{2}(2, N=354)=4.487$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 354

Table 1

Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 2 , Section II - All educators need a state job description.

### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	56	218	41	36	6	357
(May, 1983)	2nd	65	216	45	22	1	349
(May, 1984)	3rd	60	198	29	23	1	311

 $X^{2}(8, N=1017)=12.414$ p > .05 NS

Total 1017

#### Administrators Over Time -

	_A_	NS	<u> </u>	<u>lotals</u>
(Sept., 1982) 1s	t 35	2	9	46
(May, 1983) 2n	d 30	8	9	47
(May, 1984) 3r	d 33	1	9	43

 $\chi^{2}(4, N= 136) = 7.913$ - P > .05 NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

_A	NS	D	Totals
274	41	42	357
35	2	9	46

Total 403

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

<u> A</u>	NS	ַט	lotals
258	29	24	311
33	1	9	43

$$\begin{cases} X^{2}(2, N=354)=9.436 \\ \underline{p} < .05 \quad \underline{p} = .009 \end{cases}$$

Total 354

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 3</u>, <u>Section II</u> - Fewer than one half of the employees will have a written improvement plan.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	6_	73	220	55	2	356
(May, 1983) 2nd	15	54	256	23	4	352
(May, 1984) 3rd	8	60	224	18	3	313

 $X^{2}(8, N=1021)=32.756$ P < .05 P = .001

Total 1021

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

		A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	23	13	10	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	28	14	5	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	24	16	3	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 5.056$$
  
 $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

<u> </u>	NS	U	Totals
79	220	57	356
23	13	10	46
	79 23		A         NS         U           79         220         57           23         13         10

 $X^{2}(2, N=402)=21.123$  P < .05 P = .004SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 402

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
68	224	21	313
24	16	3	43

$$\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$$
  
 $\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$   
 $\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$   
 $\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$   
 $\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$   
 $\chi^2(2, N=356)=23.623$ 

# <u>Table 1</u>

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 4</u>, <u>Section II</u> - The Performance Appraisal System will increase trust among professionals.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	5	63	164	96	25	353
(May, 1983)	2nd	2	66	154	109	22	353
(May, 1984)	3rd	2	67	125	111	10	315

 $X^{2}(8, N=1021)=13.055$ P > .05 NS

' Total 1021

### Administrators Over Time -

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	18	14	14	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	10	20	17	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	9	22	12	43

$$\chi^{2}(4, N= 136)=6.502$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

		_
Teachers	68	_
Administrators	18	
4 443*		

_A	<u>NS</u>	0	Totals
68	164	121	353
18	14	14	46

$$X^{2}(2, N=399)=9.972$$
  
 $P < .05$   $P = .007$   
SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

_A_	NS	D	Totals
69	125	121	315
9	22	12	43

$$X^{2}(2, N= 358)=2.355$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 358

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Ouestion 5, Section II -</u> The Performance Appraisal System will improve communication among school principals, teachers, and central office personnel.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	19	145	120	59	17	360
(May, 1983) 2nd	9	131	92	100	21	353
(May, 1984) 3rd	6	113	97	89	11	316

 $\begin{array}{c} X^{2}(8, N=1029) = 26.725 \\ P < .05 P = .001 \end{array}$ 

Total 1029

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Administrators Over Time -

		_A_	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	28	12	6	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	21	17	9	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	21	13	9	43

$$\chi^{2}(4, N= 136) = 2.918$$
  
 $\Sigma > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

 A
 NS
 D
 Totals

 Teachers
 164
 120
 76
 360

 Administrators
 28
 12
 6
 46

$$X^{2}(2, N= 406) = 3.996$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 406

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

_A	NS	D	Totals
119	97	100	316
21	13	9	43

$$\chi^{2}(2, N=359)=2.647$$
  
p > .05 NS

1031) = 12.649

NS

NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 6 , Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will not be used later to implement a merit pay plan.

# Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals	
(Sept., 1982) 1st	11	42	215	64	28	360	V2/0 N- 10
(May, 1983) 2nd	12	23	210	71	34	350	$X^{2}(8, N=10)$
(May, 1984) 3rd	6	27	191	77	20	321	p > .05

Total 1031

#### Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS	D	Totals	
(Sept., 1982) 1	lst	10	25	11	46	$X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 6.789$
(May, 1983) 2					47	
(May, 1984) 3					43	p > .05

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u>A</u>	<u>NS</u>	D	Totals		
Teachers	53	215	92	360	$X^{2}(2, N= 406)= 1.537$	
Administrators	10	25	11	46	p > .05	NS
			Tot	al 406	<del>-</del>	
Teachers vs. Admin	istra	tors	- Ma	v. 1984		

 A
 NS
 D
 Totals

 Teachers
 33
 191
 97
 321

 Administrators
 4
 18
 21
 43

 $X^{2}(2, N= 364)= 6.146$  P < .05 P = .047SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 7 , Section II - Few changes in employee performance will
occur because of the new system.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	7	122	124	97	6	356
(May, 1983)	2nd	22	136	126	62	3	349
(May, 1984)	3rd	11	128	110	64	3	316

 $X^{2}(8, N=1021)=19.709$  p < .05 p = .012

Total 1021

# Administrators Over Time - :

		<u> A</u>	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	9	13	24	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	22	7	18	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	20	9	14	43

Total 136

 $X^{2}(4, N= 136)=10.137$   $\underline{P} < .05 \underline{P} = .040$ SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers
Administrators

	<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
	129	124	103	356
i	9	13	24	46

Total 402

 $X^{2}(2, N= 402)= 10.779$  p < .05 P = .005SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals				
139	110	67	316				
20	9	14	43				

$$X^{2}(2, N=359)=4.417$$
  
p > .05 NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 8, Section II-</u> The Pre-conference as part of the evaluation cycle will be something new.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	56	262	19	19	2	358
(May, 1983)	2nd	36	266	18	24	2	346
	3rd	17	240	21	40	1	319

 $X^{2}(8, N=1023)=29.937$ p < .05 p = .001

Total 1023

#### Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	38	1	7	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	41	3	3	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	35	4	4	43

 $\chi^{2}(4, N= 136) = 3.877$ p > .05 NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A	NS	D	Totals
Teachers	318	19	21	358
Administrators	38	1	7	46

 $\chi^{2}(2, N=404)=6.131$  p < .05 p = .047SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

 $X^{2}(2, N=362)=0.683$ p > .05 NS

Total 362

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 9 , Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will provide a means whereby personnel decisions can be made in a more objective way.

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	Ď	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	13	198	95	45	5	356
(May, 1983)	2nd	9	184	91	56	4	344
(May, 1984)	3rd	5	172	87	49	2	315

 $X^{2}(8, N= 1015)=5.616$ p > .05 NS

Total 1015

#### Administrators Over Time -

		_A_	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	29	12	5	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	30	8	9	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	29	9	5	43

 $X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 2.363$  $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers	
Administrators	

<u>A</u>	NS D		Totals
211	95	50	356
29	12	5	46

$$\chi^{2}(2, N=402)=0.403$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 402

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

Α	NS	D	Totals
177	87	51	315
29	9	5	43

$$X^{2}(2, N= 358)= 1.967$$
  
p > .05 NS

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Ouestion 10, Section II</u> - The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job performance of teachers.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	17	169	102	64	7	359
(May, 1983) 2nd	8	128	117	78	13	344
(May, 1984) 3rd	5	137	83	85	9	319

Total 1022

 $X^{2}(8, N=1022)=22.340$  P < 0.05 P = 0.005SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Administrators Over Time -

		<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	30	12	4	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	21	18	8	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	23	15	5	43

Total 136

# $X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 4.248$ <u>p</u> > .05 NS

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

 A
 NS
 D
 Totals

 Teachers
 183
 102
 71
 356

 Administrators
 30
 12
 4
 46

 $X^{2}(2, N=402)=4.324$ p > .05 NS

Total 402

# Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

 Teachers
 142
 83

 Administrators
 23
 15

<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
142	·83	94	319
23	15	5	43

Total 362

$$X^{2}(2, N=362)=6.179$$

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Table 1 Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Ouestion 11, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job effectiveness of principals.</u>

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	<u>Totals</u>
(Sept., 1982)	lst	22	159	114	52	10	357
(May, 1983) 2	2nd	11	122	128	67	17	345
(May, 1984)	3rd	9	132	82	78	12	313
	•						

Total 1015

 $X^{2}(8, N=1015)=26.758$  P < .05 P = .001SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Administrators Over Time -

		_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	lst	33	7	6	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	30	11	6	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	30	12	3	45

$$X^{2}(4, N= 138)= 4.248$$
  
p > .05 NS

Total 138

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	Α	NS	D	Totals				
Teachers	181	114	62	357	$X^{2}(2, N=403)=7.640$			
Administrators	<b>3</b> 3	7	6	46	p < .05 p = .023			
	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE							
Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984								
	۸	MC	n	Totalo				

 A
 NS
 D
 Totals

 Teachers
 141
 82
 90
 313

 Administrators
 30
 12
 3
 45

 $X^{2}(2, N=358)=11.242$  P < .05 P = .005SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Ouestion 12, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will not increase teacher job satisfaction.</u>

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	45	130	115	49	4	343
(May, 1983) 2nd	37	143	93	54	0	327
(May, 1984) 3rd	21	137	74	69	2	303

 $X^{2}(8, N=973)=23.697$   $\underline{p} < .05 \ \underline{p} = .003$ SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 973

#### Administrators Over Time -

	_A	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	17	14	18	49
(May, 1983) 2nd	18	14	15	47
(May, 1984) 3rd	15	10	18	43

$$\chi^{2}(4, N= 139)=1.105$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

Total 139

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_A_	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	175	115	53	343	X <sup>2</sup> (2, N= 392)=13.376
Administrators	17	14	18	49	p < .05 p = .005
			Tot	al 392	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

	_A	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	158	74	71	303	$X^{2}(2, N=346)=7.237$
Administrators	15	10	18	43	p < .05 P = .028
			Tot	al 346	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Table 1

Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 13, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will increase</u> the principal's job satisfaction.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	_ŚA_	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	4	90	162	91	13	360
(May, 1983) 2nd	3	62	211	67	8	350
(May, 1984) 3rd	2	50	185	73	7	317

 $X^{2}(8, N=1027)=22.718$   $\underline{p} < .05$   $\underline{p} = .004$ SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 1027

#### Administrators Over Time -

		Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	21	11 .	14	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	13	14	20	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	15	9	19	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136) = 4.164$$
  
 $\underline{p} > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	Α	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	94	162	104	360	$X^{2}(2, N= 406)= 9.789$
Administrators	21	11	14	46	p < .05 $p = .008$
			Tot	al 406	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
Teachers vs. Admini					
		ИС		T. 1. 1.	

 A
 NS
 D
 Totals

 Teachers
 52
 185
 80
 317

 Administrators
 15
 9
 19
 43

 $X^{2}(2, N= 360)=21.736$  P < .05 P = .004SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 14, Section II - The central office will play a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System.

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	t 5	93	175	72	14	359
(May, 1983) 2nd	7	47	188	88	18	348
(May, 1984) 3rd	4	56	149	89	17	315

 $X^{2}(8, N=1022)=22.766$  P < .05 P = .004SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Total 1022

#### Administrators Over Time -

	,	Α	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	17	19	10	46
(May, 1983)	2nd	17	8	22	47
(May, 1984)	3rd	11	7	<sup>25</sup>	43

 $X^{2}(4, N=136) = 15.909$  $\underline{P} < .05 \underline{P} = .005$ 

Total 136

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

Teachers Administrators

<u> </u>	NS	0	Totals
98	175	86	359
17	19	10	46

 $X^{2}(2, N=405)=1.896$ p > .05 NS

Total 405

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers Administrators

	_A	NS	D	Totals
-	60	149	106	315
	11	7	25	43

 $X^{2}(2, N=358) = 15.371$ P < .05 P = .005

Total 358

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

#### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 15, Section II - The new summative Appraisal Instrument uses a four-point rating scale. The inclusion of 'Exceeds Performance Expectations' is an improvement over the preceding 'Satisfactory.'

#### Teachers Over Time -

	SA	A	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1st	68	188	49	42	13	360
(May, 1983) 2nd				39	15	344
(May, 1984) 3rd	60	183	35	26	10	314

 $\chi^{2}(8, N=1018)=5.304$  $\chi^{2}(8, N=1018)=5.304$ 

Total 1018

#### Administrators Over Time -

	_A	NS	D	Totals	
(Sept., 1982) 1st	22	11	13	46	
(May, 1983) 2nd	29	5	13	47	
(May, 1984) 3rd	30	5	8	43	

 $X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 6.129$  $\underline{P} > .05$  NS

Total 136

# Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	_ <u>A</u>	N2	U	lotais	•
Teachers	254	49	55	358	$X^{2}(2, N= 404) = 10.089$
Administrators	22	11	13	46	p < .05 p = .007
			Tota	al 404	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

	A	NS	D	Totals_	
Teachers	243	35	36	314	$X^{2}(2, N= 357)= 1.859$
Administrators	30	5	8	43	$\underline{p} > .05$ NS
			Tot	al 357	

### Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

Question 16 , Section II - I will improve more as a result of the implementation of the Performance Appraisal System.

# Teachers Over Time -

		SA	<u> </u>	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	9	169	119	47	13	357
(May, 1983)	2nd	9	114	64	136	23	346
(May, 1984)	3rd	6	110	59	123	19	317

 $\chi^{2}(8, N=1020)=88.136$   $\chi^{2}(8, N=1020)=88.136$  $\chi^{2}(8, N=1020)=88.136$ 

Total 1020

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

# Administrators Over Time -

	_A_	NS	D	Totals
(Sept., 1982) 1	st 26	14	6	46
(May, 1983) 2	nd 20	11	16	47
(May, 1984) 3	rd 16	14	13	43

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 7.172$$
  
 $P > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

	<u>A</u>	NS	D	Totals
Teachers	178	119	60	357
Administrators	26	14	6	46

$$X^{2}(2, N=403)=0.813$$
 $p > .05$  NS

Total 403

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

Teachers	
Administrators	

	<u> </u>	NS	D	Totals
	116	59	142	317
İ	16	14	13	43

$$X^{2}(2, N= 360) = 5.501$$
  
 $p > .05$  NS

# Overview of Chi-Square Results for Each Question

<u>Question 17, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will probably be discontinued in a few years.</u>

#### Teachers Over Time -

		SA	Α	NS	D	SD	Totals
(Sept., 1982)	1st	17	79	180	69	8	353
(May, 1983)	2nd	9	70	170	86	11	· 346
(May, 1984)	3rd	6	50	172	80	5	313

 $X^{2}(8, N= 1012)=14.541$ P > .05 NS

Total 1012

#### Administrators Over Time -

	A	NS	D	Totals	
(Sept., 1982) 1st	12	12	22	46	,
(May, 1983) 2nd	11	13	23	47	,
(May, 1984) 3rd	16	9	18	43	]

$$X^{2}(4, N= 136)= 2.371$$
  
 $P > .05$  NS

Total 136

#### Teachers vs. Administrators - September, 1982

		11/2	U	lotais	
Teachers	96	180	77	353	$X^{2}(2, N=399)=16.363$
Administrators	12	12	22	46	p < .05 p = .005
			Tot	al 399	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					

Teachers vs. Administrators - May, 1984

	A	NS	D	Totals	
Teachers	56	172	85	313	$X^{2}(2, N=356)=18.408$
Administrators	16	9	8	43	p < .05 p = .004
			Tot	al 356	SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE

Table 2
Summary of Questions with Significant Differences

Section I	Teachers	Administrators	Teachers Vs.	Administrators
			Sept., 1982	May, 1984
Q2 Q4 Q5	s			
Q4				S
Q5	S			
Q6				
07	S	S	-	S
Q8 Q9 Q10	S	S	S	S
Q9	S			
Q10	S			
Q11			S	S
Q12	S		S	
Q13	S			
Q14			S	
Q15	S		S	S
Q16	S	<u> </u>		
Q17	S	S	S	S
Q18	S		S	
Totals	12	3	7	6
Section II				
01	S		, s	
Q1 Q2	<u> </u>			S
$-\frac{3}{3}$	S		S	S
Q3 Q4 Q5	<del> </del>		<u>-</u>	
05	S			
06	<del> </del>			S
Q6 Q7	S	S	S	
Q8	S		S	
<del>Q</del> 10	S			S
- QII	S		S	S
<del>Q12</del>	3		S	S
013	S		S	S
<del>Q</del> 14	S	S		S
<del>Q</del> 15	†		S	
<del>Q</del> 16	S			
Q17	<del> </del>		S	S
		<del> </del>	·····	
Totals	11	2	10	9

Note: A detailed narrative summary follows to explain this table.

#### Detailed Narrative Summary

This section summarizes the data results from the three groups that were statistically analyzed. The three questionnaires were administered in September, 1982; May, 1983; and May, 1984. Section I of each questionnaire dealt with perceptions about evaluation practices and the NCPAS prior to its implementation. Section II of each questionnaire focused on the expectations as the result of using a new, state-mandated system of evaluation.

#### Teachers' Ratings and Changes

Teachers' ratings showed a significant change over time for 12 questions in Section I, and 11 questions in Section II. The following questions moved more to the left of the Likert scale, meaning teachers agreed more by the end of the two-year period: Section I - 2) "Teachers want help, through formal evaluation, in knowing what can be improved." 5) "Staff development has been adequate at all levels to help personnel understand the Personnel Appraisal System." 12) "The Performance Appraisal System is an improvement over the previously used evaluation system in Rowan County." 16) "The Performance Appraisal Instrument is actually very similar to what has been used." 17) "Educators will not resent having improvement plans." 18) "The informal observations will not have significant influence on the results in the summative evaluation." Section II - 3) "Fewer than one-half of the employees will have a written improvement plan." 7) "Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system."

The following ratings for teachers changed more to the right of the Likert scale, meaning teachers disagreed more by the end of the

three administrations of the questionnaire: Section I - 7) 'The amount of anxiety among teachers is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." 8) "The amount of anxiety among principals is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." 9) "The anxiety among personnel will increase as the Professional Appraisal System is used." 10) "Teachers will not appreciate the increased amount of time that principals will spend observing in classrooms." 13) "The supervisors will be more involved in helping teachers improve through the implementation of the new system." 15) "The Performance Appraisal System is not designed to gather information to make decisions about employment." Section II - 1) "Principals will not have sufficient time to carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities." 5) "The Performance Appraisal System will improve communication among school principals, teachers, and central office staff." 8) "The Pre-Conference as part of the evaluation cycle will be something new." 10) "The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job performance of teachers." 11) "The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job effectiveness of principals." 12) "The Performance Appraisal System will not increase teacher job satisfaction." 13) "The Performance Appraisal System will increase the principal's job satisfaction." 14) "The central office staff will play a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System." 16) "I will improve more as a result of the implementation of the Performance Appraisal System."

#### Administrators' Ratings and Changes

Administrators' perceptions changed in five questions. The one change toward agreeing more was for the following question:

Section II - 7) "Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system." The group of administrators showed a significant change toward disagreeing on the Likert scale for four questions.

Section I - 7) "The amount of anxiety among teachers is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." 8) "The amount of anxiety among principals is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." 17) "Educators will not resent having improvement plans."

Section II - 14) "The central office staff will play a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System."

#### Comparison of Teachers with Administrators

In comparing teachers' responses with administrators' responses, there was a significant difference in the way the groups answered the first questionnaire and the last questionnaire for the following questions: Section I - 8) "The amount of anxiety among principals is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." Administrators agreed more strongly than did teachers both prior to using the NCPAS and after two years of usage. 11) "The Performance Appraisal System is a process that will make it less difficult for all personnel to improve the level of performance with which they carry out their work." For this statement, administrators agreed more strongly than did teachers on both administrations of the questionnaire. 15) "The Performance Appraisal System is not

designed to gather information to make decisions about employment." Administrators significantly disagreed more strongly than did teachers with this statement both in September, 1982, and in May, 1984. 17) "Educators will not resent having improvement plans." Teachers agreed more strongly each time than did administrators in rating this statement. Section II - 3) 'Fewer than one half of the employees will have written improvement plans." Teachers disagreed more strongly than did administrators for both administrations of the questionnaire. 11) "The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job effectiveness of principals." Principals agreed significantly more than did teachers when answering both the first and the last questionnaires. 12) "The Performance Appraisal System will not increase teacher job satisfaction." On both the first and the last questionnaire administrators disagreed with this statement while teachers agreed. 13) "The Performance Appraisal System will increase the principal's job satisfaction." Administrators significantly disagreed with this statement on both questionnaires. 17) 'The Performance Appraisal System will probably be discontinued in a few years." While both groups agreed each time, administrators agreed significantly more than did teachers.

On eight questions in September, 1982, there was a significant difference between how administrators and teachers responded; however, by September, 1984, there was no significant difference. The questions were as follows: Section I - 12) "The Performance Appraisal System is an improvement over the previously used evaluation system in Rowan County." Principals initially agreed significantly more than did

teachers. There was no significant difference between the groups after two years. 14) "The primary purpose of the Performance Appraisal System is to help personnel accomplish mutual goals." Administrators initially agreed significantly more than did teachers with this statement, but there was no significant difference after two years. 18) "The informal observations will not have significant influence on the results in the summative evaluation." Administrators clearly disagreed more with this statement in September, 1982, prior to the implementation of the NCPAS. By May, 1984, there was no significant difference in administrators' and teachers' perceptions. Section II -1) "Principals will not have sufficient time to carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities." Administrators disagreed with the statement significantly more than did teachers on the first questionnaire. 4) "The Performance Appraisal System will increase trust among professionals." Teachers disagreed more than did administrators when the first questionnaire was answered. By May, 1984, both groups disagreed, with no significant difference. 7) "Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system." At the beginning, administrators disagreed more than did teachers; but the group moved toward the positive side by the end of the second year of using the NCPAS, showing no significant difference from teachers. 8) "The Pre-Conference as part of the evaluation cycle will be something new." Administrators initially expected this to be true more than did teachers, but the two groups showed no difference after two years. 15) "The new Summative Appraisal Instrument uses a fourpoint rating scale as follows: (a) Performs Unsatisfactorily,

(b) Needs Improvement, (c) Meets Performance Expectations, (d) Exceeds Performance Expectations. The inclusion of 'Exceeds Performance Expectations' is an improvement over the previous scale of (a) Unsatisfactory, (b) Needs Improvement, (c) Satisfactory." Administrators initially disagreed significantly more than did teachers, with no difference after two years.

On six questions there was no significant difference in how teachers and administrators responded on the first questionnaire, but there was a difference on the last questionnaire. Those questions were as follows: Section I - 4) "There was no need for the North Carolina Legislature to mandate the Performance Appraisal System." Initially, there was no significant difference in how teachers and administrators perceived this statement. By the end of the second year, administrators agreed significantly more than did teachers with the statement. 7) "The amount of anxiety among teachers is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year." While both groups initially agreed and both groups disagreed by the end of the second year, administrators disagreed significantly more than did teachers after two years. Section II - 2) All educators need a state job description." On the last questionnaire teachers agreed significantly more than did administrators, although there had been no significant difference on the first administration of the questionnaire. 6) "The Performance Appraisal System will not be used later to implement a merit pay system." While both groups disagreed, administrators felt significantly stronger on this issue when the last questionnaire was answered. 10) "The Performance Appraisal System

will improve on-the-job performance of teachers." Administrators agreed with this statement significantly less than did teachers on the September, 1984, administration of the questionnaire. 14) "The central office staff will play a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System." While there was no significant difference in the way administrators and teachers viewed this statement prior to the implementation of the NCPAS, administrators disagreed significantly more at the end of two years.

#### CHAPTER V

#### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

#### Review of Intent of Study

The study, "Evaluation as a Means for Teacher Improvement: Using the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System as a Model." was begun prior to the implementation of the state-mandated NCPAS in the fall of 1982. Using three questionnaires, data were gathered at checkpoints from September, 1982, to May, 1984, to learn how educators perceived the idea of the NCPAS over time. Along with this quantitative collection and analysis of the data, the study design included a review of the literature to examine what leading writers and researchers perceive about the field of evaluation and the process of impacting change in education. The intent for final discussion is to discuss the results of the questionnaires and to relate the educators' perceptions and changes over two years to what the literature expresses. Do the opinions of teachers and administrators who are involved during the first two years of a new, statewide appraisal system parallel, support, or negate what exists in the literature? Additionally, what are we able to learn from a change attempt as the views of educators reflect what happens over the first two years of a system like the NCPAS being launched and used? What do we learn about change as well as evaluation as the data and the literature are examined?

When the study was first conceived, it was basically a straightforward, one-dimensional study designed to collect and examine

data about the NCPAS as perceived by teachers, principals, and central office personnel in one county in NC. The emphasis was to be on perceptions held prior to the beginning of a new system of appraisal and changes in these perceptions after one year and again after the second year of usage. Early in 1982 after the first questionnaire was sent and after statewide workshops were being conducted to prepare all NC educators for the NCPAS, articles and news began indicating that a career ladder plan would replace or amend the NCPAS, possibly as early as 1986. This prompted the inclusion of the other aspects of the study to validate the perceptions of educators with the literature and to examine change as a planned process in education. The discussion chapter is intended to integrate these areas of inquiry to allow examination of how what has happened in one county in NC in relationship to the NCPAS might help us to understand evaluation and change efforts in a way to predict or influence future efforts to improve evaluation.

#### What Findings Were Expected

The review of the literature on evaluation indicates that there has been a dread and fear of evaluation from the time early colonies sent an appointed lay person to judge the teacher's role in the one-room schoolhouse until the present. I would not expect any new system of evaluation of teachers' performances to be accepted without the same feelings of anxiety and trepidation. Not only would teachers likely feel apprehensive about being measured or rated in a new or different way, but also administrators would feel fearful and frustrated about the implementation of a new system, especially one imposed by others.

The literature suggests that the historical practices of evaluation have been autonomously in the hands of the administrators. The fear that teachers often have is grounded in the nature of evaluation being subjective and based too much on one person's single observation. The literature would lead me to expect teachers to continue to feel the frustrations of being judged by an administrator who may not consider or understand the global classroom picture. While teachers might at first perceive the NCPAS to be more objective, the literature suggests that few evaluation systems have led educators to feel less threatened about the process. After the first year, I would expect teachers to perceive little difference in the NCPAS and previously used systems.

In reviewing the historical shift in locus of control for evaluation from a church or community person to the present trend for statewide systems, expectations would be that all educators would perceive the NCPAS as an instrument to be used for personnel decisions. In moving toward a standardized, statewide system, the obvious intent would seem to be more objectivity and control in the ways the LEAs choose to evaluate personnel. I would expect that administrators would perceive this to be more advantageous (less subjective) for them. Because discussion about moving from the NCPAS to a career plan or plan for merit pay began before teachers were ever evaluated with the NCPAS, it would seem likely that teachers and administrators, especially after one year, would perceive the standardization and use of the NCPAS as a move toward merit pay. I would expect from the literature that the evolution of more control by the state would continue and LEAs would have more limited power in making decisions. Because of Horace Mann's

influence and the continual formalization and systematized methods of supervision and evaluation, I would expect administrators and teachers to perceive a need for formal evaluation processes. However, because previous methods have been ever changing, the initial expectations for the effectiveness of the NCPAS would naturally be suspected to be higher during implementation and believed to drop after one year and to drop further after two years. The literature suggests that new methods of evaluation follow the public's demands for increased quality (i.e., after Russia launched Sputnik, after Tyler's Eight Year Study, after the commission's report, "A Nation at Risk"); however, the initial concerns lessen after a new practice is introduced. The change effort is much stronger in the initial stages when efforts are focused on the need for drastic change. Anxiety is higher as educators cope with new ideas. After a period of time, the intensity diminishes and the change is perceived as less drastic and less anxiety provoking. From the literature, I would expect the NCPAS to be perceived as more of a change during the initial year but that as time passed it would be viewed as more assimilated and less of a change. It might be expected that while educators first perceive the NCPAS as a complication making their jobs more difficult, they would later disagree that it was very different from what existed prior to the state-mandated, standardized system.

From the literature depicting the continual changes in evaluation attempts, the NCPAS might be anticipated to be as short-lived as four years. Because practices have been evolutionary and developmental, I would foresee parts of the NCPAS as being integrated into a planned change. Also, the literature suggests that more research has validated

characteristics, behaviors, and practices common among good teachers.

A new instrument would logically stress more what is known and can be observed as related to what studies have shown during the last decade.

Because staff development activities tend to be strong efforts, especially for administrators, prior to the implementation of something new in education, the literature suggests that administrators would at first find the training sufficient. The literature suggests that as time passes, the in-service education diminishes. It would be realistic to find this pattern with the NCPAS. At the beginning, educators would likely view the preconference, the informal observations, the improvement plan, and the instrument (summative) as very important and different since these are strongly stressed in early workshops.

Over time, these likely would be perceived as less and less important or different. In this same vein, the literature suggests that the supervisors would be viewed as more actively involved in the beginning.

The issue of time for evaluators is one of the easiest to predict because nowhere in the literature is there a belief that principals have sufficient time. Although teachers, I believe, will want principals to spend more time with them, neither group will perceive this to be possible. Over the two-year period, with increased paper work involved in the NCPAS, it is likely that the lack of time to adequately and effectively implement the NCPAS will be perceived as a serious problem. Because of this, those who at first perceived the NCPAS as an improvement and a vehicle to help teachers can be expected to shift, not perceiving it as an improvement over the previously used system.

The literature strongly suggests the need for renewed leadership from supervisors and principals. With increased demands on administrators to help teachers improve in curriculum areas, I think the need for ongoing in-service education will be necessary and that higher levels of anxiety will exist. Job satisfaction for administrators will probably decrease as increased demands are made on them to be instructional leaders, but the other job responsibilities will remain intact. Although the NCPAS was designed to increase trust and enhance communication, it is not unforeseen that all groups would doubt, even from the onset, the likelihood of this being accomplished.

#### Results of the Survey

In this discussion it is important to decide or infer how the data collected over a two-year period support the expectations that were drawn from the review of the literature. At this point it is imperative that the reader also recognize that conclusions or thoughts are not absolutely quantitative; often, the discussion is based on quantitative data, but some of my own experiences and deductions from the literature are interjected to explain how all the pieces seem to add to a whole. In writing this section, there is the necessity to make inferences. Does the literature support, ignore, or negate what the data show? Why or what could explain differences in what was expected (from the literature) and what educators perceived (from the questionnaires)? What explanations exist for the perceptions that administrators or teachers had? What accounts for, based on the literature (primarily) and experience, the changes that occur over time?

Because teachers agreed more, over the two-year period, that the NCPAS was an improvement and that teachers wanted help more, I think they were saying that the NCPAS gave them a renewed hope for viewing evaluation. The evaluator was going to spend more time (on the teacher's turf) with a pre-observation to really understand the arrangement and dynamics of the class, observe a class that the evaluator and the evaluatee had discussed, and have a post-conference (again in the teacher's classroom) to discuss the observation. The fact that teachers moved in a positive direction (agreeing less) with regard to the NCPAS being an improvement indicates that they liked having administrators involved in their classrooms. Over time teachers changed in feeling that the NCPAS was very different from previously used systems. This indicates the always threatening pitfall of something new being new for only a short period of time. In many ways this inference is oppositional to the literature because it suggests that teachers do want administrators or evaluators to know firsthand what they do. Teachers did want help to know how they could improve and they did, surprisingly, see the NCPAS as an improvement over the evaluation system previously used. Yet by the end of the second year of usage, teachers perceived less difference in the NCPAS and the prior system. While teachers had been fearful about having improvement plans, they later agreed that these plans would not be as much resented. Also, as teachers' initial optimism dwindled, they felt that the informal observations would have less impact than originally suspected, that a low number of teachers would have improvement plans, and that few changes would occur as the result of

using the NCPAS. My explanation of this is that the emphasis (creating high anxiety) when the NCPAS was mandated dissipated as evaluators and evaluatees realized that the NCPAS was not going to create the monumental changes that it was designed to make. At first all state-appointed facilitators, sent to LEAs, were saying that the preconference and the post conference should be held in the teachers' rooms. This seldom, if ever, happened. The sound bases for the NCPAS could not be practiced because of the time factor for evaluators, which is evident in all responses to the questionnaire.

Once the original plan for a system like the NCPAS is changed, many other facets of that system change. The planned, well-studied method is no longer what it was intended to be. Naturally, the initial anxiety among teachers decreased as they realized that the initial priority of thoroughly evaluating their performances decreased. Very seldom did preconferences get held in a teacher's classroom. Post conferences and informal observations reverted to what had previously existed—an evaluator's subjective opinion.

Even administrators, who changed very little in their opinions over two years (on only five questions), agreed that anxiety dissipated. What they thought was to be an imperative, high priority was not monitored enough for them to feel the necessity of putting it above all else. Interestingly, teachers felt that the time evaluators spent with them would be appreciated.

I believe that teachers want to be appraised for what they do and they want that appraisal to be an honest one--one that includes the time that evaluators do not presently have to give to the process. When teachers significantly changed to disagree more that supervisors would be involved in this new process, NCPAS, I think they were expressing a desire to have administrators (supervisors and principals) more aware of what happens in the class. Teachers seem to want involvement and help but are discouraged when they think help is coming and it does not come. At first, perhaps because of workshops on the NCPAS, teachers believed (perceived) that principals would have time for the new evaluation. Later, when they recognized the lack of time, they also accepted that all the idealisms (preconference, communication, trust, job satisfaction, etc.) were not to be.

Ironically, teachers disagreed, over time, that principals could carry out the assigned tasks of the NCPAS. While they felt more strongly that the NCPAS was going to be used for personnel decisions and a change toward merit pay, they also felt that it would increase the amount of time that evaluators spent in understanding what they did. At this point in teachers' thinking, they felt that job satisfaction for administrators would be increased. Later, after two years of experience with the NCPAS, this group disagreed more significantly that the county office had played a critical role. The sub-group of teachers also changed significantly in their expectations for personal improvement, disagreeing more that the NCPAS would help them to improve their teaching.

Teachers changed significantly in the ways they answered 23 questions over the three administrations of the questionnaire, indicating that their expectations of what the NCPAS would accomplish and their later views of the outcomes changed for two-thirds of the questions.

Since administrators only changed on the ways they answered five questions, an explanation might be that administrators had more initial in-service education, giving them a more realistic view of the NCPAS. Undoubtedly, it hurts the chances of the process of a system like the NCPAS when an involved group has such a high percentage of expectations that they do not experience as outcomes for the system. Teachers answered only 12 questions without significant change (Table 2). On these 12 questions (Table 1), they disagreed or agreed both prior to the implementation and throughout the first two years of using the NCPAS.

Another explanation for the small number (5) of changes that occurred among administrators could be that their accumulated years of experience have convinced them that few changes occur in education. When they answered the first questionnaire, the views of this group remained primarily the same. What principals and central office personnel expected to happen prior to the implementation of the NCPAS was the same (for 30 questions) as what they perceived had happened after two years. Because of the leadership influence of administrators for the way any change process is moved into a system, this also suggests that administrators perceived the NCPAS in a particular way and influenced its outcomes by their expectations of how it would impact schools and teachers. In the first section, the only significant change was for the question, 'Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system." After two years, they agreed more significantly that this change would not occur. When those responsible for the system perceive the unlikelihood of change, it is unlikely that any noticeable transformation will occur. Two significant changes in

perceptions of administrators related to the anxiety levels for teachers and for themselves. In both cases they perceived the anxiety levels to decrease as the NCPAS was used. Perhaps related to this was the change in the perception that the central office would play a critical role in the outcomes. As time passed, the systems' total involvement was not what they had perceived it might be; thus, as anxiety levels lowered for administrators, teachers felt less anxiety about the system. During the 1985-86 school year administrators were involved in new workshops on implementing the newly proposed model of "Effective Teacher Training" and an elaborated instrument (TPAI) beginning in 1986-87. This, I feel, led to less anxiety about the former system although it was only in use two years.

The other significant change in administrators' answers to the three questionnaires was in response to "Educators will not resent having improvement plans." After the implementation of the NCPAS, administrators began to agree less with this statement, realizing that teachers did resent improvement plans. During the initial phases of training, emphasis was placed on the importance of improvement plans (perhaps for every teacher) as well as on the diplomatic, mutual ways for teachers and administrators to write these. Probably, as time passed and fewer teachers than perceived had improvement plans, others resented this more because it was viewed as more negative and more threatening.

The comparison of teachers to administrators is a critical part of the study. It is important to understand that this area explains those questions that the two groups perceived differently prior to the implementation of the NCPAS and after the second year. It has a subtle relationship to the ways that teachers or administrators answered or changed over time. It provides the reader with an analysis (Tables 1 and 2) of how the perceptions of the two groups differ. To explain, teachers and administrators changed significantly in answering the question, "Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system"; however, the two groups were also significantly different in the way they viewed this in September, 1982. At that time, administrators agreed significantly less than did teachers, based on the chi-square test. For those who are interested in in-depth study, Tables 1 and 2 and the Detailed Narrative Summary will be helpful.

It is important to note (Table 2) that prior to the implementation of the NCPAS, teachers and administrators had different perceptions for 17 questions; at the end of the second year, perceptions were different for 15 questions. Eight of these differences were for the same questions. To realize that teachers and administrators had different perceptions approximately 50 percent of the time is a fact that indicates the complexity of the problem with which we deal. When teachers and administrators disagreed significantly in their response to, "There was no need for the NC Legislature to mandate the Performance Appraisal System," (administrators disagreed significantly more), or "The Performance Appraisal System is a process that will make it less difficult for all personnel to improve the level of performance with which they carry out their work," (teachers disagreed more on both chisquare analyses), then we can infer that the problems with evaluation are much more complex than implementing a new appraisal system. The

philosophical assumptions held by the two groups lead to other areas that must be addressed. Those questions that raise the need for philosophical inquiry to continue in the area of what we understand about teaching are the ones that make this study important. If only perceptions were analyzed, the study would not be overly complexsimply tedious. As the differences in perceptions are examined from the data results, the implications and ramifications become exceedingly complex.

To realize that teachers and administrators significantly differ in the ways they perceive half of the issues related to evaluation in this study implies that we must pay attention to what these differences are. Two of the questions have already been mentioned. Another question on which teachers and administrators attitudinally differ, is, "The Performance Appraisal System is not designed to gather information to make decisions about employment." Both before the NCPAS began and after two years, administrators disagreed significantly with teachers; in other words, they felt more strongly that the NCPAS would move more into the arena of making decisions about re-hiring. This leads to an inference that evaluators knew or at least perceived more about the nature of the system and the potential for the NCPAS to evolve to a career ladder plan. Interestingly, while the two groups remained significantly different, the teachers changed significantly over the two years toward disagreeing more with the statement. The trust and communication factors naturally re-enter the global picture as one realizes that the common ground for accepting the purpose of the NCPAS did not exist throughout its usage.

The seriousness of this lack of mutual understanding is additionally evident in the significant difference for the questions, "The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job effectiveness of principals"; "The Performance Appraisal System will not increase teacher job satisfaction"; and "The Performance Appraisal System will increase the principal's job satisfaction." When the two groups that are primarily involved in the process disagree about their expectations in these areas, the change program is in serious trouble before it begins. It implies that the study should not end with this research. While the data in Tables 1 and 2 can be studied to understand what the differences are and when the shifts in perceptions occur, this research does not explain why the differences exist.

#### Do the Findings Confirm What Is in the Literature?

In attempting to explain what was revealed in this study, the literature is the one area that offers some insight. Because not all of the connections between the process of change, the data analyzed, and the literature could possibly be made, the most obvious ones will be discussed. There appear to me to be three areas that draw together the conclusions about the literature and the data. The areas integrate the study into a woven fabric that becomes summative of all the various threads.

First, the role of the leader as discussed in the literature is crucial to understanding both the success of change efforts and the effectiveness of evaluation of teachers. What the leader perceives about a system influences how all those who are integral parts of the system perceive, most especially throughout the use of the system as

well as at its onset. While supervisors and central office personnel have key roles, all roles are supplementary to that of the actual building evaluator in any given school. It is important to acknowledge what the literature tells us about this critical role of a principal as instructional leader. To look for change by educating and inspiring leaders is a key to having that change occur with effectiveness or permanence.

Change theory supports this concept by emphasizing the need to involve key leaders in the planning process, to continue support as a system moves out of the implementation stage, and to deal with underlying belief systems as well as procedures. Those who read this study will see, obviously, as I do, many implications for this focus on leadership.

For instance, until a principal is freed from the many (necessary) duties such as buses, discipline, tardies, book reports, and building needs (heat, repairs, etc.), the idea of instructional leader cannot emerge. The time is not available and the resources are few. Also, the leadership potential must be recognized in order to hire and encourage those in these positions to feel more adequately prepared for the tasks they face as evaluators.

Supplementary but key to the concept of leadership is the changing role of the supervisor. The literature clearly indicates what the research supports. Teachers and principals do not typically see the supervisor as a critical, key person to help them solve their problems. It is no surprise that anxiety is high among leaders when a statemandated change occurs because there is an autonomy within any school that throws the pitched ball back to the evaluator. Even if someone

else calls balls and strikes or someone else tells the evaluator how to play the game, that evaluator lives with the teachers' opinions about how well it was done.

A second area of the literature that supports what this study has shown is the confusion about evaluation. In many ways the Dark Ages continue to haunt us because evaluation remains subjective and threatening to those who are being appraised. On one hand a new system like the NCPAS implies that the intents are to improve instruction and job satisfaction, increase trust, and make jobs more satisfying; on the other side, a new system involving merit pay or a career ladder will soon dovetail this effort. The literature repeatedly points to this dilemma in evaluation. It leads us again through the circuitous route of being unsure (as supervisors, principals, or teachers) about where the process is going or where it will end. In the literature there is no doubt that an effective evaluation process would require major involvement and agreement among all who are involved. Because the latest studies have revealed insightful information about the characteristics of effective teaching, it seems now that this will be a more objective approach. The old paradox of teaching as an art or a science may exist, but certain attributes of good teaching are known and can be measured.

The challenge is for those doing the evaluating and those who are being evaluated to mutually understand the expectations and dissolve or resolve their differences in perceptions. The confusion and fears have historically existed, and the roots seem to be in basic philosophical differences and misunderstandings about the very nature

of evaluation.

Finally, to summarize or integrate a lengthy study of the literature, the change process or the theories of change must be better understood before anything of lasting value occurs in education. The literature is emphatic in depicting the need for understanding at all levels prior to a change. Without a long-term scenario, what seems drastic can be short-lived. Too often, as the literature emphasizes, change does not really occur because what is planned to be different becomes very much like what existed before. The key concepts of change theory are ignored, and the result is another "change" right behind the caboose.

The idea of sufficient staff development for teachers as well as for administrators is one key. To assume that a three-hour workshop for teachers will acquaint them with what administrators learned in three days is a planned effort for failure. Moving too fast to implement is a prediction for surmise. The initial excitement must also be maintained over time for a new system to be dynamic and not simply assimilated into what previously existed. The literature seems emphatically right that efforts are too short-lived to become permanent.

It seems extremely important that those who wish to change education in a positive way pay attention to what the literature says, from both a historical point of view and from a theoretical one. The literature needs to be taken seriously by a state legislator, a superintendent, a principal, or anyone who is hoping that change will occur.

#### Predictions about Future Evaluation Attempts

This section results naturally from the previous work in this study. It will be brief because the predictions about future attempts to change evaluation systems or to implement any state-mandated system are inherent in all that previously has been said. In following the NCPAS over two years and studying this system in relationship to the literature, there are key predictors evident in what occurred over a two-year period.

I would definitely advise caution as the NCPAS moves or evolves to a quality assurance or a career ladder plan. The essential outcomes of this study reveal that a revised appraisal system was viewed with optimism, but enthusiasm for its effectiveness failed as the result of factors that were predictable.

Change occurs too often in education with too little emphasis on permanence. While this is not a new discovery, it has implications for any change effort that a local or state agency might introduce. Factors like the initial input of all involved, ongoing staff development for all participants, and continued resources to implement the change are ones that cannot be ignored. When a career ladder or a quality assurance plan replaces or evolves from the NCPAS, it will require a serious dedication to introducing ETT, the TPAI, and the career plan in a way that helps educators at all levels to understand the purpose, process, expected outcomes, and time lines. More importantly, the implementors of the ETT and the TPAI, which the state plans to use as a lead-in for the career plan, need to plan for the long-range resources that will assure some permanence for the system of evaluation. The

tidal waves of change in evaluation have prevented the acceptance of a set of standards whereby good teaching might be judged. The need for teacher education to agree on the characteristics of effective teaching is central for teachers and administrators to begin viewing evaluation as a mutual means for improving schools. Without a concentrated, sustained effort to involve teachers and administrators in the planning and ongoing process of a new evaluation system, I believe a reformed method will be as temporary as the NCPAS. While those at the State Department of Public Instruction are competent and the purposes of legislators are to increase excellence in the schools, no plan (legislated, state-mandated, or locally introduced) will make a long lasting, positive impact until a plan is based on sound literature and research. The principles of change theory must be applied to every stage of the program, with special attention paid to those later stages after the initial excitement has dwindled.

The positive side of this study seems to be that educators have the basis for defining what good teaching involves. North Carolina's model for ETT and the TPAI are soundly grounded on research. Along with this, the evidence is preponderant that change theory can be applied to the process of introducing new ideas in education. Perhaps the most positive sign is that the literature clearly identifies the pitfalls to avoid (too little time for the evaluator, failure to follow through to completion, the evaluator's training) the other areas discussed in this study.

#### Retrospective Opinion of this Study

After several years of working with this study, there are mistakes that I realize I have made and areas that I wish I could expand. This section will be brief, but it is important to examine what I might have done differently or what I might have added or subtracted.

Because of the complexity of the study as it emerged, I realized that I had gathered entirely too much data. For all of the categories (teachers, principals, central office personnel), the raw data existed for 450 people in three different categories over a two-year period (three administrations of the questionnaire). Although I never attempted to analyze the data for job title, number of years in education, highest degree, present position, and number of years in present position, these raw data exist for anyone who might choose to pursue the questions related to evaluation. For purposes of this study, I immediately recognized that there was no way to exhaustively study simple statistics, much less analyze extraneous variables.

If I decided to conduct this study again, I would choose fewer participants, fewer questions, and two (rather than three) administrations for the questionnaire.

While others might use the data for complicated statistics, I chose to keep it simple--chi-squares, percentages, and means. The chi-square statistic was a weak application though the one best advised to accomplish my purpose of identifying significant change using percents.

It is important for me to recognize that the statistical methodology was weak; however, this does not weaken the study. When I recognized that a comparison of percentages would not be sufficient, I consulted

several statisticians to determine how percentages or changes in percentages would be meaningful or show significant change. The chi-square statistic was recommended and applied. Had I not spent thousands of hours on percentages, numbers, and means, I might have chosen a better methodology for this study.

The positive side of this concern for the methodology is that the study did not depend on the statistical analysis. While it is sound enough to allow one to draw conclusions, I would not defend it in court. On the contrary, few studies show a longitudinal response rate like this one shows to accurately predict what educators believe about evaluation. Admitting that the chi-square is weak in no way under-evaluates what this statistic accomplishes. With a much smaller group, over a shorter period of time, I simply acknowledge that the statistics might have been stronger (not easier or less time-consuming). This study was extremely difficult and time-consuming but important as a way to understand the role of evaluation in the field of education.

In retrospect, it seems important to acknowledge the fact that little cross-fertilization existed between the literature in education and business (or education and other bodies of knowledge). In view of these circumstances, if I had this study to do again I would look for business research and/or would expand on the ideas.

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## APPENDIX A

Information Concerning Rowan County

According to the 1980 United States Census, Rowan County's population was 99,186. The county, located in the Central Piedmont, is 517 square miles and includes the Salisbury City School System which has five schools separate from the county's 23 schools. The county has nine municipalities and four geographic areas of school attendance (North, South, East, and West). The per-capita income in Rowan County was \$4,048, with Salisbury City's being higher at \$4,587. The estimate of per-household personal income, according to the 1979 estimate by sales and marketing, was \$17,583 per family.

The county school system has 23 schools with an enrollment of 13,663. All 23 schools are accredited by the Southern Association, and the central office was also accredited in 1984. An educational overview (Salisbury-Rowan Chamber of Commerce, 1983) can be understood from the following educational profile of Salisbury-Rowan County:

- 1. There are two separate public school systems for the Rowan County area, plus a technical institute and private colleges. Salisbury city and Rowan County school systems are both accredited by the North Carolina State Board of Education and the Southern Association of Schools and Colleges. Both systems have special programs for handicapped, gifted, and retarded children. Salisbury city has a Head Start Program.
  - a. Number of elementary schools: City 4; County 14
  - b. Number of junior high schools: City 1; County 5
  - c. Number of senior high schools: City 1; County 4
  - d. Number of kindergartens: City 2; County 35
  - e. Number of private schools: City 1; County 0
  - f. What is grade limit? Varies from Kindergarten to 12

- g. Number of parochial/private schools: City 2; County 3
- h. Ratio of students to teachers:

Grade	City Ratio	<u>Grade</u>	County Ratio
K-3	15:1	Elementary	19.1:1
4-6	28:1	Jr. High	20.0:1
7-9	20:1	Sr. High	14.4:1
10-12	17:1	Private/Parochial	N/A

- i. Number of high school graduates: City, 195; County, 942 (1981)
- j. Number of high school graduates who attend college: City, 79 percent; County, 62.8 percent (includes senior, two-year colleges and/or technical schools)
- k. Number of students in public elementary schools (including kindergarten and special education - 1981-82): City, 1,347; County, 7,230
- 1. Number of students in public junior high schools (Grades 7-9, includes all 9th graders, 1981-82): City, 657; County, 3,408
- m. Number of students in public senior high schools (Grades 10-12, excludes all 9th graders, 1981-82): City, 602; County, 2,774
- n. Estimated average annual high school dropout rate: City, 5.9 percent; County, 7.4 percent
- o. Per-pupil expenditure: City, \$2,070.79; County, \$1,525.00
- 2. List of colleges and post-secondary institutions within a 50-mile radius of Salisbury:

Catawba College, Salisbury
Livingstone College, Salisbury
Rowan Technical College, Salisbury

Salisbury Business College, Salisbury

North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University (A & T), Greensboro

Barber-Scotia College, Concord

Belmont Abbey College, Belmont

Catawba Valley Technical Institute, Newton-Conover

Central Piedmont Community College, Charlotte

Davidson College, Davidson

Davidson County Community College, Lexington

Forsyth Technical Institute, Winston-Salem

Gaston College, Gastonia

Greensboro College, Greensboro

Guilford College, Greensboro

Guilford Technical Institute, Greensboro

High Point College, High Point

Johnson C. Smith University, Charlotte

Lenoir Rhyne College, Hickory

Mitchell College, Statesville

Pfeiffer College, Misenheimer

Queens's College, Charlotte

Randolph Technical Institute, Asheboro

Sacred Heart College, Charlotte

Stanly Technical Institute, Albemarle

University of North Carolina at Charlotte, Charlotte

University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro

Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem

Winston-Salem State University, Winston-Salem

- 3. Catawba College--was established in 1851 in Newton, NC, by the Reformed Church and moved to Salisbury in 1925. It is still affiliated with that church as it has merged into the United Church of Christ. It is a coeducational, liberal arts college offering its 950 students academic programs in 27 major fields of study, in addition to six cooperative programs with neighboring universities. A student may also "custom-design" his/her academic major to bring together special fields of personal interest. Career programs in the areas of Administrative Office Management, Public Administration, Computer Science, and Recreational Therapy are also offered. The college is fully accredited.
- 4. Livingstone College--is a senior, coeducational, liberal arts, church-related college founded by the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church in 1879 and remains under its auspices. The institution consists of two schools--a College of Arts and Sciences, and Hood Theological Seminary, a professional school of religion. Livingstone teaches its 860 students a broad spectrum of the liberal arts as well as offering programs geared to certain occupations and professional instruction in the Christian ministry, medicine, dentistry, law, music, government service, and business administration. The college is fully accredited.
- 5. Rowan Technical College--is a comprehensive technical institute and as such is a member of the 58-unit NC Community College System.

  The purpose of Rowan Technical College is to serve the people of NC and specifically the people of Rowan County and surrounding counties by providing opportunities for their continuing growth and development through occupational, adult, and community service education. Enrollment stands at approximately 2,135.

The following resources are available to Rowan County residents:

#### Educational

Catawba College

Livingstone College

Rowan Technical College

Salisbury Business College

Beauty College

Libraries--county, city, college

Salisbury-Rowan-Davie Supplementary Education Center

#### Cultural

Community--music concerts, local and state symphonies, bands

Local theater groups

Choral groups

Private--art, music, dance lessons

Art galleries

Historical societies and district

Planetarium/Observatory at Salisbury-Rowan-Davie Supplementary Education Center

#### Historical Sites

Rowan Museum

Josephus Hall House--1820's home, Salisbury

Old Stone House--1770's home, Granite Quarry

Kerr Mill

Several historical churches

Spencer Shops--Museum of Transportation

#### Church-Sponsored Activities

Group activities - educational and recreational

Choirs

Vacation Church schools

Day Care centers

Kindergarten

Camps

Boy and Girl Scouts

Rowan Cooperative Christian Ministry--'Dial Help," Clothing Center

#### Recreational Opportunities

Little League ball teams

Community booster clubs

Parks, recreation centers, and playgrounds

Skating rink

Tennis, golf, swimming, soccer, baseball, softball, flying, volleyball, gymnastics, physical fitness training, track, dancing, skiing, handball, boating, fishing, hunting, hiking, racquetball, football horseshoe (facilities and programs)

Arts and crafts

Sports organizations

Day camps

Church camps

Gra-Y teams

#### Government and Foundation Supported Programs

Employment Security Commission of NC

Health services

Counseling

Department of Social Services

C.E.T.A.

Scouting activities

Community drives - United Way

Chapter I Reading Program

Exceptional Children's Program

NC Competency and Annual Testing Programs

Vocational Education

. School Food Services

4-H Program

Legal services

March of Dimes

Social Security Administration

Volunteer Fire Departments
Junior Fire Department

U.S. Post Office

Police and Sheriff Departments

Tri-County Mental Health Complex

The following are programs that are supported by the joint efforts of several school districts:

- a. Rowan County Schools, Salisbury City Schools, and Davie County Schools share the programs at the Supplementary Education Center located in Salisbury. The Supplementary Education Center contains a nature trail, Setzer School (an 1840's log school), a planetarium, and an art gallery.
- b. Rowan County Schools, Salisbury City Schools, Davie County Schools, and Iredell County Schools share the facilities, resources, and personnel at Tri-County Mental Health Center located in Salisbury.

- c. Rowan County is a member of Southwest Regional Education Center, NCSDPI, presently located in Charlotte.
- d. Rowan County Council of Human Services--one hundred public and private agencies joining together to provide services to individuals.
- e. Southwest Piedmont Educational Consortium--summer programs for fifth, tenth, and eleventh graders.
- f. Summer program for learning-disabled students offered and funded by Catawba College.

The adult population of Rowan County works predominantly in industrial, service, and agricultural areas. There is no one dominant occupation, although textiles are a large employer of both students and adults. The county has been successful in attracting diversified industry, and the unemployment rate is 4.9 percent. The racial composition is as follows:

Rowan County System (1982-83)	Salisbury City System
Black students - 2,361	Black students - 1,316
White students - 11,147	White students - 1,143
Other students - 58	Other students - 30

For those readers who wish to further analyze the way any other school system compares with Rowan County, the following information is included:

- a. Average Daily Membership and Average Daily Attendance
- b. Per-Pupil Expenditures
- c. Fiscal Year Budget (1983-84)
- d. Professional Staff Members (analysis of degrees)
- e. School Organizational Pattern
- f. Central Office Organizational Pattern
- g. Post High School Plans
- h. Annual Test Summaries

# APPENDIX B Additional Data Information

# Summary of Chi-Square Data for Teachers

Section I			
Question No.	$x^2$	Probability	Results
1 2 3 4 5 6 · 7 8	8.121 18.170 3.029 7.450	0.422 0.020 0.933 0.489	SIGNIFICANT
5	16.928 2.321	0.031 0.970	SIGNIFICANT
· 7 8 9	122.851 74.372 48.505	ndelelek nelelelek nelelelek	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
10 11	15.611 12.722	0.048 0.122	SIGNIFICANT
12 13 14	109.638 58.111 12.254	**************************************	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
15 16 17 18	22.436 17.519 45.146 20.129	0.005 0.025 ****** 0.010	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
Section II			
1 2	38.671 12.414	0.001 0.134	SIGNIFICANT
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	32.756 13.055	0.001 0.110	SIGNIFICANT
5 6	26.725 12.649	0.001 0.125	SIGNIFICANT
7 8 9	19.709 29.937 5.616	0.012 0.001 0.690	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
10 11	22.340 26.758	0.005 0.001	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
12 13	23.697 22.718	0.003 0.004	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
14 15 16 17	22.766 5.304 88.136 14.541	0.004 0.725 ****** 0.069	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT

\*\*\* means Probability .001 (VERY SIGNIFICANT)

# Summary of Chi-Square Data for Administrators

Section I			
Question No.	$x^2$	Probability	Results
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	4.106 3.785 3.900 4.604 3.699 4.155 31.645 23.984 5.801 3.460 3.449 1.717 8.986 6.541 1.905 0.810 10.289 5.185	0.408 0.448 0.433 0.347 0.458 0.402 0.004 0.004 0.224 0.488 0.489 0.785 0.065 0.178 0.753 0.936 0.038 0.275	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
Section II			
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17	2.144 7.913 5.056 6.502 2.918 6.789 10.137 3.877 2.363 4.248 2.770 1.105 4.164 15.909 6.129 7.172 2.371	0.711 0.096 0.291 0.180 0.577 0.162 0.040 0.436 0.673 0.391 0.602 0.892 0.401 0.005 0.204 0.138 0.672	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT

# Comparison of Teachers to Administrators (Sept., 1982)

Section I			
Question No.	$\mathbf{x}^2$	Probability	Results
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	1.173 1.757 4.005 3.033 1.165 0.617 1.985 18.444	0.567 0.434 0.149 0.229 0.569 0.737 0.392 0.004	SIGNIFICANT
9 10 11 12 13 14	4.824 2.342 7.122 32.943 2.592 9.025	0.092 0.328 0.030 0.003 0.282 0.012	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
15 16 17 18	6.636 1.101 7.754 6.631	0.038 0.589 0.022 0.038	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
Section II			
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	10.004 3.907 21.123 9.972 3.996	0.007 0.157 0.004 0.007 0.150	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
10	1.537 10.779 6.131 0.403 4.324	0.473 0.005 0.047 0.821 0.123	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
11 12 13 14 15	7.640 13.376 9.789 1.896 10.089	0.023 0.005 0.008 0.408 0.007	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
16 17	0.813 16.363	0.677 0.005	SIGNIFICANT

# Comparison of Teachers to Administrators (May, 1984)

Section I			
Question No.	$x^2$	Probability	Results
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	1.794 0.138 0.003 7.058 0.595 2.707 6.249 20.060 2.839 0.088 7.966 1.059 3.041 1.169 13.062 0.575 32.212 5.701	0.427 0.934 0.999 0.031 0.744 0.261 0.045 0.004 0.244 0.957 0.020 0.602 0.228 0.568 0.005 0.750 0.003 0.060	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
Section II			
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	4.487 9.436 23.623 2.355 2.647 6.146 4.417 0.793 1.967 6.179	0.110 0.009 0.004 0.325 0.272 0.047 0.116 0.683 0.395 0.047 0.005	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT
12 13 14 15 16 17	7.237 21.736 15.371 1.859 5.501 18.408	0.028 0.004 0.005 0.415 0.068 0.004	SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT SIGNIFICANT

### Overview of Data for Each Question

Question 1, Section I - Personnel in the school system do not need a formal evaluation process in order to improve.

Teachers	n	X	SA-%	n	A-%	·n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	362	3.54	3	11	19.1	69	11.3	41	53.6	194	13	47
2nd (May, 1983)	350	3.59	4.3	15	16.3	57	14	49	47.4	166	18	63
3rd (May, 1984)	318	3.56	4.4	14	17.9	57	10.4	33	51.9	165	15.4	49
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.8	0	0	16.7	5	16.7	5	39.7	11	30	9
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.5	6.7	2	16.7	5	13.3	4	46.7	14	16.7	5
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.54	3.8	1	19.2	5	7.7	2	57.7	15	11.5	3
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	4.13	0	0	12.5	2	63	1	37.5	6	43.8	7
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.53	5.9	1	23.5	4	11.8	2	29.4	5	29.4	5
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.65	5.9	1	29.4	5	0	0	23.5	4	41.2	7

Question 2, Section I - Educators want help, through formal evaluation, in knowing what can be improved.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	362	2.46	10.2	37	51.1	185	23.2	84	13.8	50	1.7	6
2nd (May, 1983)	351	2.36	10.5	37	58.7	206	16	56	14	49	.9	3
3rd (May, 1984)	317	2.31	11	35	62.5	198	12	38	13.6	43	.9	3
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.33	3.3	1	66.7	20	23.3	7	6.7	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.33	10	3	63.3	19	10	3	16.7	5	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.12	11.5	3	73.1	19	7.7	2	7.7	2	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.19	25	4	43.8	7	18.8	3	12.5	2	0_	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.47	17.6	3	47.1	8	11.8	2	17.6	3	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.65	11.8	2	41.2	7	23.5	4	17.6	3	5.9	1

Question 3 , Section I - Educators only improve through personal
motivation, not because of formal appraisal.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	362	3.13	9.4	34	21.5	78	17.4	63	50_	181	1,7	6
2nd (May, 1983)	350	3.09	10	35	24.3	85	15.7	55	47.1	165	2.9	10
3rd (May, 1984)	318	3.16	8.5	27	22.6	72	16.4	52	49.7	158	2.8	9
Principals					·							
1st (Sept., 1982)	17	3.71	0	Q	11.8	2	17.6	_3	58.8	10	11.8	2
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.18	11.8	_2	23.5	4	5.9	1	52,9	9	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	16	3.19	0	0	31.3	5	25	4	37.5	6	6.3	1
County Office	<del></del>			,			4		·		·	
lst (Sept., 1982)	30	3.3	6.7	2	26.7	_8_	3.3	_1	56.7	17	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.0	10	3	30	9	10	3	50	15	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.27	0	0	30.8	_8	11.5	3	57.7	15	0	0

Question 4, Section I - There was no need for the NC Legislature to mandate the Performance Appraisal System.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	3.10	4.7	17	26.9	97	25	90	40	144	3.3	12
2nd (May, 1983)	355	3.15	5.6	20	24.2	86	22.5	80	45.1	160	2.5	9
3rd (May, 1984)	318	3.22	6	19	21.1	67	21.1	67	48.4	154	3.5	11
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	29	3.03	10.3	3	27.6	8	13.8	4	44.8	1,3	3.4	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.17	13.3	4	23.3	7	16.7	_5	36.7	11	10	3
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.31	7.7	2	23.1	6	3.8	_1	61.5	16	3.8	1
County Office	<b>6</b>			,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.38	0	0_	31.3	5	12.5	2	43.8	7	12.5	2
2nd (May, 1983)	_17	3.18	11.8	2	23.5	4	11.8	_2	41.2	7	11.8	2
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.47	5.9	1	17.6	3	5.9	_1	64.7	ш	5.9	

3rd (May, 1984)

Question 5, Section I - Staff development has been adequate at all levels to help personnel understand the Performance Appraisal System.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	356	2.53	8.1	29	52.2	186	19.7	70	18	64	2	_7_
2nd (May, 1983)	350	2.34	8.6	30	64.9	227	13.1	46	11.1	39	2.3	8
3rd (May, 1984)	314	2.45	6.7	21	59.9	188	16.2	51	15.9	50	1.3	4
Principals						····						
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.4	10	3	66.7	20	3.3	1	13.3	4	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.47	10	3	60	18	3.3	1	26.7	8	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.35	3.8	1	69.2	18	15.4	4	11.5	3	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.75	12.5	2	31.3	5	31.3	5	18.8	3	6.3	_1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.82	11.8	2	29.4	5	23.5	4	35.3	6	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.71	11.8	2	35.3	6	29.4	5	17.6	3	5.9	1
						-	-					

Question 6, Section I - School personnel feel that the Performance Appraisal System is a vehicle to help individuals identify areas of job performance that need improvement.

	•			-L -				,			J-2	
performance that r	need :	impro	vement.									
Teachers	n	<u>x</u>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	2.53	3.9	14	56.4	203	23.3	84	15.6	56	1	3
2nd (May, 1983)	350	2.6	3.1	11	54,6	191	23.4	82	16.9	59	2	7
3rd (May, 1984)	315	2.57	3.8	12	55.2	174	23.2	73	16.2	51	1.2	5
												_
<u>Principals</u>	<b></b>		<b></b>							<b></b>		
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.67	3.3	_1	50	15	23.3		23.3	7	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.53	6.7	2	53.3	16	20	_6	20	6	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.35	3.8	ارا	69.2	18	15.4	4	11.5	3	0	ال
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.5	6.3	1	50	8	31.3	5	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.76	0	0	52.9	9	17.6	3	29.4	5	0	0

Question 7, Section I - The amount of anxiety is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	ก	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	354	2.23	24.3	86	45.2	160	14.7	52	15.3	54	.6	2
2nd (May, 1983)	350	2.61	12	42	44.6	156	15.4	54	26	94	2	7
3rd (May, 1984)	316	3.11	4.7	15	26.9	85	23.4	74	42.1	133	2.8	9
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.3	13.3	4	53.3	16	23.3	7	10	3	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.67	16.7	5	36.7	11	16.7	5	23.3	7	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.45	0	0	19.2	5	15.4	4	65.4	17	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.25	18.8	3	50	8	18.8	3	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.82	0	0	52.9	9	17.6	3	23.5	4	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.47	0	0	17.6	3	17.6	3	64.7	11	0	0

 $\underline{\text{Question 8, Section I}}$  - The amount of anxiety among principals is higher than usual as the Performance Appraisal System begins in Rowan County this year.

Teachers	n .	x SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	362 2.	56 10.2	37	35.4	128	42.8	155	11	40	.6	2
2nd (May, 1983)	344 2.	77 5.8	20	34.9	120	37.8	130	19.2	66	2.3	8
3rd (May, 1984)	334 3.	11 1.8	6	22.2	74	42.2	141	31.4	105	2.4	8
<u>Principals</u>											
1st (Sept., 1982)	30 2.	27 16.7	5	56.7	17	10	3	16.7	5	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30 2.	37 13.3	4	53.3	16	20	6	10	3	3.3	
3rd (May, 1984)	26 3.	12 3.8	1	34.6	9	7.7	2	53.8	14	0	
County Office			,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16 2.	06 18.8	3	62.5	10	12.5	2	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17 2.	<sup>59</sup> 11.8	2	47.1	8	17.6	3	17.6	3	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17 3.	06 5.9	1	35.3	6	5.9	1	52.9	9	0	0

<u>Question 9, Section I</u> - The anxiety among personnel will increase as the Professional Appraisal System is used.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n ·	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	362	2.93	7.7	28	25.4	92	34	123	31.2	113	1.7	6
2nd (May, 1983)	338	3.16	5.3	18	22.5	76	26.6	90	42	142	3.6	12
3rd (May, 1984)	309	3.42	2.9	9	11.3	35	30.4	94	50.8	157	4.5	14
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.33	0	0	20	6	26.7	8	53.3	16	Q	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3,2	3.3	1	23.3		26.7	8	43.3	13	3,3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.62	0	0	11.5	3	19.2	5	65.4	17	3.8	1
County Office	<b></b>									<b>,</b>	1	
1st (Sept., 1982)	17	3.18	0	0	29.4	5	29.4	5	35.3	6	5.9	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.41	0	0	23.5	4	23.5	4	41.2	7	11.8	2
3rd (May, 1984)	16	3.63	0	0	6.3	_1	25	4	68.8	11	0	0

<u>Question 10</u>, <u>Section I</u> - Teachers will not appreciate the increased amount of time that principals will spend observing in classrooms.

Teachers	n	X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360 3	. 29	4.4	16	18.6	67	26.1	94	45.6	164	5.3	19
2nd (May, 1983)	360 3	.48	1.4	5	16.7	60	24.4	88	48.1	173	9.4	34
3rd (May, 1984)	319 3	.49	1.9	6	13.5	43	26.3	84	50.8	162	7.5	24
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30 3	.57	3.3	1	16.7	5	20	6	53.3	16	10	3
2nd (May, 1983)	30 3	.23	3.3	1	23.3	7	26.7	8	40	12	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26 3	.62	0	0	11.5	3	23.1	6	57.7	15	7.7	2
County Office				,,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16 3	1.75	6.3	1	6.3	1	25	4	56.3	9	12.5	2
2nd (May, 1983)	17 3	1.24	11.8	2	11.8	2	29.4	5	35.3	6	11.8	2
3rd (May, 1984)	17 3	3.35	5.9	1	11.8	2	29.4	5	47.1	8	5.9	1

Question 1. Section I - The Performance Appraisal System is a process that will make it less difficult for all personnel to improve the level of performance with which they carry out their work.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n_	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n_
1st (Sept., 1982)	358	2.84	1.4	5	38.8	139	35.5	127	23.2	83	1.2	4
2nd (May, 1983)	352	2.94	1.7	6	32.7	115	34.7	122	28.4	100	2.6	9
3rd (May, 1984)	312	2.97	.6	2	35.3	110	31.1	97	32.1	100	1	3
Principals												
lst (Sept., 1982)	30	2.7	0	0	56.7	17	23.3	7	13.3	4	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.73	3.3	1	50	15	20	6	23.3	7	3.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.54	7.7	2	53.8	14	15.4	4	23.1	6	0	0
County Office												····
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.31	6.3	1	62.5	10	25	4	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.0	0	0	35.3	_6	29.4	5	35.3	6	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.76	0	0	52.9	9	23.5	4	17.6	3	5.9	1

<u>Question12</u>, <u>Section I</u> - The Performance Appraisal System is an improvement over the previously used evaluation system in Rowan County.

<u>Teachers</u>	n	X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	354	2.7	7.9	28	37	31	36.2	128	15.3	54	3.7	13
2nd (May, 1983)	330	2.68	9.7	32	41.5	137	23.2	77	21.5	71	3.9	13
3rd (May, 1984)	306	2.59	8.8	27	48	147	20.6	63	20.6	63	2	6
<u>Principals</u>												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.33	16.7	5	50	15	16.7	5	16.7	5	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.47	16.7	5	46.7	14	13.3	4	20	6	3.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.46	23.1	6	42.3	11	7.7	2	19.2	5	7.7	2
County Office				,								
lst (Sept., 1982)	16	2.19	18.8	3	43.8	7	37.5	6	٥	0	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.29	_11.8_	2	47.1	8	41.2	7	Q	0	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	_17	2.24	17.6	3	47.1	8	29.4	5	5.9	1	0	0

Question13, Section I - The supervisors will be more involved in helping teachers improve through the implementation of the new system.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%_	n	SD-%	<u>n</u>
lst (Sept., 1982)	359	2.6	5.8	21	44	158	35.4	127	13.4	48	1.4	5
2nd (May, 1983)	351	3.08	3.4	12	30.2	106	28.2	99	31.3	110	6.8	24
3rd (May, 1984)	312	3.01	3.8	12	32.7	102	28.2	88	29.5	92	5.8	18
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.9	3.3	1	33.3	10	33.3	10	30	9	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.5	0	Q	20	6	23.3	7	43.3	13	13.3	4
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.31	0	0	23.1	6	23.1	6	53.8	14	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.31	18.8	3	43.8	7	25	4	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.59	5.9	1	58.8	10	11	2	17.6	3	5.9	7
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.06	_ 0	0	41.2	7	17.6	3	35.3	6	5.9	1

<u>Question14, Section I</u> - The primary purpose of the Performance Appraisal System is to help personnel accomplish mutual goals.

Teachers	n	X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	353	2.37	6.5_	23	58.6	207	27.2	96	6.5	23	1.1	4
2nd (May, 1983)	350	2.41	6.6	23	60.3	211	20.6	72	11.1	39	1.4	5
3rd (May, 1984)	318	2.46	3.5	11	60.4	192	23.9	76	11	35	1.3	4
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.13	10	3	76.7	23	3.3	_1	10	3	0	Q
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.33	6.7	2	63.6	19	20	6	10	3	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.27	11.5	3	57.7	15	23.1	6	7.7	2	0	0
County Office				,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.56	18.8	3	37.5	6	18.8	_3	18.8	3	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.65	5.9	1	47.1	8	29.4	5	11.8	2	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.47	0	0	58.8	10	35.3	6	5.9	1	0	0

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	358	2.98	2	7	27.1	97	46.4	166	20.1	72	4.5	16
2nd (May, 1983)	353	3.11	2	7	21.5	76	42.2	149	31.7	112	2.5	9
3rd (May, 1984)	314	2.98	.3	1	29	91	44.6	140	24.2	76	2	6
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.3	0	0	30	9	16.7	5	46.7	14	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.17	3.3	_1	26.7	8	20	6	50	15	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.5	0	Q	23.1	6	7.7	2	65.4	17	3.8	1
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.94	6.3	1	18.8	3	56.3	9	12.5	2	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.88	0	0	35.3	6	41.2	7	23.5	4	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.71	0	0	47.1	8	35.3	6	17.6	3	0	0

Question 16, Section I - The Performance Appraisal Instrument is actually very similar to what has always been used.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	358	3.17	6	2	33.8	121	16.5	59	46.4	166	2.8	10
2nd (May, 1983)	348	2.96	1,4	5	45.7	159	10.9	38	39.4	137	2.6	9
3rd (May, 1984)	314	2.94	1.3	4	46.2	145	11.8	39	38.9	122	1.9	6
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.0	3.3	1	43.3	13	10	3	36.7	11	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.07	6.7	2	36.7	11	6.7	2	43.3	13	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.15	0	0	42.3	11	7.7	2	42.3	11	7.7	2
County Office				,			•					
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.19	0	0	31.3	5	31.3	5	25	4	12.5	2
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.12	0	0	35.3	6	23.5	4	35.3	6	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.18	0	0	41.2	7	17.6	3	29.4	5	11.8	2

Question17, Section I - Educators will not resent having improvement
plans.

Teachers	<u>n</u>	<u> </u>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	0-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	357	2.46	4.2	16	58.4	208	25.3	90	11	39	1.1	4
2nd (May, 1983)	357	2.20	9	32	69.7	249	13.7	49	7	25	.6	2
3rd (May, 1984)	317	2.14	11	35	71	225	11.4	36	6.3	20	.3	1
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.67	3.3	1	40	12	43.3	13	13.3	4	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.6	6.7	2	53	16	13.3	4	26.7	8	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.85	0	0	42.3	11	30.8	8	26.9	7	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.0	0	0	37.5	6	31.3	5	25	4	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.82	5.9	1	59.9	9	5.9	1	23.5	4	11.8	2
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.71	11.8	2	35.3	6	29.4	5	17.6	3	5.9	1

<u>Question 18, Section I</u> - The informal observations will not have significant influence on the results in the summative evaluation.

Teachers	n	<u>x</u>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	354	3.45	.3	1	9.6	34	38.7	137	47.5	168	4	14
2nd (May, 1983)	351	3.42	1.7	6	15.1	53	27.1	95	51.9	182	4.3	15
3rd (May, 1984)	310	3.43	,6	2	15.2	47	28.1	87	52.6	163	3.5	11
Principals										_	·	_
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.8	0	Q	13.3	4	20	6	40	12	26.7	8
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.7	0	0	10	3	16.7	5	66.7	20	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.5	3.8	1	19.2	5	3.8	1	69.2	18	3.8	1
County Office	<b></b>			,								
lst (Sept., 1982)	16	3.94	0	0	6.3	1	18.8	3	50	8	25	4
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.71	0	0	5.9	1	23.5	4	64.7	11	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.29	0	0	23.5	4	23.5	4	52.9	9	0	0

Question 1. Section II - Principals will not have sufficient time to carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	353	2.8	10.2	36	30.3	107	30.3	107	27.8	98	1.4	5
2nd (May, 1983)	349	2.99	9.7	34	26.4	92	23.2	81	36.1	126	4.6	16
3rd (May, 1984)	311	3.14	5.8	18	28.9	90	16.4	51	43.4	135	5.5	17
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.87	10	3	36.7	11	13.3	4	36.7	11	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.83	13.3	4	36.7	11	3.3	1	46.7	14	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.54	19.2	5	38.5	10	11.5	3	30.8	8	0	0
County Office	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						, ·		,	<b>.</b>	·	
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.38	0	0	31.3	5	6.3	1	56.3	9	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.06	11.8	2	23.5	4	17.7	3	41.2	7	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.94	5.9	1	35.3	6	17.7	3	41.2	7	. 0	0

Question 2, Section II - All educators need a state job description.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	357	2.21	15.7	56	61.1	218	11.5	41	10.1	36	1.7	6
2nd (May, 1983)	349	2.08	18.6	65	61.9	216	12.9	45	6.3	22	.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	311	2.06	19.3	60	63.7	198	9.3	29	7.4	23	.3	1
Principals												
lst (Sept., 1982)	30	2.23	13.3	4	70	21	0	0	13.3	4	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.3	20	6	46.7	14	16.7	5	16.7	5	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.27	15.4	4	61.5	16	3.8	1	19,2	5	Q	0
County Office	<b></b>			,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.44	25	4	37.5	6	12.5	2	18.8	3	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.41	23.5	4	35.3	6	17.6	3	23.5	4	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.18	29.4	5	47.1	8	0	0	23.5	4	0	0

Question 3, Section II - Fewer than one half of the employees will have a written improvement plan.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	356	2.93	1.7	6	20.5	73	61.8	220	15.4	55	.6	2
2nd (May, 1983)	352	2.76	4.3	15	15.3	54	72.7	256	6.5	23	1.1	4
3rd (May, 1984)	313	2.83	2.6	8	19.2	60	71.6	224	5.8	18	1	3
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.6	6.7	2	50	15	23.3	7	16.7	5	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.3	10	3	60	18	20	6	10	3	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.35	7.7	2	57.7	15	26.9	7	7.7	2	0	0
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.75	12.5	2	25	4	37.5	6	25	4	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.59	11.8	2	29.4	5	47.1	8	11.8	2	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.53	11.8	2	29.4	5	52.9	9	5.9	1	0	0

<u>Question 4, Section II</u> - The Performance Appraisal System will increase trust among professionals.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	ก	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	353	3.21	1.4	5	17.8	63	46.5	164	27.2	96	7.1	25
2nd (May, 1983)	351	3.23	.6	2	18.8	66	43.9	154	30.5	109	6.3	22
3rd (May, 1984)	315	3.19	.6	2	21.3	67	39.7	125	35.2	111	3.2	10
Principals					_							
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.07	0	0	33.3	10	33.3	10	26.7	8	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.17	3.3	1	20	6	40	12	30	9	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.04	3.8	1	23.1	6	42.3	11	26.9	7	3.8	1
County Office				,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.75	0	0	50	8	25	4	25	4	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.12	5.9	1	11.8	2	47.1	8	35.3	6	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.18	0	0	11.8	2	64.7	11	17.6	3	5.9	1

Question 5, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will improve communication among school principals, teachers, and central office personnel.

Teachers	<u>n</u>	$\overline{x}$	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	2.75	5.3	19	40.3	145	33.3	120	16.4	59	4.7	17
2nd (May, 1983)	353	2.98	2.5	9	37.1	131	26.1	92	28.3	100	5.9	21
3rd (May, 1984)	316	2.96	1.9	6	35.8	113	30.7	97	28.2	89	3.5	11
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.53	3.3	1	56.7	17	26.7	8	10	3	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.9	0	0	43.3	13	30	9	20	6	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.73	3.8	_1	42.3	11	34.6	9	15.4	4	3.8	1
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.44	6.3	1	56.3	9	25	4	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.53	5.9	1	41.2	7	47.1	8	5.9	1	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.59	11.8	2	41.2	7	23.5	4	23.5	4	0	0

Question 6, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will not be
used later to implement a merit pay plan.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	3.16	3.1	11	11.7	42	59.7	215	17.8	64	7.8	28
2nd (May, 1983)	350	3.26	3.4	12	6.6	23	60	210	20.3	71	9.7	34
3rd (May, 1984)	321	3.24	1.9	6	8.4	27	59.5	191	24	77	6.2	20
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.1	6.7	2	20	6	46.7	14	10	3	16.7	5
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.2	10	3	13.3	4	40	12	20	6	16.7	5
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.58	0	0	11.5	3	34.6	9	38.5	10	15.4	4
County Office	-			,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.06	0	0	12.5	2	68.8	11	18.8	3	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.41	0	0	0	0	64.7	11	29.4	5	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.41	0	0	5.9	1	52.9	9	35.3	6	5.9	1

Question 7, Section II - Few changes in employee performance will occur because of the new system.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	_n_
1st (Sept., 1982)	356	2.92	2	7	34.3	122	34.8	124	27.2	97	1.7	6
2nd (May, 1983)	349	2.58	6.3	22	39	136	36.1	126	17.8	62	.9	3
3rd (May, 1984)	316	2.75	3.5	11	40.5	128	34.8	110	20.3	64	.9	3
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.43	0	0	16.7	_5	30	9	46.7	14	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.9	3.3	1	43.3	13	13.3	4	40	12	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.0	3.0	0	42.3	11	15.4	4	42.3	11	0	0
County Office			,						<i>,</i>			
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.25	0	0	25	4	25	4	50	8	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.82	5.9	1	41.2	7	17.6	3	35.3	6	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.53	11.8	2	41.2	7	29.4	5	17.6	3	0	0

Question 8, Section II - The Preconference as part of the evaluation
cycle will be something new.

<u>Teachers</u>	n	<u></u>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	358	2.12	15,6	56	73.2	262	5.3	19	5.3	19	.6	2
2nd (May, 1983)	346	2.10	10.4	36	76.9	266	5.2	18	6.9	24	.6	2
3rd (May, 1984)	319	2.27	5.3	17	75.2	240	6.6	21	12.5	40	.3	1
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.07	33.3	10	46.7	14	0	0	20	6	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	1.93	23.3	7	66.7	20	3.3	1	6.7	2	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.15	11.5	3	73.1	19	3.8	1	11.5	3	0	0
County Office				,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	1.88	31.3	_5	56.3	9	6.3	1	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.06	17.6	3	64.7	11	11.8	2	5.9	1	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.18	11.8	2	64.7	11	17.6	3	5.9	1	0	0

Question 9, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will provide a means whereby personnel decisions can be made in a more objective way.

Teachers	<u>n</u>	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	0-%	n	SD-%	<u>n</u>
1st (Sept., 1982)	356	2.53	3.7	13	55.6	198	26.7	95	12.6	45	1.4	5
2nd (May, 1983)	344	2.6	2.6	9	53.5	184	26.5	91	16.3	56	1.2	4
3rd (May, 1984)	315	2.59	1.6	5	54.6	172	27.6	87	15.6	49	.6	2
<u>Principals</u>												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.43	10	3	50	15	26.7	8	13.3	4	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.57	0	_0	66.7	20	13.3	4	16.7	5	3.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.35	0	0	73.1	19	19.2	5	7.7	2	0	0
County Office		<u>-</u>										n
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.38	0	0	68.8	11	25	4	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.53	5.9	1	52.9	9	23.5	4	17.6	3	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.59	0	0	58.8	10	23.5	4	17.6	3	0	0

<u>Ouestion 10, Section II</u> - The Performance Appraisal System will improve on-the-job performance of teachers.

Teachers	n	<u>x</u>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	0-%	n	SD-%	n
lst (Sept., 1982)	359	2.65	4.7	17	47.1	169	28.4	102	17.8	64	1.9	7
2nd (May, 1983)	344	2.88	2.3	8	37.2	128	34	117	22.7	78	3.8	13
3rd (May, 1984)	319	2.86	1.6	5	42.9	137	26	83	26.6	85	2.8	9
Principals												
lst (Sept., 1982)	30	2.37	3.3	1	66.7	20	20	6	10	3	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.77	0	Q	46.7	14	36.7	11	10	3	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.5	0_	1	57.7	1.5	34.6	9	7.7	2	0	0
County Office				,		_ " •						
lst (Sept., 1982)	_16	2.5	0	0	56.3	9	37.5	6	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.71	5.9	1	35.3	6	41.2	7	17.6	3	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.76	0	0	47.1	8	35.3	6	11.8	2	5.9	1

Question11, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will
improve on-the-job effectiveness of principals.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	357	2.63	6.2	22	44.5	159	31.9	114	14.6	52	2.8	10
2nd (May, 1983)	345	2.88	3.2	11	35.4	122	37.1	128	19.4	67	4.9	17
3rd (May, 1984)	313	2.85	2.9	9	42.4	132	26.2	82	24.9	78	3.8	12
, Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.4	10	3	56.7	17	20	6	10	3	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.67	0	.0	56.7	17	26.7	8	10	3	6.7	2
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.42	3.8	1	61.5	16	26.9	9	3.8	1	3.8	1
County Office		·····										
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.13	18.8	3	62.5	10	6.3	1	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.18	11.8	2	64.7	11	17.6	3	5.9	1	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	2.18	11.8	2	64.7	11	17.6	3	5.9	1	0	0

Question12, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will not increase teacher job satisfaction.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	343	2.52	13.1	45	37.9	130	33.5	115	14.3	49	1.2	4
2nd (May, 1983)	327	2.5	11.3	37	43.7	143	28.4	93	16.5	54	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	303	2.65	6.9	21	45.2	137	24.4	74	22.8	69	.7	2
<u>Principals</u>												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.1	0	O	33.3	10	26.7	8	36.7	11	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.9	6.7	2	30	9	30	9	33.3	10	Q	0
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.12	0	اما	34.6	9	19.2	5	46.2	12	0	0
County Office				,								
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	3.13	0	3	25	4	37.5	6	37.5	6	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.82	5.9	1	35.3	6	29.4	5	29.4	5	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	1.7	3.0	0	0	35.3	6	29 4	5	35 3	6	0	0

Question13, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will
increase the principal's job satisfaction.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	<u>n</u>
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	3.05	1.1	4	25	90	45	162	25.3	91	3.6	13
2nd (May, 1983)	350	3.04	.9	3	17.7	62	60.3	211	18.9	66	2.3	8
3rd (May, 1984)	317	3.1	.6	2	15.8	50	58.4	185	23	73	2.2	7
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.93	3.3	1	43.3	13	20	6	23.3	7	10	3
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.17	3.3	1	30	9	26.7	8	26.7	8	13.3	4
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.12	0	0	34.6	9	23.1	6	38.5	10	3.8	1
County Office												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.88	0	0	43.8	7	31.3	5	18.8	3	6.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.35	0	0	17.6	3	35.3	6	41.2	7	5.9	1
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.18	0	0	35.3	6	17.6	3	41.2	7	5.9	1

Question14, Section II - The central office will play a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System.

Teachers	n	x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	359	2.99	1,4	5	25.9	93	48.7	175	20.1	72	3.9	14
2nd (May, 1983)	348	3.18	2	7	13.5	47	54	188	25.3	88	5.2	18
3rd (May, 1984)	315	3.19	1.3	4	17.8	56	47.3	149	28.3	89	5.4	17
Principals												
1st (Sept., 1982)	30	3.03	0	0	30	9	40	12	26.7	8	3.3	1
2nd (May, 1983)	30	3.37	0	0	26.7	8	13.3	4	56.7	17	3.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.65	0	0	15.4	4	15.4	4	57.7	15	11.5	3
County Office	F			,			•		<del>-</del>			
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.5	6.3	1	43.8	7	43.8	7	6.3	1	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	2.47	23.5	4	29.4	5	23.5	4	23.5	4	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.0	0	0	41.2	7	17.6	3	41.2	7	0	0

Question 15, Section II - The new Summative Appraisal Instrument uses a four-point rating scale as follows: 1) Performs Unsatisfactorily, 2) Needs Improvement, 3) Meets Performance Expectations, 4) Exceeds Performance Expectations. The inclusion of "Exceeds Performance Expectations" is an improvement over the previous scale of: 1) Unsatisfactory, 2) Needs Improvement, 3) Satisfactory.

Teachers	<u>n</u>	X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	'n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	360	2.29	18.9	68	52.21	L88	13.6	49	11.7	42	3,6	13
2nd (May, 1983)	344	2.31	16.9	58	54.91	189	12.5	43	11.3	39	4.4	15
3rd (May, 1984)	314	2.18	19.1	60	58.3	183	11.1	35	8.3	26	3.2	10

## <u>Principals</u>

1st (Sept., 1982)	30	2.87	13.3	4	36.711	16.7	5	16.7	5	16.7	5
2nd (May, 1983)	30	2.7	10	3	50 15	10	3	20	6	10	3
3rd (May, 1984)	26	2.42	11.5	3	61.5 16	7.7	2	11.5	3	7.7	2

## County Office

1st (Sept., 1982)	16 2.6	3 12.5	2	31.3 5	37.5	6	18.8	3	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17 2.4	11.8	2	52.9 9	11.8	2	23.5	4	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	17 2.4	1 11.8	2	52.9 9	17.6	3	17.6	3	0	0

Ouestion16, Section II - I will improve more as a result of the implementation of the Performance Appraisal System.

<u>Teachers</u>	n	X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
1st (Sept., 1982)	357	2.68	2.5	9	47.3	169	33.3	119	13.2	47	3.6	13
2nd (May, 1983)	346	3.14	2.6	9	32.9	114	18.5	64	39.3	136	6.6	23
3rd (May, 1984)	317	3.12	1.9	6	34.7	110	18.6	59	38.8	123	6	19

### Principals

1st (Sept., 1982)	30 2.57	6.7	2	50	15	30	9	6.7	2	6.7	2
2nd (May, 1983)	30 2.9	3.3	1	40	12	23.3	7	30	9	3.3	1
3rd (May, 1984)	26 2.96	0	0	42.3	11	26.9	7	23.1	6	7.7	2

#### County Office

0001107 011100												
1st (Sept., 1982)	16	2.5	6.3	1	50	8	31.3	5	12.5	2	0	0
2nd (May, 1983)	17	3.0	5.9	1	35.3	6	23.5	4	23.5	4	11.8	2
3rd (May, 1984)	17	3.0	5.9	1	23.5	4	41.2	7	23.5	4	5.9	1

Teachers

Question 17, Section II - The Performance Appraisal System will
probably be discontinued in a few years.

n x SA-% n A-% n NS-% n D-% n SD-% n

regenera		<del></del>						<del>, '' -</del>				
1st (Sept., 1982)	353	2.92	4.8	17	22.4	79	51	180	19.5	69	2.3	8
2nd (May, 1983)	346	3.06	2.6	9	20.2	70	49.1	170	24.9	86	3.2	11
3rd (May, 1984)	313	3.09	1.9	6	16	50	55	172	25.6	80	1.6	5
•												
<u>Principals</u>	J				T				· · · · · ·			n
1st (Sept., 1982)		3.37		0	20	6	30	9	43.3			2
2nd (May, 1983)		3.4	3.3	1	13.3		33.3		40	12		3
3rd (May, 1984)	26	3.15	0	0	34.6	9	23.1	6	34.6	9	7.7	2
County Office											•	
County Office		20					10.0	1	(0.0			
1st (Sept., 1982)		3.0	6.3	1	31.3		18.8		43.8		0	0
2nd (May, 1983)		3.12	0	0	35.3		17.6		47.1	8	0	0
3rd (May, 1984)	1/	2.94	11.8	2	29.4	5	17.6	3	35.3	6	5.9	1
Question , Section	n											
Question , Section Teachers	n n	- <del>-</del> - <del>-</del>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n_
		- <del>-</del>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
<u>Teachers</u>		- <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
<u>Teachers</u> 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983)		x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982)		- <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del> <del>-</del>	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)		x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984) Principals		x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)  Principals 1st (Sept., 1982)		x	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers  1st (Sept., 1982)  2nd (May, 1983)  3rd (May, 1984)  Principals  1st (Sept., 1982)  2nd (May, 1983)  3rd (May, 1984)		X	SA-%	n	A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)  Principals 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)  County Office		x	SA-%		A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n
Teachers  1st (Sept., 1982)  2nd (May, 1983)  3rd (May, 1984)  Principals  1st (Sept., 1982)  2nd (May, 1983)  3rd (May, 1984)		X	SA-%		A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n 
Teachers 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)  Principals 1st (Sept., 1982) 2nd (May, 1983) 3rd (May, 1984)  County Office		X	SA-%		A-%	n	NS-%	n	D-%	n	SD-%	n

# APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Information

### ROWAN COUNTY

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

Salisbury, North Carolina 28144

TO: Selected Participants for Research Project

FROM: Pam Beaver, Supervisor Pam Beaver

SUBJECT: Evaluation of Performance Appraisal System

Assurances and Explanation

DATE: September 24, 1982

During the 1982-83 school year, North Carolina's local education agencies will be implementing the Performance Appraisal System as the result of a mandate by the North Carolina Legislature. In order to evaluate the appraisal system in the Rowan County Schools during this first year of implementation, I have Dr. Morgan's support to involve all twenty-three schools and the central office in the collection and analysis of information. As far as I know, this type of research is not being done by any other school system. I have talked with Mr. Bob Boyd, Assistant State Superintendent of the Division of Personnel Relations at the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, about this research; he would like the results shared with him in order to give his division some feedback about the appraisal system.

The data to be collected through questionnaires will be used to describe the perceptions, beliefs, and expectations held collectively in the Rowan County Schools and will not be reported for any individual person or school. For this reason, validity will depend upon all twenty-three schools participating.

The three groups to be polled periodically during this year are (1) all principals, (2) all central office staff, and (3) a randomly selected group of teachers from each school. Each participant's form will have the same code each time a questionnaire is sent. Data will never be reported to reflect one person's responses; they will always reflect information for the total system or groups (i.e., elementary teachers, secondary principals, those with ten or more year's experience, etc.). Confidentiality will be respected for all participants. I will be the only person to handle the questionnaires; no data from individual questionnaires will be shared or reported except as they relate to total responses for items. No one else will have access to the codes for participants.

Enclosed you will find the first questionmaire. Please complete the forms according to the instructions; return to me in the

Selected Participants for Research Project

-2-

Sept. 24, 1982

enclosed envelope before October 8, 1982. If for any reason you do not want to participate in the process of evaluating the appraisal system in Rowan County, please call me (636-6750). Also, please feel free to call if you have questions or concerns that I have not explained. I will share results with each of you at the conclusion of the project. I will very much appreciate your input.

# PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL QUESTIONNAIRE September, 1982

#### INTRODUCTION:

As you know, the Rowan County School System is about to begin the implementation of the new North Carolina Performance Appraisal System which resulted from a mandate by the North Carolina Legislature. The state has set goals that it hopes to meet through the use of this evaluation process of all school personnel. This questionnaire and others that will be sent to you during this school year are intended to find out both how you presently perceive the Performance Appraisal System for our school system and also what you believe will happen as the result of using the process in Rowan County.

## EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section One

CURRENT PERCEPTIONS: ANSWER EACH ITEM.

Please place an X in the section that indicates your present observations, awareness level, and feelings about the Performance Appraisal System that is going to be implemented this year in the Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items. Please read each statement very carefully.

Personnel in the school system do not need a formal evaluation process in order to improve.
 / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

/ Strongly Agree	/	/	/	/	
Strongly Agree	e Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagr	ee Strongly	Disagr
Educators only formal apprais		through per	sonal motiv	ation, not be	cause c
/ Strongly Agree	/				
Strongly Agree	e Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagr	ee Strongly	Disagr
There was no r the Performand			rolina Legi	slature to man	ndate
/ Strongly Agree	. /	/	/	/	
Strongly Agree	e Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagr	ee Strongly	Disagr
Staff developm understand the				vels to help p	personn
/	/	/	/	/	
/ Strongly Agree	e Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagr	ee Strongly	Disagr
vehicle to hel need improveme	lp indivi ent.	dualș identi	fy areas of	job performa	nce tha
School personr vehicle to hel need improveme	lp indivi ent.	dualș identi	fy areas of	job performa	nce tha
vehicle to hel need improveme	lp indivi ent.	dualș identi	fy areas of	job performa	nce tha
vehicle to hel need improvement / Strongly Agree The amount of	lp indivient.  / Agreanxiety	duals identi  / e Not Sur among teache	fy areas of  / e Disagr rs is highe	job performation  / ee Strongly r than usual	Disagr
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vehicle to hel need improvement / Strongly Agree The amount of Performance Ap	lp indivient.  / e Agreanxiety ppraisal	duals identi / e Not Sur among teache System begin	fy areas of  / e Disagr rs is highe s in Rowan	job performation  / ee Strongly r than usual county this ye	Disagras the ear.
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vehicle to hele need improvement of Strongly Agree of Performance Approved The amount of Performance Approximate A	lp individent.  / e Agree anxiety ppraisal / e Agree anxiety ppraisal	duals identi  / e Not Sur among teache System begin / e Not Sur among princi System begin /	fy areas of  / e Disagr rs is highe s in Rowan  / e Disagr pals is hig s in Rowan  /	job performation  / ee Strongly  r than usual county this year than usual county this year.	Disagras the ear.  Disagras the ear.
vehicle to hele need improvement of Strongly Agree The amount of Strongly Agree The amount of Performance Apply Agree The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The anxiety amount of The Agree The anxiety amount of The Agree Th	lp individent.  / Agree anxiety opraisal / Agr	duals identi  / e Not Sur among teache System begin / e Not Sur among princi System begin / e Not Sur onnel will i	fy areas of  / e Disagr rs is highe s in Rowan  / e Disagr pals is hig s in Rowan  / e Disagr	job performation  / ee Strongly r than usual County this year / ee Strongly her than usua County this year / ee Strongly	Disagras the ear.  Disagras the ear.
vehicle to hel need improvement / Strongly Agree The amount of	lp individent.  / Agree anxiety opraisal / Agr	duals identi  / e Not Sur among teache System begin / e Not Sur among princi System begin / e Not Sur onnel will i	fy areas of  / e Disagr rs is highe s in Rowan  / e Disagr pals is hig s in Rowan  / e Disagr	job performation  / ee Strongly r than usual County this year / ee Strongly her than usua County this year / ee Strongly	Disagras the ear.  Disagras the ear.

10.	Teachers will r principals will	not appred L spend ob	ciate the incoserving in c	reased amoun classrooms.	t of time that
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ / Strongly Disagree
11.	The Performance difficult for a which they carr	all person	nel to impro	a process th ove the level	at will make it less of performance with
	/ Strongly Agree	/	/ Not Simo	/ Diagrams	/ / Strongly Disagree
12.	The Performance previously used	e Appraisa	al System is	an improveme	nt over the
		_/	/	/	/ / // // // // // Strongly Disagree
	Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
13.	The supervisors through the imp	s will be plementati	more involve on of the ne	ed in helping ew system.	teachers improve
	/		/	/	/ / / / / / / / / Strongly Disagree
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14.	The primary pur personnel accom			nce Appraisal	System is to help
	/ Strong Iv. Agree	/	/ Not Simo	/ Diagona	/ Strongly Disagree
	Strongly Agree	: Agree	NOT 2016	Disagree	Strongly bisagree
15.	The Performance to make decision	Appraisa Ons about	l System is employment.	not designed	to gather information
	/	/	/	/	/ / Strongly Disagree
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16.	The Performance what has always			t is actually	very similar to
	/	/	/	/	1
	Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	/ / / / / / / Strongly Disagree
17.	Educators will	not reser	nt having imp	provement pla	ins.
	/ Strongly Agree	/ e Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree
18.	The informal of the results in	servation the summe	ns will not h ative evaluat	nave signific tion.	ant influence on
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ / Strongly Disagree

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

## EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

#### Section Two

EXDECTED.	OUTCOMES:	ANGWER	FACH	TTFM
LVITOTED	OUTOGERO.	TINOMITIC.		

Please place an X in the section that indicates what you believe will
happen as the result of using the Performance Appraisal System in
Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for
comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items.
Please read each statement very carefully.
1. Principals will not have sufficient time to carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities.
/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / /
2. All educators need a state job description.
/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / /
3. Fewer than one half of the employees will have a written improvement plan.
/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / /
4. The Performance Appraisal System will increase trust among professionals.

Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

The Performance Appraisal System will not be used later to implement

/ / / / / Disagree Strongly Disagree

The Performance Appraisal System will improve communication among school principals, teachers, and central office staff.

/ / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure

a merit pay system.

7.	Few changes in system.	employee	performance v	will occur be	ecause of the new	
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	_/
8.	The Pre-Conferenew.	nce as pa	rt of the ev	aluation cycl	le will be somethir	ıg
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	_/
9.	The Performance personnel decis					
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	_/
10.	The Performance of teachers.	Appraisa	l System wil	l improve on	-the-job performand	e
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	<u>/</u>
11.	The Performance of principals.	Appraisa	l System wil	l improve on	-the-job effectiver	ness
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	<u>/</u>
12.	The Performance satisfaction.	Appraisa	l System wil	l not increas	se teacher job	
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	<u>/</u>
13.	The Performance satisfaction.	Appraisa	l System wil	l increase tl	ne principal's job	
		/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagree	<u>/</u>
14.	/ Strongly Agree	ice staff	will play a	_	/ Strongly Disagree le in the outcomes	<u>/</u>
14.	Strongly Agree The central off of the Performan	ice staff nce Appra	will play a isal System.	critical ro		

15.	The new Summative Appraisal Instrument uses a four-point rating scale as follows: 1) Performs Unsatisfactorily, 2) Needs Improvement, 3) Meets Performance Expectations, 4) Exceeds Performance Expectations. The inclusion of "Exceeds Performance Expectations" is an improvement over the previous scale of 1) Unsatisfactory, 2) Needs Improvement, 3) Satisfactory.
	Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
16.	I will improve more as a result of the implementation of the Performance Appraisal System.
	Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
17.	The Performance Appraisal System will probably be discontinued in a few years.
	Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

I want to thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Again, let me reassure you of the confidentiality of your responses. As the appraisal system enters different stages this year, you will receive other questionnaires. When the research is finished, I will be happy to share the results with you.

The following information is necessary to set up a procedure for data analysis. Although data will not be reported for individual persons or schools, the information is necessary to study results for the school system. Please respond to each of the following items:

Participant Code	•
Level of School and/or Grade	
Job Title	
Highest Degree	<u> </u>
Number of Years in Education	
Number of Total Years in Present Position	

#### ROWAN COUNTY

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

## Salisbury, North Carolina 28144

TO: Selected Participants for Research Project

FROM: Pam Beaver, Supervisor Fam Beaver

SUBJECT: Assurances and Explanation of Second Questionnaire

DATE: May 12, 1983

As you know, the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System has been used for the first time during this school year. In September, 1982, you completed the first questionnaire related to your perceptions about the new, state-mandated appraisal system prior to its implementation. Now, the enclosed follow-up questionnaire is to determine how you feel about the system after the first year of its use.

As I explained in the fall, the State Department of Public Instruction, Division of Personnel Relations, is very interested in the data after one year in order to know how the schools are affected.

I again want to insure all participants of complete confidentiality. The results will <u>not</u> pinpoint schools or individuals. The data will be used to describe our school system (i.e., elementary school vs. secondary, tenured teacher vs. non-tenured, etc.).

Enclosed you will find the second questionnaire. Please complete the forms according to the instructions; return to me in the enclosed envelope before June 1, 1983. If you have any questions, please call me (636-6750). Your input is very much needed in order to determine how you feel now as compared to how you perceived the system prior to the implementation. When the data is compiled and analyzed, I will be happy to share the results with you.

# PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL QUESTIONNAIRE - No. 2 May, 1983

### INTRODUCTION:

As you know, the Rowan County School System has been using the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System which resulted from a mandate by the North Carolina Legislature. The state set goals that it hoped to meet through the use of this evaluation process of all school personnel. This questionnaire, a follow-up to the one sent in September, 1982, is intended to find out both how you presently perceive the Performance Appraisal System for our school system and also what you believe will happen as the result of continuing the process in Rowan County.

#### EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section One

CURRENT PERCEPTIONS: ANSWER EACH ITEM.

Please place an X in the section that indicates your present observations, awareness level, and feelings about the Performance Appraisal System that was implemented this year in the Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items. Comments from the first questionnaire were excellent and very helpful. Please read each statement very carefully.

 Personnel in the school system do not need a formal evaluation process in order to improve.

<u>/</u>	/ ,	/ ,	/	1	/
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	

	oved.			
1	/	1	/	1
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/	1	/	1	1
Strongly A	gree Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagree	/ Strongly Disagr
		the North Ca sal System.	rolina Legisla	ature to mandate
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				nt of time that
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Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
difficult for al	1 personi	nel to impro	ve the level	
/	/	/	/	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The Performance previously used	Appraisa evaluatio	l System is on system in	an improveme Rowan Count	nt over the y.
/	/	/	/	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The supervisors through the impl	are more ementatio	involved in on of the ne	helping tea w system.	chers improve
/	/	/	/	/
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
			ce Appraisal	System is to help
1	1	/	/	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
			not designed	to gather information
/	/	/	/	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The Performance what was previou	Appraisa sly used	l Instrument	is actually	very similar to
/	/	/	/	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Educators do not	resent l	having impro	vement plans	
/	1	,	/	1
Strongly Agree	, Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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1	,	/	/	, ,
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	/ Strongly Agree  The Performance difficult for alwith which they  / Strongly Agree  The Performance previously used  / Strongly Agree  The supervisors through the impl  / Strongly Agree  The primary purp personnel accomp  / Strongly Agree  The Performance to make decision  / Strongly Agree  The Performance to make decision  / Strongly Agree  The Performance what was previous  / Strongly Agree  The Performance what was previous  / Strongly Agree  The Informal observables in the second	/ Strongly Agree Agree The Performance Appraisa difficult for all person with which they carry ou  / Strongly Agree Agree The Performance Appraisa previously used evaluation / Strongly Agree Agree The supervisors are more through the implementation / Strongly Agree Agree The primary purpose of the personnel accomplish muttor / Strongly Agree Agree The Performance Appraisa to make decisions about / Strongly Agree Agree The Performance Appraisa what was previously used / Strongly Agree Agree The Performance Appraisa what was previously used / Strongly Agree Agree Educators do not resent in Strongly Agree Agree The informal observation results in the summative	principals have spent observing in c  /	Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree  The Performance Appraisal System is not designed to make decisions about employment.  / / / /  Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree  The Performance Appraisal Instrument is actually what was previously used.  / / /  Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree  Educators do not resent having improvement plans  / / /  Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree  The informal observations do not have significant

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

## EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

## Section Two

EXPECTED OUTCOMES: ANSWER EACH ITEM.

Please place an X in the section that indicates what you believe has happened as the result of using the Performance Appraisal System in Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items. Previous comments were very beneficial. Please read each statement very carefully.

1.	Principals have and continue wi				out evalua	ations
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly	/ Disagree
2.	All educators n	eed a sta	te job descr	iption.		
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly	Disagree /
3.	Fewer than one plan.	half of t	he employees	have had a	written imp	provement
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly	/ Disagree
4.	The Performance professionals.	Appraisa	1 System has	increased t	rust among	
	/ Strongly Agree	/	/ .	/	/	/
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly	Disagree
5.	The Performance school principa					n among
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly	/ Disagree
6.	The Performance a merit pay sys		l System wil	l not be use	d later to	implement
		/	1	1	1	/
	/ Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly	Disagree

7.	Few changes in employee performance have occurred because of the new system.							
	1	/	/	/	/	/		
	/ Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
8.	The Pre-Conference as part of the evaluation cycle is something new.							
	/ Strongly Agree		/		/	/		
	Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
9.	The Performance Appraisal System provides a means whereby personnel decisions can be made in a more objective way.							
	/	/	/	/	/	/		
	Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
10.	The Performance Appraisal System improves on-the-job performance of teachers.							
	/	/	/	, ·	/	/		
	/ Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
11.	The Performance of principals.	e Appraisa	al System imp	proves on-the	e-job effectiv	eness		
	/	/	/	/	,	1		
	/ Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
12.	The Performance Appraisal System does not increase teacher job satisfaction.							
	/	/	/	/	/	/		
	/ Strongly Agre	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
13.	The Performance Appraisal System increases the principal's job satisfaction.							
	/	/	/	/	/	1		
	/ Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		
14.	The central office staff plays a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System.							
	/	1	1	/	/	1		
	Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Di	sagree		

15.	The new Summative Appraisal Instrument uses a four-point rating scale as follows: 1) Performs Unsatisfactorily, 2) Needs Improvement 3) Meets Performance Expectations, 4) Exceeds Performance Expectation The inclusion of 'Exceeds Performance Expectations' is an improvement over the previous scale of 1) Unsatisfactory, 2) Needs Improvement, 3) Satisfactory.								
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly D	/			
	actorigity Agree	. veree	Not sale	Disagree	Scroligly D	rsagree			
16.	I improved more as a result of the implementation of the Performance Appraisal System.								
	/	/	/	/	/	/			
	Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly D	isagree			
17.	The Performance a few years.	e Appraisa	ıl System wil	.1 probably b	e discontinu	ed in			
	/	/	1	/	1				
	Strongly Agree	e Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly D	isagree			

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

I want to thank you for taking the time to complete this second questionnaire. Again, let me reassure you of the confidentiality of your responses. As the appraisal system enters different stages next year, you will receive one more questionnaire. Also, 10 percent of the sample will be selected for a one-on-one conference. When the research is finished, I will be happy to share the results with you.

The following information is necessary to continue the procedure for data analysis. Although data will not be reported for individual persons or schools, the information is necessary to study results for the school system. Please respond to each of the following items:

Participant Code	
Level of School and/or Grade	
Job Title	
Highest Degree	
Number of Years in Education	
Number of Total Years in Present Position	

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

#### Salisbury, North Carolina 28144

TO: Questionnaire Participants

FROM: Pam Beaver Pam Beaver

DATE: September 2, 1983

As you know, I have been doing research on the effectiveness of the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System for the past year. The study is a longitudinal one, meaning the data is collected over a two-year period to see how a sample of our teachers and principals view the appraisal system prior to its implementation, after one year, and at the end of the second year. For the results to be valid, I need to get as many questionnaires as possible returned. I know that May was a busy time, and those who did not return the questionnaires probably were too busy. I would very much appreciate your returning it now in order to get the necessary data. If you have any questions, please call me.

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

#### Salisbury, North Carolina 28144

To: Questionnaire Participants in the Rowan County Schools

From: Pam Beaver

Date: May 1, 1984

This is the last of three questionnaires that I have sent to selected participants in Rowan County in regard to the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System. The research study that I am conducting is a longitudinal study to determine how educators' perceptions change in regard to the effectiveness of the new evaluation system from the time that it was first introduced (Fall, 1982) through the end of a two-year cycle (Spring, 1984). The study is one that Mr. Bob Boyd, at the state department, is interested in reviewing as part of the state's evaluation of the new process. It is also a part of my dissertation for my doctorate, a study of teacher evaluation.

As I have explained with the other two questionnaires, the information will be kept confidential. The reason for the code numbers is for me to be able to send the same people the questionnaires each time; otherwise, my comparisons of the perceptions over a two-year period would be with three different groups of randomly selected participants and thus not valid. Your code number is known and used only when I use my original list to determine who was first selected to participate in the study. I have and will keep this strictly confidential, according to all ethical standards of research, but I had to have a way to follow the study, over a two-year period, with the same participants.

During the past two years, I have reviewed much literature and many studies on teacher evaluation and how teachers improve. I will be happy to share my final review and the results of the Rowan County study with participants who request it. The research is very interesting, and I feel that this study will be significant.

I very much appreciate your participation over the past two years. This final questionnaire is crucial because of the attrition rate since the fall of 1982, due to retirements, relocations, etc., of the original group. I need almost 100 percent of these final questionnaires in order to keep a high enough percentage for the comparisons among the first, second, and third questionnaires to be valid.

Please complete the questionnaire and return it to me by May 15, 1984. If you have any questions, please call me (636-6750 or 637-5939). Again, I will very much appreciate your participation.

# PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL QUESTIONNAIRE - No. 3 May 1, 1984

#### INTRODUCTION:

As you know, the Rowan County School System has been using the North Carolina Performance Appraisal System which resulted from a mandate by the North Carolina Legislature. The state set goals that it hoped to meet through the use of this evaluation process of all school personnel. This questionnaire, a follow-up to the ones sent in September, 1982, and May, 1983, is intended to find out both how you presently perceive the Performance Appraisal System for our school system and also what you believe will happen as the result of continuing the process in Rowan County.

#### EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Section One

CURRENT PERCEPTIONS: ANSWER EACH ITEM.

Please place an X in the section that indicates your present observations, awareness level, and feelings about the Performance Appraisal System that was implemented in 1982 in the Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items. Comments from the first questionnaire were excellent and very helpful. Please read each statement very carefully.

1.	Personnel in the process in order			do not	need a	formal	evaluat	cion
	/	/	/	,	/	/		
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not	Sure	Disagr	ree Si	trongly	Disagree

Educators can be imp	roved.				
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Strongly	Agree Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagre	/ e Strongly Dis	agre
	no need for πance Apprai		rolina Legis	lature to mandat	e
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	elopment has I the Perform			els to help pers	onne
/	/	/	/	1	
Strongly	Agree Agre	e Not Sur	e Disagre	/ e Strongly Dis	agre
vehicle to	help indivi			raisal System is job performance	
vehicle to need impro	help indivi vement.	duals identi	fy areas of	job performance	that
vehicle to need impro	help indivi vement.	duals identi	fy areas of		that
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10.	Teachers have not appreciated the increased amount of time that principals have spent observing in classrooms.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
11.	The Performance Appraisal System is a process that makes it less difficult for all personnel to improve the level of performance with which they carry out their work.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
12.	The Performance Appraisal System is an improvement over the previously used evaluation system in Rowan County.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
13.	The supervisors are more involved in helping teachers improve through the implementation of the new system.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
14.	The primary purpose of the Performance Appraisal System is to help personnel accomplish mutual goals.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
15.	The Performance Appraisal System is not designed to gather information to make decisions about employment.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
16.	The Performance Appraisal Instrument is actually very similar to what was previously used.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
17.	Educators do not resent having improvement plans.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

18.	The informal obs the results in t				influence	on
	/	/	1	/	/	/
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly	Disagree

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

### EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

#### Section Two

EXPECTED OUTCOMES: ANSWER EACH ITEM.

Please place an X in the section that indicates what you believe has happened as the result of using the Performance Appraisal System in Rowan County Schools. At the end of this section is a space for comments that you may wish to make about one or more of the items. Previous comments were very beneficial. Please read each statement very carefully.

1.	Principals have not had sufficient time to carry out evaluations and continue with their other responsibilities.
	/ / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
2.	All educators need a state job description.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
3.	Fewer than one half of the employees have had a written improvement plan.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
4.	The Performance Appraisal System has increased trust among professionals.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
5.	The Performance Appraisal System has improved communication among school principals, teachers, and central office staff.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
ό <sub>′</sub> .	The Performance Appraisal System will not be used later to implement a merit pay system.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
	Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

7.	Few changes in employee performance have occurred because of the new system.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
8.	The Pre-Conference as part of the evaluation cycle is something new.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
9.	The Performance Appraisal System provides a means whereby personnel decisions can be made in a more objective way.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
10.	The Performance Appraisal System improves on-the-job performance of teachers.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
11.	The Performance Appraisal System improves on-the-job effectiveness of principals.
	/ Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
12.	The Performance Appraisal System does not increase teacher job satisfaction.
	/ / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
13.	The Performance Appraisal System increases the principal's job satisfaction.
	/ / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree
14.	The central office staff plays a critical role in the outcomes of the Performance Appraisal System.
	/ / / / / / / / / / / / / / Strongly Agree Agree Not Sure Disagree Strongly Disagree

15.	scale as follow 3) Meets Perfor The inclusion of	s: 1) Pe mance Exp of 'Exceed ous scale	erforms Unsat ectations, <sup>1</sup> ls Performand	isfactorily, ) Exceeds Pe ce Expectation	our-point rating  2) Needs Improve erformance Expecta ons" is an improve Needs Improvemen	tions. ment
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagr	ee /
16.	I improved more Appraisal Syste		sult of the i	implementatio	on of the Performa	nce
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagr	ee /
17.	The Performance a few years.	Appraisa	ıl System wil	ll probably b	e discontinued in	ı
	/ Strongly Agree	/ Agree	/ Not Sure	/ Disagree	/ Strongly Disagr	ee /

Comments: Please indicate the item(s) about which you are commenting by writing the number before your comment(s).

I want to thank you for taking the time to complete this third and final questionnaire. Again, let me reassure you of the confidentiality of your responses. I sincerely appreciate each participant's cooperation in responding to the three administrations.

The following information is necessary to continue the procedure for data analysis. Although data will not be reported for individual persons or schools, the information is necessary to study results for the school system. Please respond to each of the following items:

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION

#### Salisbury, North Carolina 28144

TO: Selected Participants

FROM: Pam Beaver Pam Beaver

DATE: May 29, 1984

I am writing to remind you to return the last questionnaire which was mailed to you on May 1, 1984, if you have not already done this. I know how rushed everyone is at the end of the year; however, your time spent in completing this task will be very much appreciated.

This is the final questionnaire, and it is very important for validity that I get a large percentage returned to me. Your time and help will be greatly appreciated.

If you have any questions, please call me.

## APPENDIX D

North Carolina

Performance Appraisal System Information

#### PROCEDURES FOR PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

#### ROWAN COUNTY SCHOOLS

- I. The Performance Appraisal System will consist of these steps:
  - a) Formal Observations
    - 1) one cycle for tenured teachers

2) two cycles for probationary teachers

3) other cycles as needed or requested by teachers who feel that their performances were inadequate

The Performance Appraisal Cycle consists of the following:

- Pre-observation conference
- Formal observation in classroom
- Post-observation conference with improvement plan
- b) Informal observations
- c) Informal conferences
- d) File for each teacher with notes of both formal and informal observations, including suggestions for improvement and follow-up of these suggestions for improvement
- e) Summative Performance Appraisal Instrument to be filled in toward the end of the year and to reflect formal and informal observations
- f) Summative conference to go over the appraisal instrument with the person being appraised
- II. A monthly progress report of observations is to be submitted to Dr. Morgan on the first of each month.
- III. Each principal is to complete the formal observations cycle with all teachers. Exception: If there are more than forty teachers in a school, the assistant principal may complete the formal observation cycle with the remaining teachers.

Informal observations and conferences are the responsibility of both the principal and the assistant principal.

The principal is responsible for summative evaluations for all of the faculty. However, assistant principals in schools of over forty teachers will need to be involved in summative evaluations in consultation with the principal.

IV. Observations in the teacher's file should reflect the strengths of the teachers as well as the needs for improvement. Notes from formal observations should be included as well as notes concerning informal classroom observations and conferences, overall contributions to the school, participation in staff meetings, and concerns such as accreditation committees, schedules, support of non-instructional activities and other indicators that appear on the summative instrument.

## PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE FORM (Required for All Teachers)

Teacher Grade/Su		Date				
		ubjectObserver				
Plan	ned	Date of Observation	Planned Time			
The	Pre-	-observation Conference	is to be held in the teacher's classroom			
	1.	Describe your classroom	m structure and schedule.			
,						
	2.	Describe your students their special needs.	and their learning characteristics and			
	3.	Explain the particular	area of study that will be observed.			
	4.	Describe what you want	your students to learn (objectives).			

5.	Describe the strategies and materials that will be used.
6.	Describe what the students will be doing.
, 7 <b>.</b>	Explain how this lesson relates to the broader unit of study.
8.	Explain how you know the students are ready for this particular lesson.
9.	Explain how you would evaluate what students have learned from this lesson.
10.	Describe any other information that would be beneficial to the observer.

OBSERVATION FOCUS: (Major focus of data collection)

### PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT PLAN

Teacher	Grade/Subject
School	
Evaluator	Position
This performance improvement plan specificand strategies designed to improve perford determined to be deficient or weak and/or This improvement plan is a direct outgrow conference. Dates for completion or follow appropriate.	mance in those areas which are for professional development. The of the post-observation
IMPROVEMENT OBJECTIVES:	
STRATEGIES AND FOLLOW-UP: (How the teach objectives)	er will achieve the improvement
,	
REVIEW OF PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT PLAN:	
Signatures Indicate Understanding of Impr	ovement Plan.
Teacher	Date
Evaluator	Date

## POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE REPORT (Required for All Teachers)

Tea	icher	Date Observer/Evaluator Time	
Gra	nde/Subject		
<b>O</b> bs	ervation Date		
I.	Summary of Observation (include	strengths and needs for improvement)	
II.	Specific Recommendations for Gr Improvement	owth in Job Performance and/or Areas for	
II.	C		
	Teacher	Date	
	Evaluator	Date	

#### TEACHER PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL INSTRUMENT

#### INSTRUCTIONS:

- 1. Based on the evidence from observation and discussion, the evaluator is to rate the teacher's performance with respect to the 33 basic elements of teaching listed below.
- 2. The evaluator is encouraged to add pertinent comments at the end of each major function.
- 3. The teacher is provided an opportunity to react to the evaluator's ratings and comments.
- The evaluator and the teacher must discuss the results of the
- appraisal and any recommended action pertinent to it.

  The teacher and the evaluator must sign the instrument in the assigned spaces.
- 6. The instrument must be filed in the teacher's personnel folder.

Teacher	Rating Scale (Please Check)	
School	Needs Improvement in Performance	
The following are Broad Program Functions. They refer to planning, operating, and updating the grade level instructional program as a total program extending over the school year.	Meets Performance Expectations Exceeds Performance Expectations Not Applicable	
A. Major Function: Planning the Program		
<ol> <li>Contributes as requested to the development of annual objectives for the school.</li> </ol>		
<ol> <li>Develops an annual instructional plan that includes the formulation of objectives, strategies, timelines, and evaluation procedures consistent with annual school objectives.</li> </ol>		
Comments:		

			(Please Check)
			Needs Improvement in Performance Meets Performance Expectations Exceeds Performance
			Expectations
_		The state of the Comment of the Programme	Not
В.	Maj	or Function: Overseeing the Program	Applicable
	,1.	Applies curriculum scope, sequence, continuity, and balance in carrying out the annual instructional plan.	
	2.	Implements learning strategies that address the needs identified in the annual instructional plan.	
	3.	Uses appropriate evaluation methods to determine whether the annual instructional plan is working.	
	4.	Makes changes in the annual instructional plan when evaluation indicates a need, and seeks advice and assistance if required.	
	Con	ments:	
	سنديد المحط		
C.	Maj	or Function: Updating the Program	
	1.	Renews competence and keeps up with advances in child growth and develop- ment and uses this knowledge to improve	<u> </u>
		the instructional program.	
	2.	Renews competence and keeps abreast of new knowledge, research, and practice in subject area(s) and applies this knowledge to improve the instructional	<del></del>
		program.	
	Con	ments	
	- 5		

The following are <u>Particular Technical Functions</u> . They refer to the means by which the teacher adapts the broad program functions to lessons and units of study on a daily basis.			Rating Scale (Please Check)  Needs Improvement in Performance Meets Performance	
		•	Expectations	
D.	Majo	or Function: Managing Daily Instruction	Exceeds Performance Expectations	
	_		Not Applicable	
	1.	Prepares daily lesson plans, makes classroom presentations, conducts discussions, encourages practice, and corrects student work in a manner that demonstrates subject area	Аррисавие	
	•	competence.		
	2.	Correlates subject matter to students' interests, needs, and aptitudes.		
	3.	Uses resources, materials, and enrichment activities that are related to the subject(s).		
	4.	Employs instructional methods that are appropriate to the instructional objectives.		
	5.	Involves students, parents, and others as needed to help insure that students keep up with daily lessons.		
	Com	ments:		
E.	— Maj	or Function: Differentiating Instruction		
	1.	Identifies students' strengths and weaknesses in relation to objectives to determine if grouping is required because of differing skill levels.		
	2.	Groups students as needed for effective teaching and learning.		
	3.	Uses the school's media center to support and supplement instructional activities.		
	4.	Provides instructional activities that aid students in becoming independent learners.		

Rating Scale

			(Please Check)
			Needs Improvement
			in Performance
			Meets Performance
			Expectations
			Exceeds Performance
			Expectations
			Not
F.	Maj	or Function: <u>Individualizing Instruction</u>	Applicable
	1.	Monitors individual student achievement of objectives as teaching occurs.	
	, <b>2</b> .	Provides individual students with prompt feedback on their progress and provides necessary remediation.	
	3.	Adjusts instruction to objectives and individual student needs on a daily basis.	
	4.	Arranges to have appropriate materials and equipment available to satisfy individual needs.	
		Comments:	
C	Mo.	ou Brastian. Commission	
G.	raj	or Function: Supervising	
	1.	Manages the daily routine so that students know what they are to do next and are able to proceed without confusion.	
	2.	Keeps student talk and movement at a level that lets each student attend to his or her instructional task without interruption.	
	3.	Maintains a pleasant working atmosphere that does not stifle spontaneity and warmth.	

The following are Indirect Facilitating Functions. They refer to a moderately related set of activities that do not involve direct teaching between teacher and student but have important effects on the success of that direct teaching. Non-Instructional Duties refer to the teacher's essential role in the logistics of administering a program to a large social group of several hundred students in a limited space.

Rating Scale (Please Check)

			Needs Improvement in Performance
			Meets Performance Expectations
			Exceeds Performance
			Expectations Not
н.	Maj	or Function: <u>Human Resources</u>	Applicable
	1.	Uses student talent as a resource in instructing, developing materials, and operating equipment.	
,	2.	Makes appropriate use of volunteers and resource teachers with special skills and knowledge.	
	3.	Makes use of appropriate community resources to extend classroom learning.	
	4.	Makes effective use of other professional personnel to improve instruction and classroom management.	
	Com	ments:	-
I.	Maj	or Function: <u>Human Relations</u>	
	1.	Shows respect for the worth and dignity of all students.	
	2.	Is aware of and encourages respect for cultural differences.	
	3.	Establishes rapport with parents.	
	Con	ments:	
J.	Maj	or Function: Non-Instructional Duties	
	1.	Carries out non-instructional duties as assigned or as a need is perceived.	
	2.	Adheres to established laws, rules, and regulations.	
	Com	ments:	

Evaluator's Summary Comments:		
Teacher's Reaction to Evaluation:		
Evaluator's Signature and Date		
Teacher's Signature and Date		

Signature indicates that the written evaluation has been seen and discussed.