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An Empirical Validation of Guskey's Professional Development Evaluation Model Using Six Years of Student and Teacher Level Reading Data

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AN EMPIRICAL VALIDATION OF GUSKEY'S PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION MODEL USING SIX YEARS OF STUDENT AND TEACHER LEVEL READING DATA

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DAVID NEWMAN

ABSTRACT

In this era of high-stakes testing and tight funding there is unprecedented interest in and a requirement for accountability in the field of education. Virtually all funded projects are required to have an evaluation component designed to determine if project goals have been met. Positive outcomes are often the basis for continued funding and implementation. School systems also depend heavily on well-designed evaluations to assess the quality and impact of the professional development they offer to bring about change in teacher practice, in their effort to implement reform, and to demonstrate accountability to their stakeholders.

The need to provide and assess professional development to improve teaching practices has generated numerous evaluation models that are widely used but have not been empirically tested. Since important program decisions are based on the results of these assessments, there is a great need to ensure the efficacy of these evaluation models to appropriately assess the programs they are intended to evaluate. Therefore, the purpose of this research was to empirically test the theory underlying Guskey’s Model for evaluating professional development, which is widely used by school systems engaging in program assessment.

This study focused on testing the nomological network of one of the most commonly used evaluation models developed by Thomas Guskey. A description of the
model is presented along with a discussion of the lack of empirical evidence that exists regarding its effectiveness. By investigating the relationships among the five components in Guskey’s Model (Teacher Satisfaction, Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Practices, Administrative Support and Student Outcomes), it was possible to determine whether these assumed relationships actually do exist and contribute to the accuracy of the program evaluation.

Data collected from Reading First Ohio over the past 6 years was utilized to test the nomological net of Guskey’s model. The finding indicated strong support for the continued use of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. It also described some of the complex interactions between Teacher Satisfaction, Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practice.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

There is no question that there is unprecedented interest in and a requirement for accountability in the field of education (Desimone, 2009; Levine, 1974; Raudenbush, 2009). Virtually all externally funded projects are required to have an evaluation component that is designed to determine if project goals have been met (Westat, 2003). Positive outcomes are often the basis for continued funding and implementation. Local, state and federal government agencies depend upon well-designed evaluations to make effective policy decisions. School systems are also heavily dependent on well-designed evaluations to assess the quality and impact of the professional development they offer to bring about change in teacher practice, in their effort to implement reform, increase student learning, and demonstrate accountability to their stakeholders (NCEE, 1983; NCLB 2001; Raudenbush, 2009).

There are currently a number of comprehensive evaluation models that are being used in the field of education to guide and assess program development, professional development, and implementation success. Stuffelbeam (2000, 2007), Stake (2000), Scriven (1994), Kirkpatrick (2006), Guskey (1991, 2000, 2002), and others have all
developed systematic evaluation models that are being widely used to bring about educational reform. The assumption is that the model adopted by a school system is an effective tool that will aid them in designing and evaluating their professional development efforts. This assumption is seldom, if ever, supported by an empirical test of the model, and is often based on common practice. Therefore, while schools may invest heavily in designing and presenting professional development opportunities for their teachers, they generally have little or no evidence to indicate if the criteria based upon the model they have selected for their training are good indicators of effectiveness. 

The concept of providing ongoing professional development is not unique to education. Areas such as law, medicine, technical industries, etc., all require continual professional development (Hashem, 2007) to refresh and keep practitioners current in their fields. The assumption is that the professional development for both teachers and administrative staff will lead to increased knowledge and skills that will in turn result in improved practice and will ultimately increase student performance (Desimone, Smith, Hayes, & Frisvold, 2005; Levine, 1974). Very often in the field of education, resources are allocated through state and district budgets to provide professional development, but virtually no resources are set aside to determine if the selected professional development is effective in producing the desired change. The evaluation model or design that is chosen often stops short of assessing if there is an overall change in student performance. Most only assess satisfaction and a baseline of increases in practices, but they tend not to adequately assess real changes in teacher practices. It is critical that the evaluation model is appropriate to measure all key outcomes (Guskey, 2001).
This brings us to an important point. There are many types of evaluation. For the purpose of this study evaluation is defined as the systematic investigation of the merit or worth of a program (Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, 1994.) Systematic refers to the evaluation being thoughtful, intentional, and purposeful as it pertains to the overall objectives. Guskey (1998) states that because professional development models are in themselves systematically conceptualized with goals and clearly defined objectives, they are also evaluation models. Investigation refers to collecting and analyzing relevant information about the ongoing program. Lastly, merit or worth refers to the value of the program. Are there benefits? Is it cost effective? And, Is it better than competing programs? All of the questions are couched within an evaluation conceptualization.

Models to evaluate professional development are based upon assumptions that are embedded in philosophical positions and a particular world-view of what is considered to be important. For example, in Thomas Guskey’s (2001) Professional Development Evaluation Model the pieces that are considered to be important are satisfaction, changes in teacher knowledge, changes in teacher practices, administrative support, and ultimately improvement in student performance. The value of working from a model is that it helps one to organize, define, communicate, and diagnose problems by looking at the interrelated components. A model also has heuristic value and is useful both formatively and summatively for writing reports. It can provide the framework that is used to discuss each aspect of the program and helps the trainer and/or evaluator communicate progress by describing which aspects of the model have been completed, are in process, or need to be revisited. The components of the model can also serve as clear divisions for report
writing and communicating results. However, few studies are available that validate or empirically test these different evaluation models. These models have basically been “tested” philosophically or intuitively. The “test” involves selecting the model that appears to be most in line with the philosophical position of the district or the individual planning the professional development, or the one that seems intuitively to make the most sense, fits their budget, or their knowledge of evaluation strategies. It is therefore, important to investigate the efficacy of the evaluation models in an attempt to better ensure that the model that is most appropriate, and has the best fit for a specific situation, is selected. It is not sufficient to adopt a model based on face validity, ease of use and/or because it has become common practice in a given field (Raudenbush, 2009). Today’s limited resources of time, money and personnel, along with the increased attention to accountability to stakeholders, necessitates that careful consideration be given to selecting an evaluation model that will best serve the purpose for which it is intended.

Theoretical Framework

This study focuses on Guskey’s (2001) Professional Development Evaluation Model. The Guskey model was selected because of its wide acceptance and use in professional development and because it is the model selected and implemented for the state-wide Reading First Ohio professional development. This model identified five levels that have to be investigated when assessing the success of professional development. Level 1 is the satisfaction of the participants with the professional development they received. Level 2 is the changes in knowledge that the teachers show an increase in their understanding of key concepts presented in the professional development. Teacher practices is Level 3 and it reflects the changes in teaching that
reflect the better understanding of the key components covered in the professional development. Level 4 is *administrative support* and measures level of support from the principal and staff that support the changes in teacher practices prescribed by the professional development. Lastly, Level 5 is *student achievement* and measures the increased as a result of the changes brought about by the professional development. Guskey’s model is represented by these five levels/ components that make up a nomological network (see Figure 1). This network suggests that there is a theoretical relationship among and between these components. These relationships are the paths that have to be measured to investigate the overall goodness-of-fit for this model. Figure 1 illustrates all of the theoretical paths.

![Figure 1. Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model](image)

Nomological networks are subsets of theory that explain the number of components that are supposed to be interrelated. Cronbach and Meehl (1955) defined a nomological network as “the interlocking system of laws which constitute a theory” (p. 10). These laws are not concrete, unambiguous truths but are more closely related to specific propositions. Cronbach and Meehl stated that some of these laws are observable
through quantitative measurements. Newman, Bliss, and Newman (2007) suggested that this nomological network provides a framework for investigators to use both in the collection of data and in conceptualizing the logic of the model as a way to confirm the patterns of evidence that support the model.

The nomological network suggests sources of data as well as methods of data collection and analyses. This network also suggests the relationships among the sources of data. According to Cronbach and Meehl (1955), these relationships can be both quantitative (deterministic) and qualitative (implicit and derived). Testing a nomological network increases the power of the analyses, since the analyses are theory driven and are not just testing one hypothesis but the relationship among a number of hypotheses.

**Purpose of the Study**

One of the most frequently used models to evaluate professional development in education today has been developed by Thomas Guskey (1998). Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model has been widely used since it makes common sense and it is logical. However, according to Gage (1999), it is not enough to just agree with the common sense of a model because many times the logic is flawed. Therefore, even though Guskey’s evaluation model makes logical sense, there is little empirical evidence to confirm or dispute its effectiveness. By allowing researchers to test the logic of the model and by helping decision-makers determine the effectiveness of their professional development efforts, we can increase the probability that effective professional development is sustained and that professional development that is not effective is either modified so that it becomes so, or is discontinued. According to Kuhn, Popper, and
Kerlinger (1986), the philosophy of science is having a nomological net or theory that needs to be tested empirically to advance science (Kerlinger, 1986; Kuhn, 1970).

The purpose of this study is twofold. First, it is to estimate the prediction validity of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. Secondly, it intends to clarify the structural and ideological connections between important constructs and therefore improve the overall organizational impact by refuting or confirming the claims of Guskey’s (1999, 2000).

**General Research Questions**

To best test the nomological net supported by Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model and the underlying constructs defined by that model, this study investigates the relationships between Satisfaction, Knowledge, Practices, Administrative Support and Student Outcomes. The following research questions test these relationships.

1. Does Satisfaction (Level 1) of Guskey’s Model predict Teacher Knowledge (Level 2)?
2. Do Satisfaction (Level 1) and Knowledge (Level 2) of Guskey’s Model predict Teacher Practices (Level-3)?
3. Do Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices (Level-2 & 3) predict Growth in Student Achievement (Level 5)?
4. Do the operationally defined Student Gain variables, and the Teaching and Administrative Support variables reflect the interrelationship of the levels, as hypothesized by Guskey’s Model?
5. Is there an overall good Goodness of Fit for the components of Guskey’s
Professional Development Evaluation Model, as estimated by the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index.

6. Is there a significant interaction between Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice?

7. Does Administrative Support account for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement when controlling for the mediating variables of Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices?

**Significance of the Study**

An improved model to evaluate the effectiveness of professional development allows schools to better tailor their specific training to obtain their goals of interest. This research is potentially useful in guiding teachers and administrators in how to utilize the model to effectively measure changes in clinical practice such as teacher practices, administrative support, and overall satisfaction with the professional development. This research also attempts to impact specific methodological issues, such as understanding complex phenomena by testing the nomological net. And since all of most evaluation models, by their very nature, assume interaction between the components, this study attempts to show the need for investigating these interactions to determine how some of the components mediate other key components. This is important because very little, if any, research on testing even mentions interactions. This research also evaluates the interaction effects specific to Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model and it demonstrates a methodology that is capable of estimating the mediating effects. Lastly, this research allows administrators to better inform constituencies, which is one of the
main purposes for conducting research, according to Newman, Ridenour, Newman, and DeMarco (2003).

In our current climate of educational reform and accountability, it is important to use the limited available resources to their best advantage. Just conducting professional development without a sound basis of how it is being delivered is not sufficient. Programs like Reading First Ohio, which rely heavily on effective professional development to bring about the desired change in teacher practices and student learning, are using Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model to plan and gauge the effectiveness of their professional development efforts. But little research has been done to determine if this is an effective evaluation model to use. Therefore, there is a need to empirically estimate the effectiveness of the criterion used (Guskey’s model) to assess the efficacy of the ongoing professional development.

Delimitations

This study is delimited in two ways. First, it has been delimited to the Reading First Ohio data available from years 2003-2009. Second, the levels of Guskey’s model have been defined by using operational definitions that are specific to the Reading First Ohio data set. Many of the data were self reported or obtained by observation in one classroom for one day.

Operational Definitions

Assessment. Assessment measures the criterion based knowledge of children.

Evaluation. The systematic investigation of merit or worth.

Evaluation models. Evaluation models investigate the effectiveness of the professional development.
District type. Derived from the ODE website 2005:

Rural: Agricultural, small student population, low to median income.

Urban: Large student population, median income, high poverty.

Major Urban: Large student population, very high poverty.

Guskey’s levels:

Level 1 (Satisfaction): A measure of overall approval of the training. This is measured by satisfaction surveys from Westat (2008) and the Reading First Ohio Center.

Level 2 (Knowledge): A measure of teachers’ gains in their own perception of what they know. This is collected from the Westat surveys and the Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC).

Level 3 (Teacher Practice): Changes in everyday teaching based on knowledge gained through training and support provided by Data Managers, Principals, and Literacy Specialist, and is measured by changes in the SEC, ELLCO and Westat surveys.

Level 4 (Administrative Support): Perception of the overall support provided by the Principals, Data Managers, Literacy Specialist and Resource Coordinators to facilitate the best possible teaching environment. This is measured by surveys collected by Westat.

Level 5 (Student Achievement): Objective measures of student gains as measured by the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills
(DIBELS) distance scores, the TerraNova and the Ohio Achievement Test.

Nomological network. The relationships between the constructs of the theoretically based models that are required in all models (Cronbach, 1984).

Professional development. Continuous, ongoing workshops to improve the knowledge, and abilities of teachers, principals, literacy specialists, and data managers.

Reading First Ohio. Reading First is a federally funded program whose goal is to have every child reading on or above grade level by the end of Grade 3. In Ohio this program targeted the financially poorest districts that had the lowest achievement scores in the state.

Student achievement. Defined by student scores on the DIBELS, TerraNova, and the Ohio Achievement Tests (see Chapter III for more detail).

Summary

Program evaluation is a crucial component of many grant funded programs and every federally funded grant program. Many of these federally funded programs are intended to bring about change in education. While several evaluation models focus on assessing change as a result of professional development, Thomas Guskey’s (2000) Professional Development Evaluation Model is one of the most widely used of the models that deal with educational reform.

In Chapter 1 the theoretical framework of the Guskey Professional Development Model was described. This model stresses the importance of the interconnected components. However, the lack of empirical evidence to support the efficacy of using this model, along with the wide use of the Guskey model, strongly suggests that there is a
need to do this study. Additionally, Chapter 1 presented the problem, hypotheses, delimitations, and definitions of the terms that are used in this research.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into three sections that summarize the literature relevant to this study. The first section examines why there is a need for evaluation of professional development to improve teaching and learning. The second section reviews traditional evaluation models. This section starts at one extreme of the continuum with the strictly research driven models suggested by Stake and Scriven and moves to models that focus on the needs of the organization suggested by Kirkpatrick. The third section focuses on the reasons Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model was selected as the evaluation model to investigate and discusses the previous research on this model.

Overall Need for Evaluation

A number of research studies have indicated that a significant portion of the professional development that occurs in education today is ineffective (Cooley, 1997; Corcoran, 1995; Frechtling, Sharp, Carey & Baden-Kierman, 1995; Guskey, 1992, 1995, 2000). Guskey (2000) found that professional development for teachers has generally been top-down and is too isolated, having very little overall effect on teacher practices. He stated that these professional developments tend to be trendy with inadequate amounts of scientific research. He also claimed that budgetary issues and lack of administrative
support further inhibit the potential effectiveness of these trainings and thus limit the overall effect on teachers’ classroom practices.

Guskey (2000) suggested four reasons to place emphasis on professional development (PD) evaluation:

1. Educators understand that PD must be ongoing, continuous, and job-embedded. Newly acquired skills need to be practiced in an environment that facilitates the polishing of these new techniques. Without evaluations, teachers are incapable of assessing their own professional growth.

2. PD is supposed to be methodical and purposeful with the end result focusing on systemic change. In order to assess whether these goals have been fulfilled, a systematic collection and interpretation of the data is required. This further supports the necessity of an evaluation.

3. More substantial support of the educational reform, occurring continuously, would better inform and guide the reform.

4. Administrators, boards of education, government agencies, and parents demanded increased accountability of districts to show educational improvement and success. These improvements and expected outcomes often focus on student growth.

Government agencies are placing increased accountability on school districts through implementation of programs like the Comprehensive Continuous Improvement Plan (CCIP), required by the Ohio Department of Education (ODE). ODE has drafted Ohio’s Practical Handbook for Comprehensive Continuous Improvement Planning: Basic Guidelines for Ohio School Districts (1998), which serves as a reference to show schools
how to conduct a continuous improvement plan for the betterment of educational organizations. Districts are required to create CCIP’s that portray how they will increase student achievement. “These plans must contain a district’s vision, an analysis of needs and strengths, district goals, indicators of performance for student achievement, strategies to improve results and processes within districts, and an action plan” (Ohio’s Practical Handbook for Comprehensive Continuous Improvement Planning: Basic Guidelines for Ohio School Districts, 1998, p. 48). Failure to submit a CCIP may result in a district being sanctioned, having their funding suspended, and/or incurring other penalties.

Gathering evaluation data to indicate growth is a massive undertaking and significant portion of the curriculum improvement process. All districts are required to have data to document student learning improvement measured by overall achievement and the educational process involved in enhanced student learning. The Ohio Achievement Test (OAT) and the Ohio Graduation Test (OGT) provide critical indicators of student and teacher accountability for Ohio school districts. This is especially true with the implementation of the Value Added Models that have been adopted by ODE. These Value Added Models assess student growth over time by comparing the student to his or her own earlier test score. This allows each student’s growth to be assessed from his or her own starting point. The final evaluation of each district’s success occurs at the end of each school year in the State of Ohio School Districts’ Report Cards. These scores are used by the state to determine whether a district should be placed on Academic Watch or Academic Emergency. In the past eight years, the No Child Left Behind legislation has given these designations increased weight. These classifications may result in schools being reconstituted, which is a broad-scale replacement of staff that tends to feature the
removal of incumbent administrators and teachers for failing to show increases in student test scores for six continuous years (NCLB, 2001).

There is little doubt that a need for effective professional development is necessary to enhance student learning outcomes (Guskey, 2000). But, what does “being effective” mean? According to the National Research Council (1999a), “No professional development process is complete until the development committee has created a method and schedule for periodic evaluation and improvement” (p. 42). Speck and Knipe (2001) state that evaluations are needed to determine if professional development was effective. They also explain the importance of districts analyzing their progress in terms of the outcome of the professional development provided. Without this analysis, these two researchers suggest that it would be impossible to tell if the professional development yielded sufficient payoffs for the human and financial resources that were expended when trying to improve teaching practices. During the implementation phase, when teachers in the classroom use their new skills to expand the capacity of their students and impact student outcomes, schools must reflect on the successes and failures of the professional development to attain the desired results (Fitzpatrick, 1998; Guskey, 2000; McCaffrey, Lockwood, Koretz & Hamilton, 2003; Zepeda, 2008).

Professional development is often designed to address a myriad of purposes. It is the role of the evaluator to determine the success of the trainings based on the intended purpose(s) and to what degree the goals were achieved. One potential problem is that the determining factor for success of the professional development is often fixed to student achievement. This is a narrow perspective of success and is not likely to lead districts to reflect on the continuous improvement training (Loucks-Horsley, Hewson, Love, & Stiles
Considering that “a broad range of indicators must be evaluated to conclude whether or not the Professional Development has had any impact on teacher practices and student learning within the district” (Louck-Horsley et al., 1998, p. 220), it can hardly be perceived as satisfactory to focus all attention on a single component of the data available. Louck-Horsley et al. suggested that the following questions be considered to guide evaluations:

1. What are the goals and desired outcomes of the program or initiative?
2. How do you assess the accomplishment of the program’s outcomes?
3. How do you acknowledge and then evaluate how a professional development initiative and its participants change over time?
4. How do you take advantage of evaluation as a learning experience in and of itself? (pp. 221-222)

**Traditional Evaluation Models**

There are several evaluation models that have been used to determine if professional development has led to systematic change. Some of the better known and influential models were developed by Stake, Scriven, Kirkpatrick, Stufflebeam, and Guskey. The following section briefly summarizes these models, but it primarily focuses on Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model.

**Stake: Strictly Empirical Evaluation Models**

Of the evaluation theorists described in this chapter, Stake is one of the most grounded in an empirical research model (Alkin, 2004). He spent a majority of his time on evaluating education and found that teaching ability and students’ ability to learn are difficult to assess (Stake, 1998). There are many factors that influence student
performance and measurement of performance. Some of these factors include exposure to
language and words, sibling rivalry, genetic disposition, television, peer interactivity, and
schooling.

There are also many features that contribute to the evaluation process. Due to the
difficulty of measurement because of all of the possible variables, Stake makes the
following three points about formal evaluation: 1) No instrument should be used alone; 2)
a teacher should be evaluated on contributions to an entire program, not just a class; and
3) one can use existing research to improve teaching.

Stakes’ focus was on teacher and student evaluation and, particularly, on
standardized testing. He enriched the body of knowledge in this area through his
research. According to Stake (1998), standardized test evaluation is generally accurate,
relevant, and free from bias – but he questions if the scores indicate what they are
supposed to indicate. He states that in some states in the United States and in some
Canadian provinces adequate validation has seldom taken place and validation of
standardized testing as an indicator of teaching quality has not taken place (Stakes, 1998).

Moving from secondary education to post-secondary education, Migotsky and
Stake (2001) did a meta-analysis of a program that the Evaluation Center at Western
Michigan was chosen to evaluate. This program was for an Advanced Technical
Education program. The intention was to extend the skill of technicians in 20 advanced
technology fields. Annual status reports produced from the evaluation were
comprehensive. Results were significant because standards were met, the site visit teams
were appropriately staffed, and the evaluators were considerate of the centers. They
followed protocols such as collaboration with partners, professional development, etc.
One missing element in the design was that there was no comparison (control) group, but it was determined that the evaluators met their obligations (Migotsky & Stake, 2001).

However, a major issue identified by Stake concerns the validity of the test. The test has to adequately measure the standards that are being tested. Emphases need to be placed on the fundamental difference between the psychometric and pedagogic perceptions of teaching and learning. Do these tests measure attained ability or experience? Additionally, supervisory evaluations are limited but programmatic changes to the teacher’s pedagogy are not effective without some assessment. Stake said that, unfortunately, the tools that are usually utilized in measuring supervisory evaluations have been limited to scales and checklists and are not very insightful.

Therefore, the process presented by Stake (1998) contains three principals. Stake said that no instrument should be used alone. He believed that the teacher evaluations should not be done on one class but their whole contribution to the entire program. Stake also suggests that we can use existing research to improve the teaching process and communitarian teaching is vital.

**Scriven: Founded in Empirical Measurements**

Scriven, a researcher/evaluator theorist, agrees that there is difficulty in measuring things for evaluative purposes. In 1998, he wrote an article entitled, “The New Science of Evaluation,” in which he poses the question of whether clinical practice is an art or a science. He suggests that evaluation is grounded in science but there is still an art to the practice. Evaluation is a new discipline. Scriven noted that skeptics question the ability to be aware of and maintain a balance between objectivity and bias (both of which are crucial in evaluation). This article goes on to question whether one can be objective, or if
anything is really measurable. He suggests that objectivity is threatened when emotions are involved. Every science uses evaluation. It is the primary methodology that distinguishes good science from bad. Resistance comes from anxiety and fear. People are afraid to be evaluated because the evaluation produces the data that increases the likelihood they will be held accountable for their work.

Scriven argued that evaluation is difficult, and that science is only concerned with, or should only be concerned with the world as it is. He suggests that good science can be distinguished from bad science by the use of evaluation. Good science must be evaluative, and should include the following characteristics:

1. Evaluation is the process of determining the worth. Therefore, it should include one of the four basics of evaluation: grading, ranking, scoring and opportunity.

2. Evaluation provides tools to other disciplines.

3. Evaluation develops its own models, themes, and procedures.

4. Evaluation is used everywhere within the change process.

5. Evaluation is a key process in all purposeful activities in everyday life.

(Screven, 1998),

The science of evaluation can often be framed as radical skepticism. Many times there is a fine line between objectivity and bias (Scriven, 1998).

Scriven also discusses another huge dilemma of evaluation, the helper model versus the scientific model. The helper model occurs when evaluators feel that they have an active interest in the program’s success. This occurs when evaluators are involved in both a summative and formative manner, but their ability to stay unbiased is questionable. In the scientific model the evaluators are not actively involved with the
overall results of the project. Their role is solely to report on the facts. Their usefulness in adding to the formative conversation is therefore limited.

In 1972, Scriven developed the Pathway Comparison Model, which has nine steps. The first step is characterizing the program. Second is clarifying the conclusions wanted. Third, he said that one has to check for cause and effect relationships. Fourth, one needs to make a comprehensive check for consequences. Fifth, the process has to assess costs. Sixth, one must identify and assess program goals. Seventh, the evaluation must compare the program to critical competitors. Eighth, one must perform a needs assessment as a basis for judging the importance of the program, and last is formulating an overall judgment of the program. He found that this very timely and costly process was necessary in a good evaluation. Some aspects of these steps are found in virtually all evaluation models.

Kirkpatrick: Stepping Away From Strictly Empirical Research

Moving away from the strictly empirical research philosophy of evaluations comes Kirkpatrick (1959a, 1959b). He suggested that nothing can be completely proven, but one can show evidence of change. Kirkpatrick contended that it is possible to show evidence of change if people are honest, if other factors that may influence change are controlled for, and if pre-test/post-test evaluations are successfully administered. Additionally, behavior can be assessed by simply asking (or as evidenced by) what a person is doing differently. In this case observing behavioral or systematic changes is one of the key factors in determining if there has indeed been a positive change as a result of professional development.
In evaluating a training program, Kirkpatrick outlines a four-step approach or four levels of evaluation (Kirkpatrick, 1959a, 1959b, 1960a, 1960b, 1996, 1998, 2005, 2006). Level 1 is Reaction. This level measures how the participants feel about the program they attended; a positive experience creates the greatest benefit. Level 2 is Learning: to what extent did the trainees learn the information and skills presented in the program. Ideally, in Level 2 there is increased knowledge of concepts, skills, and/or attitudes that will improve job performance. Level 3 focuses on the extent the trainee’s job behavior has changed as a result of the training. This level is titled Behavior, and it deals with whether those having received the professional development did or did not use the skills they learned on the job. Results are the final level and they can be identified through a number of indicators such as: increased profits, quality and/or quantity of the program or change at the job, turnover, grievances, reduced costs, improved production, or even student achievement, etc.

Catalanello and Kirkpatrick (1968) did a study that examined the extent to which Kirkpatrick’s four evaluation steps were used. One hundred fifty-four firms from a variety of organizations throughout the U.S. and Canada made up the survey population. The majority of these were industrial goods companies. Out of the 154 firms that the Supervisory Inventories Human Relations (SIHR) questionnaire was sent to, only 47 returned the questionnaire, and only 35 used pretest and posttest measures. Forty of the 47 institutions measured trainee reactions, 21 measured behavior, while only 16 firms attempted to measure the results.

These results indicated that very few firms used systematic and objective measurements to examine professional development programs. Evaluations were largely
superficial and subjective with many evaluations assessing the reactions of their participants. Few companies were attempting to statistically establish that their programs were effective (Catalanello & Kirkpatrick, 1968).

Kirkpatrick’s model was not limited to evaluating training programs for industries; it has also been adapted by schools. Naugle, Naugle, and Naugle (2000) adopted this corporate training model and applied it to a secondary educational setting in Lecanto High School in Kentucky. They argued that as the expectations of society have increased and as society has begun to demand more from their schools, Kirkpatrick’s Model should be utilized to evaluate improvements. In their opinion, this model is a more effective tool to assess the accountability and quality of the professional development offered in schools.

The Kirkpatrick model was adopted by a few schools in Kentucky and a variety of industrial businesses that embraced the usefulness of having a simple model to provide a vocabulary for evaluation criteria. However, there were several cautions about utilizing Kirkpatrick’s model. These cautions suggest the assumptions of each stage are arranged in ascending value that are causally linked, and that there are positive inter-correlations within each stage that can lead to overgeneralizations of the findings, and a misinterpretation of the program’s effectiveness (Personal Psychology, 1984).

Stufflebeam: A Move Towards Constructivism

Stufflebeam (2007) suggested that the two major reasons to do evaluation are for accountability and to develop new knowledge that can and should be used to improve practice. He makes more of a switch and starts to place more emphasis on the gains made by the institution and less on the rigid experimental research design suggested by Stake.
During his work with evaluations Stufflebeam discussed both sociopolitical problems and technical problems that have to be overcome to achieve the objectives of any evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2000). He describes seven sociopolitical problems that have to be addressed to enhance the evaluation process. The first issue, and a very important starting point, is involvement. This focuses on getting the stakeholders involved in the process. Stufflebeam recommends that an advisory panel be formed before presenting a plan and that key players should participate in the design of the evaluation. This would give them the opportunity to address any issues with the research questions or the evaluation design. This could also be potentially helpful with the second issue, internal communication problems. This requires the evaluator(s) to understand what to present and to try to ensure that everyone involved understands his or her role. The third and fourth sociopolitical problems deal with internal and external credibility. Internal credibility is the extent to which personnel trust the evaluator(s). According to Stufflebeam, if the personnel do not trust the evaluator(s), the data that is gathered will not accurately reflect what actually occurred (that is it will not be internally valid). This is a different perspective than the one held by Scriven who suggests that by gaining the trust and respect of the personnel, the evaluators will bias themselves to the outcome. External credibility refers to the level of trust the outside system has in the evaluators. Stufflebeam and Scriven would agree that if there is poor external credibility, stakeholders are less likely to make the desired adjustments to the programs that are suggested by the data. The next sociopolitical problem mentioned is fidelity to the protocols. Lastly, public relations and the media, need to be managed in such a way that would increased opportunities while decreasing potential problems such as security of data (i.e., confidentiality, anonymity), protocol
(i.e., getting clearance), and public relations (i.e. keeping the public informed) (Stufflebeam, 2000).

There are nine technical problems that Stufflebeam addressed in *The Context, Inputs, Process, and Products (CIPP) Model for Program Evaluation* (2000). He stated that the whole evaluation process starts by identifying objectives and variables. The hard part of developing and deciding on objectives is to get personnel to define the objectives in behavioral terms. Next, the evaluation team and advisory panel need to agree on an investigative framework that would guide the evaluation. Stufflebeam also noted the difficulty in finding assessment tools that are valid and reliable. He also said that it is crucial to find the appropriate sample so that the findings of the evaluation can be generalized.

The next few technical problems deal with data issues. Data gathering is frequently reliant on others and outside factors such as what’s being gathered, where, and by whom. One example might be a school counselor trying to study the smoking and drinking habits of students in his or her school. If the students he/she is sampling are under 18 then parent permission would be needed for student participation, and this can be very difficult to obtain. Many problems also arise with data storage and retrieval. Data should be checked for accuracy and coded and stored properly. The article also recommends one check whether assumptions required for the data analysis will be met by the data and assessing the provisions that have been made for performing the actual data analysis.

All of this data analysis leads to reporting – among the last possible technical issues. With reporting, several decisions have to be made regarding what will be reported,
how it will be organized, what tables to include, how long it should be, etc. (Stufflebeam, 1971). Summarizing the technical adequacy of the design should be a part of the final steps. Some of the questions that need to be answered are: Have the variables been identified? Has the framework been chosen? Is the framework appropriate? Have sufficient provisions been made in collecting and storing data? Will the data yield reliable results? and, Is it useable information?

Two other sets of potential problems that Stufflebeam identified are legal issues and management issues. Legal problems may include how the client and evaluator roles are identified, the specification of products, projection of a delivery schedule, authority for editing evaluation reports, access to data, the release of evaluation reports, responsibility and authority, and the source and schedule of payments for the evaluation (Stufflebeam, 1971).

Possible management problems are:

1. The organizational mechanism - What organizational unit will be responsible for the evaluation?
2. Organizational Location of the Evaluator – Will the evaluator(s) report directly to the executive officer and/or directly to staff members?
3. Policies and Procedures – What is the correct protocol, if there is one?
4. Staffing Problems - Who is responsible for what?
5. Facilities – Is there office space?
6. Data Gathering Schedule – When are they to respond? What’s reasonable?
7. Reporting Schedule – When? How?
8. Training – One or more persons may need evaluation training.
9. **Installation of Evaluation** – Opportunity to install systematic evaluations into the system, if capable.

10. **Budget and Evaluation** – Does it reflect the evaluation design? Is it adequate?

Following the technical, sociopolitical, legal, and management issues are moral, ethical, and utility considerations. In other words, what is the practical use of the reports? Sometimes is necessary to take a philosophical stance. If it is necessary, which side will be assumed – is it value free, value based and/or value plural? On the same issue of values, will the evaluator(s)’ values conflict with the systems’ values? It can be difficult to keep judgments out of evaluations; however, reports generally should not present judgments, they should just report. Objectivity should remain constant and if one has lost his or her independent perspective then he/she should consider revising and/or seeking out evaluation help (Stufflebeam, 1971).

Evaluations should be done so that when completed there is some use for them. If there are no prospects for utility upon completion, then one must consider whether or not the evaluation is useful and if the potential payoff is worth all of the effort that would go into the evaluation? “Payoff” can be defined in many different ways but the good should outweigh the bad. These are very important questions that evaluators need to bear in mind.

In 1974, Stufflebeam reviewed meta-evaluations. He previously defined meta-evaluation as a procedure for describing an evaluation activity and judging it against a set of ideas concerning what constitutes good evaluation (Stufflebeam 1971). Stufflebeam stated that when conducting a meta-analysis, one needs to begin with an appropriate set
of criteria. A good place to start is by determining what is acceptable in research. Researchers must identify what information is needed to provide sufficient evidence of internal and external validity. In other words, is the research measuring what it purports to measure and can it be generalized. Not only does the research have to be reliable, but it also must be valid and useful to some audience. Other important characteristics of acceptable research include: objectivity, relevance, importance, cost effectiveness, timeliness, credibility and whether or not it answers important questions that the researcher was intending to answer.

There are certain premises to a meta-evaluation. Evaluation is an assessment of merit and serves as a decision making and/or accountability tool. Because of this, evaluations should assess goals, designs, implementation, and results. They should also serve all persons affected by the program being evaluated. It is a good idea to have the evaluation carried out by both insiders of the program and outsiders. Once again, it should also be technically adequate and cost effective.

Steps in a meta-evaluation process include delineating the information requirements, obtaining the needed information, and applying the obtained information. Objects of a meta-evaluation are the goals, or intentions of answering evaluation questions, designs, processes, and results. Stufflebeam (1971) suggests several designs:

- Design #1 for a pro-active assessment of evaluation goals – serves decision-making in evaluation work.
- Design #2 pro-active – efforts that identify and rank alternative evaluation designs. It may be necessary to invent a new design, - including matters of sampling, instrumentation, treatments, and data analysis.
• Design #3 pro-active assessment of the implementation of a chosen evaluation design – administrative and technical decisions to be made in operationalizing the chosen design. Characteristics of the design need to be explicated and potential problems in the design need to be projected.

• Design #4 pro-active assessment of the quality and use of evaluation results. Three things must be done: the objectives should be noted, the meta-evaluation criteria of technical adequacy, utility, and cost/effectiveness should be spelled out, and the intended users of the primary evaluation results should be designated.

• Design #5 retroactive assessment of evaluation studies – meta-evaluation of goals, designs, implementation, and results usually are combined into a single summative case study. Main step: determine the intents of the evaluator, what audience did he/she intend to serve, what evaluation design was chosen to achieve these goals? How did the evaluator intend to carry them out?

Guskey’s Model

The Model

Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model consists of five primary components. These components are: (Level 1) Satisfaction, (Level 2) Learning, (Level 3) Change in Practices, (Level 4) Administrative Support, and (Level 5) Student Performance (Guskey, 1998). As one can see, four of the five components are reflective of Kirkpatrick’s model. The only addition is Guskey’s fourth component, Administrative Support. That specific component was one of the major reasons why Guskey’s model was chosen for this research. It seems to be vitally important, as described by Guskey,
Stufflebeam, and Stake, to have the support of administrators behind any professional development (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Guskey Professional Development Evaluation Model

Guskey’s model brings two approaches for learning together in a cohesive manner. His model is a combination of mastery and cooperative learning, which results in “Cooperative Mastery Learning.” Cooperative mastery learning says that these two types of learning should not be separate but instead used together because they naturally complement one another. Commonalities between the two are that both have students compete with self and not each other. This means that there is no curve and no norm. Both can be individually adapted, and both see teacher(s) and student(s) as a team (Guskey, 2001).

Cooperative learning uses a format where about two to six students work in small, generally heterogeneous groups. It emphasizes mutual cooperation and support. Although it is used in variations, it’s important that five key points are present: positive interdependence, personal accountability, face-to-face positive interaction, social skills,
and group process (Guskey, 2002). Mastery learning is based on a one-on-one tutoring process and has three key points: feedback, corrective enrichment, and congruence among instructional components. With this type of learning there are clear expectations, activities that engage students, feedback and evaluation. Some argue that with mastery learning teachers spend more time with students but that nothing is really gained by this method. Furthermore, the idea is that it is not quantity but quality (time students are engaged) that makes a difference. However, over time the need for extra time diminishes and mastery learning is not much more expensive, with its benefits outweighing its negatives. Mastery learning is used in a variety of teaching settings such as school improvement programs. Guskey attempts to pull out the good from mastery learning to meld it with cooperative learning for a type of learning that is much more effective than either one by itself (Guskey, 2002).

In an article published in 2001, Guskey gave readers a little insight into why he developed his evaluation model. This article began with Guskey discussing his past teachers and experiences and unfair testing or tests that were made to “trick” students. He stated that he learned two things from those kinds of experiences: hard work does not pay off and teachers cannot be trusted. Luckily, teaching has much improved today.

Guskey decided to write about professional development and teacher change about a year after that journal article was published. The article presents a perspective on the natural change in attitude, beliefs, and learning outcomes for children when teacher professional development is successful. The article suggests that most programs fail because they do not take into account what motivates teachers and the process by which
change in teachers typically occurs (Guskey, 2002). Similar to students, teachers recognize the importance of development when they see results.

Like Kirkpatrick, Guskey believes that professional development should lead to change in the teachers’ classroom practices that lead to change in student learning outcomes, which then lead to change in beliefs and attitudes regarding improvement. The model suggests that beliefs and attitudes only change after outcomes show a change. Teachers’ attitudes did in fact improve after the results were positive (Guskey, 2002). Reminders from this body of knowledge are that change is gradual and difficult, teachers need feedback, and continued follow-up should be provided. These ideas are elaborated on in the discussion of Guskey’s five practice principles and his five levels of evaluation.

**Research Using Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluations Model**

Three school districts (urban, rural and suburban included) with 120 teachers, 46 male and 74 female, participated in a study regarding teacher efficacy (Guskey, 2001). All teachers participated in the same staff development program. The model focused on the context variables hypothesized to affect teacher efficacy. This studies indicate that the most powerful variable that accounted for the largest proportion of variance was teacher perceptions. With mixed results, some studies show that student performance outcomes influence teacher efficacy (Guskey, 2001.).

Results of Guskey’s research (2001) indicated that perceptions of efficacy differ depending upon the nature of the student outcome. The group of highly experienced teachers that were surveyed expressed significantly greater personal efficacy when the performance outcome was positive. It was discovered that teachers do appear to distinguish in their perceptions of efficacy between results with a single student and those
with a group of students. Further analysis revealed, however, that these perceptions differ significantly only when the performance outcome is negative. When poor performance was involved, teachers expressed less personal responsibility and efficacy for single students who do poorly than for results from a group or an entire class of students. Poor performance on the part of a single student was generally attributed to situational experiences outside of the teacher’s control. In conclusion it was discovered that the teachers’ affect, or feeling about teaching self-concept, were strongly related to their perceptions of personal efficacy for group results.

Findings from research done by Guskey (2001) offered a different, more specific reminder on how to evaluate one’s self as a teacher which may help both students and teachers identify those positive results necessary for supported change. Teachers should keep track of how many students miss certain questions on examinations. If more than half of the class misses a question, then it is worded wrong or they did not learn the material to begin with. Many teachers are shocked to know that they are not great judges of what is working. Guskey (2001) added that critics may say that not enough responsibility is on student. He agreed that some students do not put in the proper effort and some responsibility needs to be put on them. His idea to ameliorate this is to encourage more collaboration.

More collaboration between student and teacher leads to Guskey’s Five Practice Principles. The first principle is to depict classroom assessments as learning tools so that students feel that they are less like evaluations and more part of the instructional process. (No “tricking” involved here.) Guskey’s second principle is to regularly review assessment results because they can reveal instructional problems within the teaching.
Collaborating with other teachers is the third principle; shared strategies are good for teacher practice improvement. The fourth principle is to develop partnerships with central office personnel and outside experts who may be able to provide valuable information and who may have access to different resources. Lastly, the fifth principle is to take note of improvements. Recognizing success can generate more success (Guskey, 2001).

Guskey articulated these five principles and he also identified five levels of evaluation (2002). He claimed that his evaluation process was a systematic estimate of merit and worth and that each evaluation level builds on the other. The first evaluation level is participants’ reactions which asks, “Did participants like the experience and did the material make sense?” Participants’ reactions are usually measured at the end of a process in the form of a questionnaire. The next level looked at participants’ learning, which is defined as measurements of what is gained. This can be done through a paper-pencil assessment, portfolios, orally, or in another written form. Level 3 is about organizational support and change. These deals with the extent to which resources were made available, problems were addressed, and other matters such as school records, meeting minutes, etc. Level 4 is participants’ use of knowledge and skills. Basically, this level asks, “Did participants apply what they learned?” This can be measured by questionnaires, interview, and by video/audio means. The last level is then student learning outcomes – the goal from the beginning. This level asks, “Are student scores higher? Are they more confident?” Student records can be examined, interviews may be conducted, and even parents may be asked to evaluate the last level.

Guskey (2002) suggested some tips for these levels of evaluation. An innovative method for tackling an evaluation is to start backward by identifying what one wants at
the end. This “backwards design” was made popular by Wiggins and McTighe in their workbook, *Understanding by Design* (1998).

In the above-mentioned levels, this “backwards design approach” would consider student outcomes first. Also, gathering evidence using measures that are meaningful to stakeholders involved in the evaluation process is of great importance. Bear in mind that it is important to look for evidence not proof. Guskey also says it is important to know that breakdowns can occur at any level of the evaluation process, but they can be overcome.

In 2004, Guskey and Sparks wrote a paper on what to consider when evaluating staff development. This model describes the relationship between staff development, student outcomes, and external factors. It projected that content, plus quality, plus an organizational climate/culture would result in improvement. Not all program content is the same and not all of it is research-based, however, according to Guskey and Sparks, studies suggest that many factors are necessary for lasting improvement. These factors include a clear vision, goals, a multiyear process, and steady instructional leadership. In their paper, Guskey and Sparks also refer to many of the principles of evaluation mentioned previously.

Part of the evaluation guidelines that Guskey wrote about in 2001 and beyond have roots in his supervisory guidelines that he developed in 1991. He described five important guidelines. Guskey pointed out that change is an individual process so it is important to look beyond policy structures and look at the micro-level. Change brings anxiety and change is difficult, but also of importance is to think big, not small. Successful programs approach change in increments. Thinking big means to be ambitious
but make it happen in steps. One way to diminish anxiety is to work in teams. Teams encourage relationships and work to share tasks and responsibilities. Although teams are usually better, it is still important for individuals to feel that they have a say in things. Individual, professional feedback is crucial. Without any feedback regarding results, the desired outcomes may be abandoned or goals forgotten. If changes are to be sustained, feedback is very important. Lastly, it is important to have continued support and follow up help to provide guidance and direction toward intended goals. This guidance can be delivered in the form of coaching, technical feedback, or on the job assistance, to name a few. The guidelines seem obvious and they can make a difference between a program success or lack of success, but they are hardly ever put in place (Guskey, 1991).

Guskey also decided to do a comprehensive review of 13 different lists of the characteristics of professional development (2003). Most of the lists identified themselves as “research based,” but most were not rigorous investigations. He found that many of the characteristics were really ideas that were favored by the authors, or were simply their personal opinions. The top ten characteristics were:

1. Enhances teacher content and pedagogic knowledge.
2. Provides sufficient time and resources.
3. Promotes collaboration.
4. Includes procedures for evaluations.
5. Aligns with other reform initiatives.
7. Is school or site-based.
8. Builds leadership capacity.
9. Based on teachers’ identified needs.
10. Driven by analysis of student learning data.

The most frequently cited characteristic of professional development was enhancement of teachers’ content and pedagogical knowledge. Helping teachers to understand more deeply the content they teach and the ways students learn that content appears to be a vital dimension of effective professional development. However, so far, most studies focus only on math and science, ignoring other content areas.

Another frequent characteristic was time. Most lists mention provision of having sufficient time and other resources as essential. But research does not, so far, demonstrate that time makes that big of a difference. Another is collaboration. Most stated this as an important characteristic, but research also indicates that collaboration can block change just as easily as it can promote it. The previous list suggests professional development should happen on site but research also suggests that this does not make a difference. People tended to use only programs close to what they were already doing (Guskey, 2003).

In conclusion, this examination of the characteristics of professional development, suggests that there is no consensus on the effective characteristics of program development. Guskey’s (2003) analysis of the 13 lists suggests that the research to support characteristics for professional development is inconsistent and conflicting. He also states that he found the lists to be more opinion then empirically based. Professional development approaches may be too complicated to be in a “list.”

Desimone (2009) conducted further research into which components of evaluation models are critical for improving professional development. She conducted a Meta
Analysis of the components that were most used in evaluation models of professional development. Many of these components identified during her analysis are included in Guskey’s Model. A few of the more prevalent components that Desimone found were Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Practices and Student Achievement. An earlier study conducted by Mullens, Murnane and Willett (1996), also found a significant relationship between Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices for improving Student Achievement. Additionally, O’Donnell & White’s (2007) added in principal leadership and administrative support as critical components. Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model incorporated all of these components that were included in these studies.

Even though many evaluations are being conducted using Guskey’s model and others have found that some of the individual components were predictive of each other, no studies have been done to investigate the validity of the entire model. No studies that this researcher could find focused on the nomological net, the theoretical relationships between his components. As Stake suggests, one has to make sure that the instruments being used during the evaluation are reliable and valid. This should also hold true for any of the theoretical models that are being used for evaluating the process. Without this clear empirical proof that the model is valid and reliable, one has to be very careful when interpreting findings. Therefore, this study delves into the question of the reliability and validity of one of the more commonly used professional development evaluation model.
Summary

Chapter II, which is organized into three sections, describes why there is a need to evaluate professional development to improve teaching and learning, and it briefly describes evaluation models developed by Stake, Scriven, Kirkpatrick, and Stufflebeam.

The third section focuses on some of the components and research conducted by Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. This section also indicated the lack of empirical evidence and the need for validation of Guskey’s Model. That is precisely why it was chosen as the evaluation model to investigate in this study. This section explores the theoretical components of Guskey’s Model, and reviews previous evaluations of this model.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

Restatement of the Problem

In most evaluations using Guskey’s Professional Development Model, the model and its components are used as criterion variables. In this investigation the theoretical relationships of the components of Guskey’s Model are the independent variables and the dependent variable is the data from Reading First Ohio 2003 to 2007. Variables in this data set have been a priori identified as representative of specific components of Guskey’s Model. These variables were then used to determine if they are predictive of the nomological net represented by the Guskey Model.

Research Design

This investigation utilized an ex post facto research design with hypotheses and tests of alternative hypotheses (Newman, Newman, Brown, & McNeely, 2006; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). The validity of this design is increased by stating relevant alternative research hypotheses. According to Newman & Newman (1994), “ex post facto research with hypotheses and tests for alternative hypotheses is considerably more powerful in terms of internal validity than pre experimental, ex post facto designs with no hypotheses, and ex post facto designs with hypotheses” (p. 112). This is especially true
when testing a nomological net. In addition, Newman et al (2006) indicate that this type of research design has a potential of higher external validity when compared to quasi and true experimental designs.

Kerlinger and Lee (2000) have identified three weaknesses of ex post facto design. These weaknesses include the inability to manipulate the independent variable, the lack of power to randomize, and the risk of improper interpretation. The researcher’s lack of ability to control the independent variables due to ethical or convenience reasons only allows the researcher to demonstrate relationships and not to infer causation (Kazdin, 1992). However, when one is doing a validity study, such as testing the nomological net, there is no independent variable to manipulate and ex-post facto research design is one of the most efficient ways of conducting the investigation.

Selecting Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model

There were several reasons why Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model was selected for this study. Guskey’s model incorporates many of the previously mentioned concerns in evaluation that were addressed by Kirkpatrick, Scriven, Stufflebeam and Stake but it is anchored in educational settings, whereas the models developed by Scriven and Stufflebeam primarily focus on business and corporate settings. Those models are often not suitable for the unique world of education (Guskey, 1998). There are differences between teacher professional development models, specifically Guskey’s model, and those models oriented more toward businesses. The atmospheres are too different for there to be enough congruence in the evaluation process for businesses versus schools (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Holon, 1996). Additionally, this model was selected because of its frequent use in education, because teachers are able to
easily understand it, and because it was selected by Reading First Ohio as the most appropriate Professional Development (PD) evaluation model for the training of teachers, Data Managers, Literacy Coaches, and other Reading First personnel.

**Problem**

In most evaluations using Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, the model and its levels are used as the criterion variable (Guskey, 2001). In this investigation, it is the levels of the model that are being investigated to determine if their relationships are consistent with the nomological net represented by Guskey’s model. The data from Reading First Ohio, years 2003 to 2009, were used as the data source to test the hypothesized interrelationships represented by the nomological net. These variables were operationally defined and identified *a priori* as being representative of the specific levels that are present in the model.

**Data Sources**

The data for this research comes from the Ohio Department of Education and the school districts that participated in Reading First Ohio (RFO) between 2003 and 2009. In order for districts to be involved in Reading First they had to meet the requirements as specified by the Ohio Department of Education. Every district that met the achievement and financial requirements was invited to respond to the request for grant proposals sent out by the Ohio Department of Education. Districts had three opportunities to respond to the request.

The sample for this study included every student, teacher, principal, literacy specialist, resource coordinator and data manager involved in Reading First Ohio from 2003 to 2009. This encompasses 31 districts and 124 schools. There were 64,411
students that participated in RFO during this period. Out of this population, 2,364 were measured 12 times, 10,346 were measured at least 9 times, 25,399 were measured at least 6 times, and 52,323 were measured at least 3 times. These students ranged from kindergarten through 3rd grade. In addition, there were more than 1,000 teachers involved. It is important to note that as stipulated by ODE requirements, these were the lowest achieving and financial poorest districts in the state. The following instruments were used to collect the data on all levels of Guskey’s model.

**Instruments**

The instruments chosen for this study were selected by Reading First Ohio or created by the Reading First Ohio Center and Westat. The student achievement data was collected from three different instruments: the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS), the TerraNova (TN), and the Ohio Achievement Test (OAT) which is only administered to the students involved at the third grade level. Data about teachers, data managers, literacy specialist, and principals were collected from evaluations after the literacy specialist training and from the Westat surveys. Changes in classroom practices were collected using the Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (ELLCO) and from the Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC).

**Dynamic Indicators for Basic Early Literacy (DIBELS)**

Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) was created by Roland Good (2002). This test is used to assess the acquisition of early literacy skills from kindergarten through sixth grade (Good & Kaminski, 2002). This is a short one-minute fluency measure that monitors the development of the skills required to become literate. The test was administered to each student individually three times per year, with
each administration occurring within a two-week testing window. There are four basic developmental skills that this instrument assesses: Initial Sound Fluency (ISF), Phonemic Sound Fluency (PSF), Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF), and Oral Reading Fluency (ORF). The single probe reliability for the ISF ranged from a low of .61 to a high of .86 and was only used in Kindergarten. PSF had a reliability of .74 in kindergarten. In kindergarten the PSF ranged from a low of .86 to a high of .94. In first grade, the NWF was about the same with a reliability ranging from .83 to .94. Oral Reading Fluency started in first grade and continued through third grade. The lowest reported reliability was .92 with the highest equal to .97. Only on ORF is there test-retest reliability, which resulted in an estimated reliability of .97. In addition, both predictive and concurrent validity was estimated for the ORF. The estimate for predictive validity ranged from a low of .62 to a high of .72. Concurrent validity estimates ranged from a low of .67 to a high of .82, thus suggesting that this instrument is both valid and reliable (Betts, Good, Cummings, Williams, Hintze, & Ysseldyke, 2007).

**TerraNova (TN)**

The TerraNova was developed to provide achievement scores that are valid for most types of educational decision-making (CTB McaGraw-Hill, 2001). The test results include measurements of achievement for individual students related to a current national normative group. Progress can be tracked over years and across grades. The TerraNova can also be used in a criterion-referenced manner to measure gains in student academic strengths as well as to identify weaknesses in each of the content areas. This test can be used administratively to make programmatic decisions and assess overall class progress. Content validity was established by expert judges who compared the TerraNova content
with current classroom practices and with curricula that are used nationally. These expert judges stated that the assessment accurately represents the important educational objectives seen throughout the nation. The construct validity was approximated by reviewing the correlations between the TerraNova, the CTBS complete battery, and the TCS/2. The Reading Composite subscale and the other test correlations ranged from .56 to .80, with a total TCS/2 correlation of .72.

**Ohio Achievement Test (OAT)**

The Ohio Achievement Test (OAT) is a criterion referenced test that was created by the Ohio Department of Education to assess mastery of state specific standards. This test is first administered to students at the third grade level and therefore the only data collected was from third graders in RFO schools. There is no actual reported estimate of validity on this test, only that it was reported as valid by an expert judge committee (Personal communication with Paula Mahaley and Chad Richardson Data Manager, Office of Literacy Center for Curriculum and Assessment Ohio Department of Education, 2008). There is a yearly report on the reliability of the OAT produced by the Ohio Department of Education. From the onset of the development of this instrument the reliability has ranged from a .86 to a .92. The 2008 reliability was reported at a .90 (Office of Assessment, Ohio Department of Education).

**Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC)**

The Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC) was created by the Wisconsin Center for Educational Research (WCER) in 1995. The SEC is a reliable data collection tool that provides an objective method for analyzing the degree of alignment between instruction and state content standards. This is a self-reported on-line survey where
teachers at the end of the school year have a three-week window to log on and reflect on their teaching practices for that year (Blake, 2005). The reliability and validity for both the English Language Arts and the Math/Science section of the SEC were not well reported. There were several more studies that investigated the Math/Science section of the SEC since it was this instrument’s original focus. The English Language Arts section was not developed until 2002 and the standards were not mapped until 2003. There were expert judges that worked with the WCER and the Ohio Department of Education on aligning Ohio state standards to the SEC questions. There does not seem to be any reported internal reliability, test-retest or predictive validity estimates available for this instrument. This conclusion was achieved after contacting Chris Woolard, Director of the SEC project for ODE, Learning Points Associates, and John Smithson, Director of the SEConline, and the WCER. All reports indicate that there is high reliability and validity but no numbers are reported.

**Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (ELLCO)**

The Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (ELLCO) was created by the Educational Development Center, Inc. (2002). This observational field-test was designed to assess the effectiveness of professional development and teacher practices. Trained observers completed the three components of Literacy Environment Checklist, Classroom Observation with Teacher Interviews and Literacy Activities Rating Scale. This study utilized the Classroom Observations scoring as an indicator of classroom implementation and best practices. Identified teachers from kindergarten through third grade were observed in the fall and again in the spring. Scores were aggregated by grade level or by building per practices agreed upon as part of the grant administration. The
items that created the subscale of Classroom Observation resulted in a Cronbach’s Alpha of .90 which indicated very strong internal consistency. This subscale also showed moderate to high correlations to all of the other subscales (r = .034 to r = 0.65) (Smith & Dickinson, 2002).

Sample specific reliability estimates for the two subscales created by the ELLCO that were used in this study were calculated using Cronbach’s Alpha for three of the six years. This was done to assess the stability of the constructs by estimating the internal consistency of the overall subscales. The number of subjects utilized for this reliability estimate was based on the 124 schools that contained over 63,000 students. For all three years both subscales, the General Classroom Environment Scale and the Language, Literacy, and Curriculum Scale, were found to have high internal consistency. For both subscale the reliability improved for each of the years measured. The General Classroom Environment subscale started with a low of 0.895 during the 2004-2005 school year and had a high of 0.921 during the 2007-2008 school year. Likewise, the Language, Literacy, and Curriculum had a low reliability of 0.909 during the 2004-2005 school year, and a high of 0.949 during the 2007-2008 school year (See Table 1).
Table 1

Cronbach’s Alpha Internal Reliability Estimates of The ELLCO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Classroom Environment (2004-2005)</td>
<td>0.895</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language, Literacy, and Curriculum (2004-2005)</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Classroom Environment (2005-2006)</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language, Literacy, and Curriculum (2005-2006)</td>
<td>0.948</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Classroom Environment (2007-2008)</td>
<td>0.921</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language, Literacy, and Curriculum (2007-2008)</td>
<td>0.949</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Only 3 years of ELLCO data were made available.*

**Westat.**

Westat is the independent evaluation firm hired by the Ohio Department of Education to serve as the external evaluators for Reading First Ohio. There were several surveys and instruments developed by Westat to assess changes in Teacher Knowledge, changes in Teacher Practices, teachers’ view on Administrative Support, and the overall buy-in by administration and teachers. Data on reliability and validity on these instruments were tested utilizing Rosh Modeling. These results indicated that the instruments had high reliability.

**Data Collection Procedures**

This study used the Reading First Ohio (RFO) data that has been collected from the various organizations involved in the implementation of RFO. The student achievement, evaluations of professional development, changes in teacher knowledge and practices were all collected through a joint effort between the Reading First Ohio Center and the Ohio Department of Education. In addition, satisfaction surveys and classroom
and administrative support data were collected by the Reading First Ohio Center and Westat, the external evaluation firm hired by the Ohio Department of Education to evaluate the effectiveness of Reading First Ohio. Every student, teacher, literacy specialist, data manager, and principal that attended or worked in a Reading First Ohio school is included in this study. For schools to qualify for Reading First Ohio they had to be in the bottom 60% of the state schools, both financially and academically. Every participating district signed an agreement with the state to collect ongoing data about the imbedded professional development. In addition, the schools were required to send the Ohio Department of Education student test scores four times a year. One hundred percent compliance with this process was required by ODE or the districts ran the risk of losing their RFO funding. To protect the confidentiality of the students, the state student identifier (SSID) was used in place of names. This SSID is a number that follows the student anywhere within the state. In other words, if a student starts in one RFO district and moves to another RFO district, the test scores from the new district are assigned to that student. However, because there was no way to protect teacher confidentiality, all teacher level data were aggregated by grade for each of the 124 RFO schools.

**Statistical Analysis**

Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized in this study. The research hypotheses were tested using correlations, multiple linear regression, and hierarchical linear modeling. To test the overall fit of the model the Binomial Goodness of Fit Indices was used to test the number of correct paths predicted by the model.
Principal Component Analysis

The first stage in testing the specific research hypotheses utilized Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to create factor constructs that reflected the constructs theorized in Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. These constructs were then used to test specific hypotheses. In this study, Principal Component Analysis was used to identify possible relationships among variables. It is important to note that the production of a factor through PCA, in and of itself, is not necessarily meaningful (Newman et al., 2006). A factor is only meaningful if it can be interpreted. Factor rotation enhances interpretation (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Newman et al., 2006; Rummel, 1970; Stevens, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The varimax method of orthogonal rotation is a commonly used technique that was employed in this study. This method attempts to produce either a high or near zero factor loading, making the factor easier to interpret. That is, it rotates towards a simple structure.

Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression (MLR) was used in analyzing the variance when predicting the criterion variable from the treatment variable, while controlling for (covarying) variables to test the possible alternative explanations for the alternative hypotheses. MLR is the most general case of the least squares solution, and it can be used any time any special case of the least sums of squares is used. MLR was selected because it is more flexible than traditional analysis of variance. With MLR one can write models that reflect the specific research questions being asked. This makes every test of significance a test of a specific hypothesis. In addition, Newman et al. (2006) and Pedhazur (1982) pointed out that with MLR one can test relationships between
continuous variables, categorical variables, interaction between continuous and
categorical variables, as well as categorical – categorical interaction and continuous-
continuous interaction.

Hierarchal Linear Modeling (HLM)

One of the historical problems with analyzing program effectiveness, or factors
that predict achievement in schools, is the structure of the data. If one has student level
data, classroom level data and school level data, this is an organizational or nested
design. In this study, students are nested within classrooms which are then nested in
schools. There are several researchers that have discussed issues with nested designs.
But what is a nested design? According to Hayduk (1996) and Pedhazur and Schmelkin
(1991) a nested design is when one has a model where one or more of the variables are
constrained (having them equal 0). Hair, Black, Anderson, and Tatham (2006) state:

A model is nested within another model if it contains the same number of
constructs and can be formed from the other model by altering the relationships.
The most common form of nested models occurs when a single relationship is
added to or deleted from another model, thus, the model with fewer estimated
relationships is nested within the more general model. (p. 709)

In other words if one has two factors (A and B), and B is nested within A (B/A), then
every level of B does not appear with every level of factor A (Lomax, 1992; Timm,
2002). Raudenbush and Bryk (2002) stated that “many, if not most, social science data
have this nested or hierarchical structure” (p.xx).

To handle the specific task of managing the nested design data, Multilevel
Modeling (HLM) is considered to be the most effective statistical technique (Raudenbush
The organizational units in this study, such as student, class and school, are represented in HLM by their own sub-models. “Each sub-model represents the structural relationship occurring at that level and the residual variability at that level” (Raudenbush, Bryk, Cheong, & Congdon, 2001). The representation of the residual variability at the appropriate levels involves calculating the appropriate error term whether it is fixed, mixed or random. This was the breakthrough that was a result of the EM Algorithm. This allowed the computer to calculate error terms for not only fixed effects, but also for random and mixed effects, which was previously not possible. In addition, traditional models do not allow intercepts and slopes to differ across classes and schools (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). By utilizing this technique, researchers do not violate the assumption of independence of measurement since each level of the interaction is accounted for. One also does not have to worry about aggregation errors that might occur when grouping at the class or school level.

The HLM models were written to reflect relevant research questions pertaining to predicting student achievement scores or growth over time. This is critical since the students are nested within school level structures. HLM was used to test research questions 3 and 7, both of which contain this nested structure. In addition to answering the relevant research questions, the models presented below are in hierarchical order. That is, the first model is an unconditional model in that it does not have any mediating or moderating variables in it. This allows one to compare the proportion of variance explained by the subsequent models that have mediating and moderating variables in them to the original model that only controls for individual differences. The Level 1 model is the student level data, where the Level 2 model is the building level data.
This unconditional model contains only student level information while it controls for different starting places for schools. The slopes for schools are fixed so that one cannot test for student interaction across schools. The error terms that are not bolded indicate that the slopes for different buildings are fixed. That is, the slopes are not allowed to vary across schools.

**Level 1**

\[ \text{Achievement}_{ijk} = \pi_{1ijk} + S - \text{Factor-1}_{j} + \pi_{2ijk} S - \text{Factor-2}_{j} + \pi_{3ijk} S - \text{Factor-3}_{j} + \epsilon_{ijk} \]

**Level 2**

\[ \pi_{0jk} = \beta_{0ok} + r_{0jk} \]
\[ \pi_{1jk} = \beta_{1ok} + r_{1jk} \]
\[ \pi_{2jk} = \beta_{2ok} + r_{2jk} \]
\[ \pi_{3jk} = \beta_{3ok} + r_{3jk} \]

The second model contains student level information and school level information. This model is not only investigating the student level variables that predict Achievement Scores, but it is also looking at how building intercepts and building level variables interact with student level principal components. At this level there is a two-way interaction between student level principal components and building level principal components. This model still controls for school differences but does not test the interaction of school effects with the teacher level principal components, nor the school principal components with student level principal components. In other words, the school slopes are invariant. The error terms at the school level that are not bolded indicate that the slopes for different schools are fixed.
Level 1

Achievement_{ijk} = \pi_{0jk} + \pi_{1jk} \cdot \text{S-Factor-1}_{ijk} + \pi_{2jk} \cdot \text{S-Factor-2}_{ijk} + \pi_{3jk} \cdot \text{S-Factor-3}_{ijk} + \epsilon_{ijk}

Level 2

\pi_{0jk} = \beta_{00k} + \beta_{01k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_1jK) + \beta_{02k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_2jK) + r_{0jk}

\pi_{1jk} = \beta_{10k} + \beta_{11k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_1jK) + \beta_{12k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_2jK) + r_{1jk}

\pi_{2jk} = \beta_{20k} + \beta_{21k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_1jK) + \beta_{22k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_2jK) + r_{2jk}

\pi_{3jk} = \beta_{30k} + \beta_{31k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_1jK) + \beta_{32k} \cdot (T\_Factor\_2jK) + r_{3jk}

Level 1

Achievement_{ijk} is the score for student i in class j within school k

\pi_{0jk} is intercept for the student i in class j within school k.

\pi_{1jk} is the standardized Beta Weight (slope) for person i on Student Principal Component -1 in class j within school k

\text{S-Factor-1}_{ijk} is the Student Principal Component 1 for person i in class j within school k

\pi_{2jk} is the standardized Beta Weight (slope) for person i on Student Principal Component -2 in class j within school k

\text{S-Factor-2}_{ijk} is the Student Principal Component 2 for person i in class j within school k

\pi_{3jk} is the standardized Beta Weight (slope) for person i on Student Principal Component -3 in class j within school k

\text{S-Factor-3}_{ijk} is the Student Principal Component 3 for person i in class j within school k
\( \theta_{ijk} \) is the error for person \( i \) in class \( j \) within school \( k \).

**Level 2**

- \( \beta_{o0k} \) is predicting the intercept for the Level 1 model (\( \pi_{o0j} \)) for student \( j \) in school \( k \).
- \( \beta_{10k} \) to \( \beta_{30k} \) is the intercept predicting \( \pi_{1jk} \) to \( \pi_{3jk} \) for student \( j \) in school \( k \).
- \( \beta_{01k} \) to \( \beta_{31k} \) is the Standardized Beta Weight for Knowledge Principal Component 1 for teacher \( j \) in school \( k \).
- \( \beta_{02k} \) to \( \beta_{32k} \) is the Standardized Beta Weight for Teacher Practices Principal Component 2 for teacher \( j \) in school \( k \).
- \( r_{0jk} \) to \( r_{3jk} \) is the for class/teacher \( j \) within school \( k \).

**Binomial Index of Model Fit.**

The Binomial Index of Model Fit is a binomial test which requires that the correct paths be converted into categories. The significance of any given path in a model can be classified as either being supported by the data or not. The classification of categories can be created in three different ways. According to Fraas and Newman (1994), there are three possible methods for classifying these categories. First, and the least powerful, is to examine the direction of the relationship in a model. Second, is to test to see if the relationship was statistically significant. Lastly, one can test to see if the relationship reaches an a priori effect size. For the purpose of this study, a combination of the directionality and statistical significance methods were used.

There are two major reasons why the Binomial Index of Model Fit was selected over other possible methods of goodness-of-fit tests. The most popular goodness-of-fit tests, like chi-square and the Bentler-Bonnett Normed Fit Index, can be affected by sample size (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988). The other problem with these goodness-
of-fit measures is that they measure the overall goodness-of-fit to the model. In other words, how well can one reproduce the overall correlation matrix. It is possible that one or more of the paths indicated in the model might not be significant and the overall model still has a good fit score. The Binomial Index Model of Fit is not affected by sample size but instead depends on the number of paths being tested in any given model. In addition, every path is tested to see if it is statistically significant in the stated direction. The overall significance of the model is then tested by counting the number of correct paths and comparing it to the total number of paths in the model. This technique was used to test research Hypothesis 5 because it looked at the overall goodness of fit of the model across different demographic variables.

**Power and Reliability Analysis**

A power analysis was calculated to determine if the sample size was sufficient to detect relationships at small, medium and large effect sizes. The sample size in this research varied greatly depending on whether the unit of analysis is at the student level or school level. In this research, to detect a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$) (Cohen, 1977; McNeil, Newman, & Kelly, 1996), an N of approximately 75 was needed for an alpha level of .05 and power of 80. However, the ability to replicate is even more important than power. As suggested by Posavac (2002), and Newman, McNeil, and Fraas (2004), significance levels and even effect size are less meaningful to practitioners and policy makers than is replicability. Even though replicability can be estimated from the statistical probability of a test, there is considerable difference in the interpretation. For example a p-value of .05 will only replicate 50% of the time with degrees of freedom of at least 8, and a p-value of .01 will replicate at the between 73% and 84% of the time.
depending on degrees of freedom. It is the ability to replicate the findings that allows one to make decisions that will more likely result in consistent results. Therefore, one has to be more sensitive of the p-value to get a better estimate of the replicability at the specified alpha-level.

**Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model**

Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model (2000 (Figure 3), as graphically represented below, demonstrates the relationships that are assumed to exist between his five levels/components. These relationships form the basis for all of the hypotheses that were tested in this research.

**Figure 3.** Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model (2001)

**Derivation of General Research Hypotheses and Specific Research Hypotheses**

As one can see by examining Guskey’s model, the derivations of General Research Hypotheses 1 through 7 represent the theoretical relationships proposed by the model itself. For Guskey’s model to be viable, one would expect these relationships to be invariant.
General Research Hypotheses

1. Satisfaction (Level 1) of Guskey’s Model predicts Teacher Knowledge (Level 2).
   
   **Full Model:** \( \text{Knowledge} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Satisfaction}) + e \)
   
   **Restricted Model:** \( \text{Knowledge} = \beta_0 + e \)

2. Satisfaction (Level 1) and Knowledge (Level 2) of Guskey’s Model predict Teacher practices (Level-3).
   
   **Full Model:** \( \text{Practices} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Satisfaction}) + \beta_2(\text{Knowledge}) + e \)
   
   **Restricted Model:** \( \text{Practices} = \beta_0 + e \)

3. Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices (Level-2 & 3) predict Growth in Student Achievement (Level 5).

   **Level 1**
   
   \( \text{Achievement}_{ijk} = \pi_{0ijk} + \pi_{1ijk}(\text{Time}) + e_{ijk} \)

   **Level 2**
   
   \( \pi_{0ijk} = \beta_{00k} + \beta_{01k}(\text{Knowledge})_{ijk} + \beta_{02k}(\text{Practice})_{r0jk} \)

4. The operationally defined Student Gain variables and the Teaching and Administrative Support variables reflect the interrelationship of the levels, as hypothesized by Guskey’s Model. (Simple Correlation)

5. There is a good overall Goodness-of-Fit estimate for the components of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, as estimated by the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index.

6. There is a significant interaction between Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice.
Full Model:

\[
Teacher\_Practice = \beta_0 + \beta_1(Satisfaction) + \beta_2(Knowledge) + \\
\beta_3(Satisfaction^{* Knowledge}) + e
\]

Restricted Model:

\[
Teacher\_Practices = \beta_{01} + \beta_1(Satisfaction) + \beta_2(Knowledge) + e
\]

7. Administrative Support accounts for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement when controlling for the mediating variables of Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices.

Level 1

\[
Achievement_{jk} = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(Knowledge - 1_{ijk}) + \pi_{2j}(Satisfaction_{jk}) + \pi_{3j}(Practice_{jk}) + e_{ijk}
\]

Level 2

\[
\pi_{0j} = \beta_{00j} + \beta_{01j}(Admin\_Support_{jk}) + \beta_{02j}(Knowledge - 1_{ijk}) + \beta_{03j}(Satisfaction_{jk}) + r_{0jk}
\]

\[
\pi_{1j} = \beta_{10j} + \beta_{11j}(Admin\_Support_{jk}) + \beta_{12j}(Knowledge - 1_{ijk}) + \beta_{13j}(Satisfaction_{jk}) + r_{1jk}
\]

Variable List.

Following is a list of how the variables were coded in this investigation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coding Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>(Females=0, Males=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>(Not=0, Yes=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>(Not=0, Yes=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>(Not=0, Yes=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>(Not=0, Yes=1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>(Not=0, Yes=1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Asian (Not=0, Yes=1)

Other (Not=0, Yes=1)

DIBELS Continuous

TerraNova Continuous

OAT Continuous

Teacher Satisfaction Survey (Westat) Continuous

Teacher Satisfaction Survey (RFOC) Continuous

ELLCO Continuous

SEC Continuous

Administrative Support Continuous

Type of School

Urban (No=0, Yes=1)

Suburban (No=0, Yes=1)

Rural (No=0, Yes=1)

Cohort Continuous

Summary

Details regarding the methodology and research design of this study have been presented in this chapter. There is almost no previous research in the area of professional development evaluations models that attempts to validate the internal constructs by assessing the nomological net. Therefore, the focus of this ex post facto study was to develop and validate Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. This research was conducted by collecting multiple measurements across Guskey’s five
constructs. Full and restricted multiple linear regression models, HLM and the Binomial Goodness-of-Fit Index were used to test the seven research hypotheses and to determine whether the continual use of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model is prudent, or if it should be replaced by a model that has empirical evidence to support its nomological network.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Chapter IV, which is organized into four sections, presents the results of this research. The first section contains the descriptive statistics, which includes the means, standard deviations, and frequencies. In the second section, factor analysis describes the factors that emerged for Administrative Support, Teacher Knowledge, and Teacher Practices. The third section, Primary Analyses, answers the seven overarching research questions posed in this study. This chapter concludes with a fourth section that presents a summary of the research results.

Data Preparation and Preliminary Analyses

Data Merging and Databases Screening

Prior to any analyses data were collected from databases at the Ohio Department of Education, Westat, and the Reading First Ohio Center. These archival databases were then entered into SPSS version 18 (PASW 18) and merged. Since the unit of analysis in this investigation varied depending on if the analysis were testing student outcomes or school changes, several databases had to be created. An additional complication was that at the student level, depending on the test, each student was measured either once a year or three times a year. This added complexity because the
data had to be stacked in order to run the Hierarchical Linear Regression Growth Models. This resulted in the four different databases that were created for these analyses.

The first database was called Student Stacked Time (SST) and included all of the DIBELS measures that were given three times a year. The second database was Student Stacked Year (SSY) and it included the OAT and TerraNova tests that were given to the students one time per year. The next database was the school aggregates. This database included the average ELLCO, Westat, SEC and Reading First Ohio Center data aggregated for each of the 124 schools. Lastly, the District Level Database was constructed for information that only resides at a district level. This mostly pertained to stability of key district personnel, which is information that relates to Administrative Support.

**Databases Screening**

During the six years of data collection, 63,441 participants were measured up to 12 times on the DIBELS at the student level. Any missing data was left blank and no data imputations were conducted. There were no outliers and the residuals in the analyses were normally distributed so no transformations were required.

**Descriptive Statistics**

The descriptive statistics for this research are reported in three stages. The first stage reports the demographic statistics for the student level data. The second stage reports the student achievement across the DIBELS, TerraNova and the Ohio Achievement Test (OAT) for all six years of the study. The third and final section reports the descriptive statistics on the building level data.
**Demographic statistics for student level data.** Table 2 includes the descriptive statistics for the 63,441 student participants that were included in this study. Of that, 30,865 were females (48.7%) and 32,559 (51.3%) were males. The largest racial/ethnic group was African American (46.2%) and the second largest group was White (41.7%). Only 6.5% were Hispanics and 5.1% were reported as being mixed. Additionally, 10.7% of the students were reported to be disabled and only 2.7% were Limited English Proficient (LEP). The majority (71.6%) of the students were financially disadvantaged.
Table 2

*Demographic Statistics on the Student Level Data*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30865</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32559</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>29308</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>4109</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>3230</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>26426</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disabled</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not</td>
<td>51900</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>6188</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited English Proficiency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not</td>
<td>61615</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>1720</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically Disadvantaged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not</td>
<td>17568</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>44187</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Descriptive statistics for student achievement.** The descriptive statistics for student achievement across the six-year span was measured using the DIBELS, TerraNova and the Ohio Achievement Test (OAT). The DIBELS was reported three times a year for all six years at equal intervals. Both the TerraNova and the OAT were reported one time each year for the six years. The DIBELS is reported in terms of how many standard deviations the score of the student was away from the benchmark. On average, students in Year 1 started at -0.56 standard deviations below the theoretical benchmark. However, an analysis of the data over the six years reflected a positive linear growth trend. At the end of the sixth year the average student was 0.07 standard deviations above the benchmark, representing an average student growth of +0.63 (See Figure 4 and Table 3).

![DIBELS Linear Trend](image)

**Figure 4: DIBELS Linear Growth Trend**
Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics on Student Achievement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>DIBELS 1</th>
<th>DIBELS 2</th>
<th>DIBELS 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>13533</td>
<td>14414</td>
<td>14684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>17960</td>
<td>17779</td>
<td>17647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>23751</td>
<td>23701</td>
<td>22655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 4</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>21014</td>
<td>22381</td>
<td>22024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 5</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10643</td>
<td>10745</td>
<td>10785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.63</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 6</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>13305</td>
<td>13465</td>
<td>13514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Both the TerraNova and the OAT also showed positive growth over the six years. The TerraNova scores were reported as the reading composite national percentile. The average student scored at the 42.53% in 2004 and about 10% higher in 2009, at 52.3%. The OAT scores were reported as total scale scores. A score of 400 is considered proficient in the state of Ohio. In 2004 the average score was 398.09. Five years later the average score was 406.57, representing a gain of more than eight points. It should be noted that during the same six years the overall State of Ohio scores on the OAT fell slightly (See Table 4 and Figure 5 and 6).

**Table 4**

*TerraNova and OAT Average Achievement Score form 2004-2009*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>10549</td>
<td>11266</td>
<td>15372</td>
<td>14924</td>
<td>5177</td>
<td>6378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>42.53</td>
<td>45.67</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>48.57</td>
<td>51.46</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td>27.62</td>
<td>27.18</td>
<td>27.82</td>
<td>27.99</td>
<td>29.16</td>
<td>28.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAT</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4027</td>
<td>4656</td>
<td>5939</td>
<td>4837</td>
<td>2790</td>
<td>3504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>398.09</td>
<td>402.59</td>
<td>401.85</td>
<td>405.94</td>
<td>408.46</td>
<td>406.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.39</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>28.15</td>
<td>29.49</td>
<td>26.77</td>
<td>28.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Descriptive statistics on the building level data. The last descriptive section reports the school level data on the 124 Ohio schools that participated in this study. On average, the principals changed 62.41% of the time over the six-year span. Some of the schools had as many as four principal changes during that time. About 54.89% of the schools and districts also reported having Superintendent changes during the years. Overall, 84.83% of the buildings reported implementing Reading First Ohio (RFO) and
78.15% of the teachers reported they implement RFO. Almost 76.95% of the principals were seen by the district coordinators as supportive of Reading First and 38.88% of the principals did regular classroom observations (walk-throughs). Teacher Practices alignment, as measured by the SEC, had an average alignment score of 53.50, which indicated that teacher’s practices were aligned with grade level expectations only 53% of the time. The ELLCO Growth, which reported teacher practices, indicated that on average there was a .19 gain in the ELLCO scores. The average program satisfaction as reported on the Westat teacher and principal surveys was high, with 89.51% reporting being satisfied by the ongoing professional development (See Table 5 & 6).

**Table 5**

**Percent of Building Personnel**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% Principal Change</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>400.00</td>
<td>62.41</td>
<td>88.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Superintendent Change</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>52.89</td>
<td>50.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Building Implementation</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>84.83</td>
<td>20.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Principal Support</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>75.95</td>
<td>26.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Teacher Implementation</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>78.15</td>
<td>22.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Walk Through</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>38.88</td>
<td>48.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC Alignment Totals</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>23.11</td>
<td>68.04</td>
<td>53.50</td>
<td>8.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLCO Growth</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>63.75</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>89.51</td>
<td>8.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6

*Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Knowledge and Practices*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Walk Through</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>38.88</td>
<td>48.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC Alignment Totals</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>23.11</td>
<td>68.04</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>8.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLCO Growth</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>63.75</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>89.51</td>
<td>8.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Phase I: Factor Analysis**

**Principal Component Analysis**

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to create the underlying factors identified by Guskey’s model. This analysis was conducted with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sample adequacy for the analysis, (KMO = .64). According to Field (2009), this is reported as adequate since it and all of the individual KMOs were above the minimum requirement of .5. Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2$ (82) = 229.624, p <0.001) also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for the PCA. An initial analysis was then run to obtain eigenvalues for each of the components in the data. Three components emerged with eigenvalues over Kasier’s criterion of 1. These components explained 64.09% of the variance. The scree plot also indicated justification for retaining the three factors. Given the consistency between the scree plot and Kaiser’s criterion on the three components, this number of components was retained in the final analysis. Table 7 and
Figure 7 show the factor loadings after rotations and the scree plot. The components were named: Component 1 - Teacher Knowledge, Component 2 - Administrative Support and Component 3 - Teacher Practices.

**Table 7**

**Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Teacher Knowledge</th>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Teacher Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEC Alignment Totals</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Teacher Implementation</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Building</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Walk Through</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Principal Support</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Superintendent Change</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Principal Change</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.607</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLCO Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigen Values</td>
<td>2.553</td>
<td>1.548</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>31.909</td>
<td>19.345</td>
<td>12.837</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Factor loadings over .4 appears in bold and absolute loadings of less than .2 were suppressed*
Phase 2: Analysis of Research Questions

This section reviews the statistical results and presents the findings for the research hypotheses in table form. All seven of the general research hypotheses are reported individually.

General Hypothesis 1 (GH1)

The first research hypothesis states that Teacher Satisfaction positively predicts the Teacher Knowledge component. This hypothesis was significant with an $R^2 = 0.084$, $F_{1,81} = 7.395$, and a $p = 0.008$, indicating that there is a significant relationship between Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge (See Table 8).
### Table 8

**Relationship Between Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>433.526</td>
<td>70.619</td>
<td>6.139</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.814</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>2.719</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $F_{1,81} = 7.395$ with an $R^2 = 0.084$ and a $p = 0.008$. This analysis was computed at the school level.

**General Hypothesis 2 (GH2)**

The second research hypothesis states that Teacher Satisfaction (Level 1) and Teacher Knowledge (Level 2) predict Teacher Practices (Level 3). This hypothesis was found to be significant with an $F_{2,80} = 4.376$, $p = 0.016$, accounting for 9.9% of the variance. Both Satisfaction and Knowledge accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Teacher Practices, with a $p = 0.011$ and $p = 0.037$, respectively (See Table 9).

### Table 9

**Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge Predicting Teacher Practices**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>93.024</td>
<td>13.661</td>
<td>6.809</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>2.590</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Knowledge</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>2.117</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $F_{2,80} = 4.376$ with and $R^2 = 0.099$ and a $p = 0.016$. This analysis was computed at the school level.

**General Hypothesis 3 (GH3)**

The third research hypothesis states that Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices (Levels 2 & 3) positively predict growth in Student Achievement (Level 5). This hypothesis was significant with Teacher Knowledge and Practice accounting for a
significant proportion of variance in predicting Student Growth over time ($\chi^2_{\text{change}}(2) = 739.7, p<0.001$). The $\chi^2_{\text{change}}$ was calculated by taking the unconditional $\chi^2 = 517,626.31$ with a df=41,804 and subtracting the conditional $\chi^2 = 516,886.6054$ with a df=41,802 [$\chi^2_{\text{change}} = (\chi^2_{\text{Old}} - \chi^2_{\text{New}})$ with a (df$_{\text{Old}}$ - df$_{\text{New}}$)]. In addition, Teacher Practices accounted for a significant proportion of the unique variance in predicting the slope of Student Achievement growth over time ($t=3.092, p=0.002$) (See Tables 10 & 11).

**Table 10**

*Unconditional Model with Student Achievement Growth Over Time (HLM)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effects</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-0.421</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>-62,965</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slope Time</td>
<td>0.0153</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>19.246</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 41,802 students were measured up to 12 times to create this growth model.
Table 11

Conditional Model with Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices Accounting for A Significant Proportion of the Variance in Predicting Student Achievement Growth Over Time (HLM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effects</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercepts</td>
<td>-0.833</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-15</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Slope</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>0.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercepts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Knowledge</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>19.24</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Practices</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>3.947</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slopes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Knowledge</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.00016</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>0.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Practices</td>
<td>0.00284</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
<td>3.092</td>
<td>41802</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 41,802 students were measured up to 12 times to create this growth model. $\chi^2_{\text{change}}(2) = 739.7$, $p<0.001$.

General Hypothesis 4 (GH4)

The fourth General Hypothesis states that the operationally defined Teacher Satisfaction, Teacher Knowledge, Teaching Practices, Administrative Support variables, and Student Achievement reflect the interrelationship of the levels, as hypothesized by Guskey’s Model. Teacher Satisfaction (Level 1) does significantly predict Teacher Knowledge (Level 2) with an $r=0.289$ and a $p<0.001$. Teacher Knowledge (Level 2) does
not significantly predict Teacher Practice (Level 3) with an $r=0.056$ and $p>0.05$. There is not a significant relationship between Teacher Practices (Level 3) and Administrative Support (Level 4) with an $r=176$ and $p>0.05$. There are significant relationships between the majority of the student achievement data aggregated at the student level. The DIBELS is correlated with all of Guskey’s Levels at the $p<0.01$, except for Teacher Satisfaction (Level 1). The same trend also holds true for the TerraNova and the OAT, with the addition that Teacher Practices are also not significantly correlated with these achievement measures when aggregated at the building level (See Table 12).

**Table 12**

*Correlation Between All Levels of Guskey’s Model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Practices</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>TerraNova</th>
<th>DIBELS</th>
<th>OAT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practices</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.289**</td>
<td>.279**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TerraNova</td>
<td>.353**</td>
<td>.616**</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIBELS</td>
<td>.342**</td>
<td>.745**</td>
<td>.323**</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.739**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAT</td>
<td>.493**</td>
<td>.440**</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.690**</td>
<td>.442**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). These correlations are at the building level**

**General Hypothesis 5 (GH5)**

General Hypothesis 5 states that there is a good overall Goodness of Fit estimate for the components of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, as estimated by the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index. All of the theoretically-proposed
paths were in the predicted direction (seven out of seven). The likelihood of this occurring by chance is less than one time in a thousand (p<0.01), therefore supporting the overall fit of the model. Additionally, four of the seven paths were also independently significant.

**General Hypothesis 6 (GH6)**

The sixth General Hypothesis states that there is a significant interaction between Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice. This hypothesis was found to be significant, F_{2,79} =9.603  with an R^2_{\text{changed}}=0.098 and a p=0.003, accounting for 9.8% of the total variance in Teacher Practices (See Table 13). This suggests that teachers who were not satisfied with their professional development scored lower on Teacher Practices regardless of their Knowledge level. Whereas, the teachers that had higher satisfaction with the professional development scored higher on Teacher Practices as their Knowledge level increased (See Figure 8).

![Interaction of Satisfaction and Knowledge when Predicting Teacher Practices](image)

**Figure 8. Interaction between Satisfaction and Knowledge when predicting Teacher Practices**
Table 13

Interaction Between Teacher Knowledge and Satisfaction in Predicting Teacher Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Restricted</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>93.024</td>
<td>13.661</td>
<td>6.809</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>2.117</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.288</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.287</td>
<td>2.590</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>244.277</td>
<td>50.506</td>
<td>4.837</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>4.131</td>
<td>3.274</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>1.690</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td>1.683</td>
<td>3.638</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge *</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>3.752</td>
<td>3.099</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $F_{2,79} = 9.603$ with and $R^2_{\text{change}} = 0.098$ and a $p=0.003$

General Hypothesis 7 (GH7)

The last research hypothesis states that Administrative Support accounts for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement Growth, over and above what can be explained by Teacher Knowledge and Practices. This hypothesis was found to be significant with Administrative Support accounting for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Growth over time ($X^2_{\text{change}(2)} = 33.58$, $p<0.001$). The $X^2_{\text{change}}$ was calculated by taking the $X^2$ from the model that contained Teacher Knowledge and Practices ($X^2 = 516,886.61$ with $df=41,802$) and subtracting the $X^2$ from the model that contains Administrative Support ($X^2 = 516,853.03$ with $df=41,801$) (See Table 14).
Table 14

*Conditional Model with Administrative Support Accounting for a Significant Proportion of Unique Variance in Predicting Student Achievement Growth Over Time While Controlling for Teacher Knowledge and Practices (HLM)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fixed Effects</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercepts</td>
<td>-0.8330</td>
<td>0.0550</td>
<td>-15.0640</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Slope</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.0070</td>
<td>0.1050</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercepts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Knowledge</td>
<td>0.0240</td>
<td>0.0010</td>
<td>19.2400</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Practices</td>
<td>0.0030</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>4.1350</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
<td>1.2010</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>0.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slopes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Knowledge</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.6010</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>0.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Practices</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>3.5700</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>2.1620</td>
<td>41801</td>
<td>0.030</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 41,802 students were measured up to 12 times to create this growth model. $X^2_{\text{change}(2)} = 33.58$, $p<0.001$.

**Summary of Research**

Chapter IV began with preliminary analysis of the data merge for the three databases utilized in this study. These databases were from ODE, Westat, and Reading First Ohio Center. The data screening indicated no extreme outliers, and no data imputations were conducted for missing data. The descriptive statistics were divided into two sections. The first section reported on the demographic variables of the 63,411 students that were in Reading First Ohio (RFO). These students were measured up to
three times a year on the DIBELS, and one time a year on the TerraNova and the OAT, across the six years of the RFO program. This section also included the descriptive statistics and the average linear growth trends of the Student Achievement data on the DIBELS, TerraNova and the OAT.

The second section reported information on the average school level variables that were utilized in the creation of the factor constructs that represented Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. The reliability of the ELLCO was next reported with all of the reliability coefficients being high, ranging from a low of 0.895 to a high of 0.949. The factor analysis was the last piece done in Chapter IV before the primary analysis.

The factor analysis was computed utilizing Principal Component Analysis with a varimax rotation solution. This resulted in a three-factor solution that accounted for 64.09% of the total variance. The resulting three factors were Teacher Knowledge, Administrative Support and Teacher Practices. Table 15 presents all of the specific research hypotheses, their p-values and indicates if the hypotheses are significant. As one can see, all of the research hypotheses are significant at p<0.01, except for Hypothesis 2 where p=.016. These significances and the fact that the relationships are in the predicted theoretical direction of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, supports the underlying nomological net upon which this model was based.
Table 15

**Summary of all General and Specific Research Hypotheses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
<th>Significant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction (Level 1) of Guskey’s model positively predicts Knowledge (Level 2), as measured by the Westat survey, and the Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC).</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction (Level 1) and Knowledge (Level 2) of Guskey’s model predicts Teacher Practices (Level-3), as measured by the Westat Survey, the SEC, and the ELLCO.</td>
<td>0.0161</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher Knowledge and Practices (Levels 2 &amp; 3) positively predict growth in Student Achievement (Level 5).</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>The operationally defined Student Gain variables and the Teaching and Administrative Support variables, reflect the interrelationship of the levels, as hypothesized by Guskey’s model. (Simple Correlation)</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>There is a good overall Goodness of Fit estimate for the components of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, as estimated by the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index.</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>There is a significant interaction between Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice.</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Administrative Support accounts for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement Growth over and above what is explained by Teacher Knowledge and Practices.</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a brief summary restating the problem and purpose of the study, an overview of the methodology and hypotheses, conclusions and discussion of the findings of the seven research questions followed by implications, limitations and concludes with recommendations for further research.

Summary of the Study

An increased demand for accountability has resulted in the requirement that most externally funded projects have some type of comprehensive evaluation component. There is no question that there is unprecedented interest in and a requirement for accountability in the field of education (Desimone, 2009; Levine, 1974; Raudenbush, 2009). Well-designed evaluations are essential to make effective policy decisions. Therefore, schools and districts depend on evaluations to assess the quality and impact of their professional development that is designed to improve teacher practices and increase student achievement (NCEE, 1983; NCLB 2001; Raudenbush, 2009).

Comprehensive evaluation models are used in the field of education to guide and assess program development, professional development, and implementation success (Guskey, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Stuffelbeam 2000, 2007). These models have
developed methods for assessing educational reform. The assumption is that the model adopted by a school system is an effective tool that will aid them in designing and evaluating their professional development efforts. However, this assumption is seldom, if ever, supported by an empirical test of the model and is often based on common practice. Consequently, while schools may invest heavily in designing and presenting professional development opportunities for their teachers, they generally have little or no evidence to indicate if the criterion based upon the model they have selected for their training is a good indicator of effectiveness.

Professional development evaluation models are based upon assumptions that are embedded in philosophic position and particular world views. This philosophical position dictates what aspects or constructs are seen as valuable. In Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, Guskey identifies the important constructs as professional development satisfaction, changes in teacher knowledge, changes in teacher practices, administrative support and ultimately growth in student achievement. The advantage of working from a model is that it helps one to organize, defend, communicate, and diagnose problems by looking at the interrelated components. However, as stated earlier, few studies are available that validate or empirically test these different evaluation models. Raudenbush (2009) and Gage (1999) stated that it is not sufficient to adopt a model based on face validity, ease of use and/or because it has become common practice in a given field. All models need to be empirically tested.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to estimate the prediction validity of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. Secondly, it will clarify the structural and ideological connections between important constructs and therefore
improve the overall organizational impact by refuting or confirming the claims. In this research, the levels of the Guskey’s model were investigated to determine if their relationships were consistent with the nomological net represented by the model. The data from Reading First Ohio, years 2003 to 2009, were used as the data source to test the hypothesized interrelationships represented by the nomological net.

Methodology

Research Design

This investigation utilized an ex post facto research design with hypotheses and tests of alternative hypotheses (Newman, et al, 2006; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). An ex post facto design is the most appropriate research design to use when testing a nomological net for an already existing dataset. In addition, Newman, et al (2006) indicates that this type of research design has the potential of higher external validity when compared to quasi and true experimental designs.

Data Sources

The data for this research comes from databases that were developed by the Ohio Department of Education, The Reading First Ohio Center, and Westat (the external evaluation firm contracted by ODE) to evaluate Reading First Ohio (RFO) between 2003 and 2009. The sample for this study included every student, teacher, principal, literacy specialist, resource coordinator and data manager involved in Reading First Ohio from 2003 to 2009. This encompasses 36 districts and 124 schools. In addition there were 63,411 students measured up to twelve times that participated in RFO during this period.
**Statistical Analyses**

Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized in this study. The research hypotheses were tested using correlations, multiple linear regression, and hierarchical linear modeling when dealing with the naturally nested structure of the data or when required for a repeated measure design. To assess the overall fit of the model the Binomial Goodness of Fit Indices was used to test the number of paths predicted by the model that were in the correct direction. This technique was utilized instead of structural equation modeling (SEM) because of the number and complexity of the theoretical interactions that Guskey’s Professional Development Model contains. SEM does not adequately reconstruct the covariance structure of models that have interactions between components.

**Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model**

Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model (2000) (Figure 9), as graphically represented below, demonstrates the relationships that are assumed to exist between his five levels/components. These relationships form the basis for all of the hypotheses that are being tested in this research.
The seven general research hypotheses that were tested are:

1. Does Satisfaction (Level 1) of Guskey’s Model predict Teacher Knowledge (Level 2)?

2. Do Satisfaction (Level 1) and Knowledge (Level 2) of Guskey’s Model predict Teacher Practices (Level-3)?

3. Do Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices (Level-2 & 3) predict Growth in Student Achievement (Level 5)?

4. Do the operationally defined Student Gain variables and the Teaching and Administrative Support variables reflect the interrelationship of the levels, as hypothesized by Guskey’s Model?

5. Is there an overall good Goodness of Fit estimate for the components of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model, as estimated by
the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index.

6. Is there a significant interaction between Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice?

7. Does Administrative Support account for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement when controlling for the mediating variables of Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices?

Conclusions and Discussion

This section is organized by general research questions. Each research question is broken out uniquely and conclusions and discussion are given for each one. An overall global discussion will conclude this section where the research questions will be discussed by appropriate groups.

In the first step a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was utilized to derive the underlying components of Guskey’s Model for Teacher Knowledge, Administrative Support and Teacher Practices. The three components solution was selected since both the eigenvalues and the scree plot resolved into these three components and they accounted for 64.09% of the total variance. The first component, Teacher Knowledge was comprised of: Percent of Building Implementation, Percent of Teacher Implementation, Classroom Walk Through and SEC Alignment Totals, which accounted for 31.09% of the total variance. Administrative Support, the second component, was comprised of: Percent of Principal Change, Percent of Superintendent Change, and Percent of Principal Support. Administrative Support accounted for 19.34% of the total variance. Lastly, Teacher Practices had only one variable that loaded on it. This variable was the ELLCO Total and it accounted for 12.83% of the total variance. Typically a one
variable component is not as strong or stable in prediction equations. However, in this
case it was empirically derived from a total scale score that had good reliability and is not
based on an individual item. This construct also made logical sense.

**Research Question 1**

The first research question investigated the relationship of Teacher Satisfaction
(Level 1) of Guskey’s Model to predict Teacher Knowledge (Level 2). The hypothesis
generated by this question was found to be statistically significant and in the predicted
direction ($F_{1,81} = 7.395, p = 0.008$), with 8.4% of the variance in Teacher Knowledge
accounted for by Teacher Satisfaction. This supports the underlying conceptualization of
Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model by supporting the theorized
relationship predicted in the first level of his Evaluation Model. Further support of this
finding was provided by Desimone (2009). In her study, Improving Impact Studies of
Teacher’s Professional Development: Toward Better Conceptualization and Measures,
Desimone found that one of the important links in an effective evaluation model is the
link between Teacher Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge. Without this initial
relationship it is unlikely that the evaluation will discover any significant and lasting
benefit for either teachers or students.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question investigated if the level of Teacher Satisfaction
(Level 1) and Teacher Knowledge (Level 2) of Guskey’s Model to predict Teacher
Practices (Level-3). The hypothesis generated by this question was found to be
significant ($F_{2,80} = 4.376, p=0.016$), with 9.9% of the variance in Teacher Practices
accounted for by Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge. This research question further
supports Guskey’s model and the conceptual framework discussed in Desimone’s (2009) study where she also found that teacher satisfaction and knowledge predicted changes in teacher practices. Fishman, Marx, Best, and Tal, (2003) also suggested that the relationship between Satisfaction, Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices has to be assessed to help to improve professional development. Without a strong connection between these components professional development will not produce the desired changes in student achievement.

**Research Question 3**

The third research question investigated the theoretical relationships suggested by the next level of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. The implied relationship is that Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices (Levels-2 & 3) predict Growth in Student Achievement (Level 5). This is the first of two of the nested data analyses that were conducted. Since students were nested within the schools, Hierarchical Linear Models were utilized. This research question generated the hypotheses that tested the variance accounted for by the unconditional student growth model against the conditional growth model with Teacher Knowledge and Practices. This is done in much the same way one tests a full model against a restricted model (McNeil et al, 1996). This procedure allows one to ascertain the proportion of unique variance accounted for by adding the second level in the conditional model. The hypothesis was found to be significant with a $X^2_{change}(2) = 739.7$ and $p<0.001$, indicating that there is a significant and positive relationship between school level Teacher Knowledge and Practice and the rate in which Student Achievement increases as measured by the number of standard deviations they are away from the grade appropriate benchmark. In other words,
increases in Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices seem to predict improvement in students’ achievement scores. Desimone’s 2009 study on assessing which components of evaluation models are critical for improving professional development, also found that evaluation models with relationships between Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Practices and Student Achievement were critical in having an effective professional development program. This current research was also supported by Mullens, Murnane and Willett (1996), who used HLM to test students nested within classrooms. These researchers also found a significant relationship between Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices for improving Student Achievement.

**Research Question 4**

The fourth research question investigated all of the simple relationships purposed by Guskey’s model. The first relationship tested to see if Satisfaction (Level 1) significantly predicted Teacher Knowledge (Level 2). This level was found to be significant \( r=0.289, p<0.001 \). The second level, Teacher Knowledge (Level 2), did not significantly predict Teacher Practice (Level 3) with an \( r=0.056 \) and \( p>0.05 \). One possible explanation of why this theoretical relationship was not significant could be that there appears to be an interaction between Teacher Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge in predicting Teacher Practices (Research Question 6). This may also be why there was not a significant relationship between Teacher Practices (Level 3) and Administrative Support (Level 4) with an \( r=0.176 \) and \( p>0.05 \). Further discussion about this is provided later in the limitation section.

There are significant relationships between the majority of the student achievement data aggregated at the student level. The DIBELS is correlated with all of
Guskey’s Levels at the \( p<0.01 \), except for Teacher Satisfaction (Level 1). The same trend also holds true for the TerraNova and the OAT. Even though Teacher Practices are not significantly correlated with these achievement measures when aggregated at the building level, as predicted in Guskey’s model, the majority of the relationships tested support Guskey’s conceptualization. This indicates strong support for the use of this evaluation model when planning and assessing professional development.

**Research Question 5**

The fifth research hypothesis investigated the overall Goodness of Fit estimate for the components of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. This estimate was calculated by using the Binomial Goodness of Fit Index. All of the theoretically-proposed paths were found to be in the predicted direction (seven out of seven). The likelihood of this occurring by chance is less than one time in a thousand \( (p<0.01) \), therefore supporting the overall fit of the model. Additionally, four of the seven paths were independently significant. This also supports the use of Guskey’s model as an effective method for assessing the quality and potential benefits of teacher and building level professional development.

**Research Question 6**

The sixth research question investigated interaction between Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Changes in Teacher Practice. This question generated the hypothesis that was found to be statistically significant, \( F_{2,79} = 9.603 \), with an \( R^2_{\text{changed}} = 0.098 \), and a \( p=0.003 \), accounting for 9.8% of the total variance in Teacher Practices (See Table 10). This suggests that teachers who were not satisfied with their professional development scored lower on Teacher Practices regardless of their
Knowledge level. Whereas, the teachers that had higher satisfaction with the professional development scored higher on Teacher Practices as their Knowledge level increased. As David Berliner (2002) once described, “Education research is the hardest where the ubiquity of interactions easily can confound efforts of scholars to determine which variable can predict both teacher retention and student achievement” (p. 18). This appears to be the case in this study when Teacher Practices are being investigated. This interaction is critical to understand and potentially mediate problems in improving teacher practices. By early identification of teachers with low satisfaction with their professional development trainers can provide other interventions or additional trainings and hopefully improve these teachers’ practices.

**Research Question 7**

The seventh and final research question investigated whether Administrative Support accounts for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Achievement Growth, over and above what can be explained by Teacher Knowledge and Practices. The hypothesis generated from this research question was found to be statistically significant with Administrative Support accounting for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting Student Growth over time ($X^2_{\text{change}}(2) =33.58$, $p<0.001$). The $X^2_{\text{change}}$ was calculated by taking the $X^2$ from the model that contained Teacher Knowledge and Practices ($X^2 = 516,886.61$ with a df=41,802) and subtracting that $X^2$ from the model that contains Administrative Support ($X^2 = 516,853.03$ with df=41,801). In O’Donnell & White’s (2007) research, “Principals’ Influence on Academic Achievement: The Student Perspective,” they found that the principal as an instructional leader is crucial in understanding the complex components required to improve student
achievement. Desimone (2009) and Guskey’s theoretical model also support the need for ongoing administrative support as a crucial factor in assessing the effect of professional development. Desimone found that without administrative support it is very unlikely that any potential change from professional development will be neither sustained over any prolonged period of time nor be systematically employed throughout the school or district.

**Global Discussion of the Research Questions**

The seven research questions in this study were derived to investigate the construct validity of the theoretically-proposed relationships assumed to exist in Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. The results supported the model in that the relationship between Teacher Satisfaction, Teacher Knowledge, Teacher Practices, Administrative Support and Student Achievement were found to exist as predicted by the model, with one exception. The only hypothesized relationship that was not fully supported was relationship between Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practice. This result which seems suppressing at first glance can be explained by the interaction that was found to exist between Teacher Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge when predicting Teacher Practice. This investigation found that the gains in Teacher Knowledge only increase Teacher Practices if there is high satisfaction with the professional development. If teachers were not satisfied with the professional development regardless of their gains in knowledge, there would be almost no change in Teacher Practice. This interaction is consistent with the results reported by Desimone (2009) and Mullens, et al (1996) and even alluded to by Berliner (2002) who found it difficult if not impossible to study teacher practices without understanding the complex
interactions between variables like satisfaction and knowledge gained from professional development. Lastly, the findings that Administrative Support accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance in predicting gains in Student Achievement even when controlling for gains in Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practice further supported the construct validity of this model. This finding is consistent with earlier research conducted by Desimone (2009) and O’Donnell, et al (2007) who found that administrative support is critical in creating longer systematic changes in districts. As these finding have indicated there is strong overall support of the nomological net suggest by Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model.

Implications

This research is critically important because there are very few studies that investigate the nomological net of the models being used to assess professional development in teacher education. Districts typically invest large portions of their budget in providing professional development that is delivered and/or assessed through models that they assume to be effective. This may or may not be the case. Without investigating if the models actually are effective, districts may be wasting resources and may not be achieving the desired student academic outcomes. This research was done with Guskey’s Model and there was overwhelming support for the use of this Model by school districts to assess their ongoing professional development.

It became apparent throughout this research that by investigating the components of Guskey’s model, and the relationships between components, one can identify the strengths and weaknesses of both the data that are being collected and the components of
the model that is being used to evaluate professional development. This information is critical in improving the effectiveness of professional development to improve Teacher Practices and Student Achievement. Evaluators in the field need to constantly identify any weaknesses that may exist to make midcourse adjustments and modifications. This same methodology could also yield valuable information about other models currently employed in the field of education.

In the current study there were three reasons why it was not surprising that a significant relationship did not exist between Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Practices. First, the high mobility of teacher may have made it increasingly difficult for teachers to implement new practices with fidelity. Due to the lack of continuity in their teaching placement, teachers may well have needed more time to become acclimated to their new schools and to get to know their new population of students before they were willing to “experiment” with new practices in the classroom. Therefore, when one is evaluating teacher practices in the field they need to account for teacher mobility. The second reason, as revealed in hypothesis six, is that there is an interaction between Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge when predicting Teacher Practices. In other words, Teacher Knowledge differentially predicts Teacher Practices as the level of Satisfaction varies. By identifying teachers who have lower satisfaction, school districts can create or implement additional training to increase Teacher Satisfaction Scores and thus improving Teacher Practices. The last reason Teacher Knowledge might not have been found to predict Teacher Practices could have been a measurement issue. Because the construct of Teacher Practice only has one variable, that construct may potentially lack stability and possibly may not have sufficient validity. It is vitally important for practitioners who are
using instruments to evaluate their ongoing professional development to understand the reliability and validity of the constructs measured by these instruments. If the constructs appear not to be reliable or valid, it is the practitioners' responsibility to make the needed adjustments by either using supplemental instruments to measure that construct or if not possible to be critical in making any suggestions based on the finding.

The data also indicated that there was not a significant relationship between Administrative Support and Teacher Practices. It is possible that the large Administrator turnover, for both principals and superintendents, may have impacted on Teacher Practice. Without consistent leadership that commits to a direction of change, it may have been difficult to implement change in school environments that lacked leadership stability. This is an area that needs further examination. However, when evaluating professional development one also has to assess the stability of the administrative staff.

This research has also made it apparent that no matter how skillfully an evaluation is planned, it is not possible to identify all data issues prior to initiating the evaluation. Therefore, it is highly recommended that a pilot study be conducted prior to the initiation of full scale evaluations.

As mentioned earlier and is worth mentioning again, this study found strong empirical evidence that supports the overall underlying constructs of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. However, the research also identified which components of the model predicted as expected and which did not. School districts can use this information diagnostically with their current professional development to suggest what supplemental programs might be needed to achieve the intended outcomes. By identifying the components that seem to be critical, districts can
ameliorate existing shortcomings to improve the effectiveness of their professional development.

**Limitations**

These research results were positive and supportive of Guskey’s Model; however, there were several limitations to this study. As with any research project of this size and scope, involving multiple school districts across an entire state, organizing the data sources for multiple agencies is a complicated process. One inherent problem when working with already existing databases is that the data are limited to what has already been collected by outside organizations. In the current study, the data were collected by the Ohio Department of Education, The Reading First Ohio Center, and Westat, and this researcher was unable to modify the data collection protocols. Under these circumstances, the researcher also could not control the fidelity of the data collection process. Therefore, any potential holes in the data, such as missing data or consistency in data collection procedures, are potentially problematic.

A delimitation of this study was that the components of Guskey’s model were operationally defined by the data collected by the outside agencies named above. Therefore, this limits the generalizability of the findings to Guskey’s components as operationally defined.

Additionally, it is more appropriate to only generalized to districts with similar characteristics to those in this study, such as high poverty and low academic achievement scores (see the demographic description of this sample in chapter 3). These districts have
specific contextual differences that could potential change the dynamic relationships between the theoretically-proposed paths of Guskey’s model.

Another limitation is that in this research, multiple instruments were used by different organizations to collect the data. This could present a problem because the different instruments were potentially measuring different underlying constructs. Although a Principal Component Analysis was used to alleviate this problem, one of the three constructs that was consistently used across all schools, Teacher Practices, was made up of only one total score. Even though this does not appear to be a problem in this research since the construct was a total score, this can potentially effect the stability of the component as well as its reliability and validity. Therefore, it is possible that some of the results pertaining to Teacher Practices were a result of poor construct integrity.

The high occurrence of principal and superintendent turnover was another limitation. Not only was there high administrative turnover, there was also high teacher mobility. This was especially true in the urban school districts. This did not seem to effect teacher knowledge as much as it did the implementation of that knowledge as reflected by teacher practices.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

This data presents several opportunities for extended research. Some of the suggested options for further study are:

- The relationship between Administrative Support and Teacher practices can be compared in schools where there was no administrative turnover to
those that had turnover. This can be investigated for both superintendent
and principal turnover.

- Analyses of identified subgroups (rural, urban, suburban) can be done to see if the same relationships between model components exist.

- Because of the interaction between Satisfaction and Teacher Knowledge in predicting Teacher Practices, one needs to further investigate Teacher Practices to see if any other variables interact with Teacher Practices using a multidimensional such as any of the Administrative Support variables.

- It may be informative to take a sub-sample to see if the relationships found in this model hold up when teachers are experienced, in comparison to teachers who are not experienced.

- The data can be cross-validated to determine the stability of the results. (This may be less important because the N in this study is so large.)

- It would be interesting to see if the relationships found in this study are unique to these operational definitions or if there are other definitions that may be more tenable, and therefore should be used.

- One can also look at the stability of the component structures across different samples such as social economic groups.

- One also can investigate the component of dosage (amount of professional development) as a potential critical construct or as it pertains to Teacher Practices or Administrative Support. Many studies have suggested that there needs to be 90 minutes of professional development per month.
While these suggestions are not totally comprehensive, they do provide several paths for building on the current research. Any additional information that could shed light on the efficacy of the evaluation models being used in education would be of benefit to school districts and may help them to be more effective in providing professional development that improves student learning.

Summary

This research investigated the nomonological net that supports the constructs of Guskey’s Professional Development Evaluation Model. The data that was utilized in this study was compiled from the Ohio Department of Education, the Reading First Ohio Center and Westat. This included student data collected on 63,411 students who were measured up to 12 times, as well as data on 124 schools. Principal Component Analysis was then utilized to create the components of Administrative Support, Teacher Knowledge, and Teacher Practice. All of the hypotheses were found to be significant in support of the underlying theory of Guskey’s model. However, the one component of the model that was found to be not statistically significant pertained to Teacher Practices. This lack of significance can possibly be the result of the interaction between Teacher Knowledge and Satisfaction in predicting Teacher Practices, the large turnover of administrators and teachers, or reliability issues that result from a one variable solution in the PCA. These results supported Guskey’s model and lead one to consider the possible implication of implementing the model, not only for evaluating professional development, but also for diagnostic purposes in identifying components that need extra attention.
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Reading First Ohio (data 2003-209)


