Department of Research and Evaluation
Austin Independent School District

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AISD REACH Program:
Summary of Findings From 2007–2008 Through 2012–2013

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

After the first cohort of schools in Austin Independent School District (AISD) joined the AISD REACH program in 2007–2008, the program expanded each year until 2012–2013, when all educators at 38 high-poverty schools participated. The program required educators to establish learning goals for their students and provided a variety of supports to enhance classroom instructional practices. The program rewarded those who demonstrated success, and provided incentives for educators to work in high-poverty schools.

A variety of programs and initiatives were implemented at REACH schools during the same time period; thus, attributing the success of REACH schools to the REACH program alone is not possible. However, a body of research from 6 years of the program provided evidence student learning objectives (SLOs), peer observation, novice teacher mentoring, and professional development units (PDUs) benefited students and teachers.

Results suggest that the REACH program as a whole likely influenced students' performance on state assessments. Many REACH schools had greater passing rates than did their comparison school peers on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) and State of Texas Assessment for Academic Readiness (STAAR) for all tests taken, and REACH mathematics (math) and English language arts (ELA) high school classrooms showed greater performance gains than did classrooms at similar comparison schools. Additionally, evidence from a study of longitudinal performance of elementary and middle school students showed students served for at least 3 years in REACH elementary and middle schools improved significantly in reading over time, and REACH middle school students improved significantly more over time in reading than did their comparison school peers.

Despite these favorable results, evidence did not suggest the REACH schoolwide growth stipends for gains in reading and mathematics operated effectively as incentives. Additionally, no relationship was found between performance on schoolwide goals and factors such as years in the program; teachers' instructional practices (i.e., data use, collaboration, and reflective teaching); or SLO performance. However, results provided evidence for cautious optimism regarding the influence of establishing schoolwide attendance rate goals.

Educators at REACH schools were trained in and supported with the practice of establishing and working toward the achievement of two SLOs. Each year, approximately 81% to 87% of educators met the stipend criteria for at least one SLO, though the rates at which teachers met SLOs varied due to factors such as school level, teaching assignment, and school SLO requirements. Overall, evidence suggested most teachers believed the SLO process improved their teaching, and that experience with SLOs may have enhanced teachers' data use and professional collaboration. Additionally, results indicated some benefits for students in the areas their teachers targeted with SLOs. However, evidence regarding the link between students' performance on state assessments and SLOs was not conclusive.

A late program addition, peer observation, provided classroom observation and feedback to classroom teachers at participating schools, starting in 2011–2012. Evidence indicated many teachers valued the quality of feedback they received, and the majority of teachers reported peer observation was a good idea. Some teachers reported concerns that peer observers did not have teaching experience in their own content area or grade level, but evidence suggested peer observation was a reliable and valid measure of teachers' classroom instruction. Most teachers were satisfied with the support they received from their peer observer and agreed their peer observer collaborated with them to improve their teaching; however, results did not show peer observation changed teachers' instructional practices in the specific ways that were measured. Better ways of assessing the influence of peer observation on teachers' classroom instruction are necessary.

Professional development units (PDUs) were among the most favorably received among all elements of the REACH program. The vast majority of teachers who participated in an optional PDU valued the PDU experience and believed it influenced their instruction. Most PDU participants each year also demonstrated their studies had made a sufficient impact on students' learning and on their instruction, earning stipends for their accomplishments. Teachers' PDU scores reflected their performance on other measures of effective teaching, suggesting PDU scores were a valid measure of instructional effectiveness. Although the influence of PDUs on specific student outcomes was challenging to establish due to the self-selected sample of participants, analyses with matched samples of participants and nonparticipants showed some positive results for participants.

Educators at REACH schools also strongly valued the mentoring program and the support it provided for new teachers, as well as for the faculty as a whole. Between 2007–2008 and 2012–2013, 1,000 REACH teachers in their first 3 years of teaching received formal, ongoing support from full-time mentors, who each served approximately 10 new teachers. Evidence indicated mentors focused on teachers' unique instructional needs, and that students of REACH novice teachers performed comparably to students of their more experienced peers. Results suggested REACH novice teachers had greater self-efficacy than did their peers at similar non-REACH schools, and that REACH mentoring support was related to novice teacher retention. However, data also indicated that although REACH novice teachers were retained at a greater rate than their comparison peers while they were being served, the influence of mentoring on teacher retention was not necessarily sustained once teachers exited the mentoring program.

Although evidence suggested novice teacher mentoring influenced teacher retention, the influence of REACH recruitment and retention stipends was unclear. Evidence suggested over time the retention stipend may have become more important to teachers' retention decisions. However, data showed an initial increase in teacher retention rates for participating schools, but a lack of sustained effect on retention rates over time. Retention rates did not appear to have improved substantially for teachers at REACH schools relative to teachers in other AISD schools.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY i
INTRODUCTION 1
OVERALL PROGRAM RESULTS FOR STUDENTS 3
STUDENT LEARNING OBJECTIVES (SLOs) 4
SLOs and Collaboration, Data Use, and Reflective Teaching 5
SLOs and Students' Performance on State Assessments 5
SLOs and Students' Performance on Specific Objectives on State Assessments 6
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT UNITS 9
PEER OBSERVATION 12
SCHOOLWIDE GROWTH 15
NOVICE TEACHER MENTORING 18
RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION 21
CONCLUSION 25
APPENDICES 26
REFERENCES 30

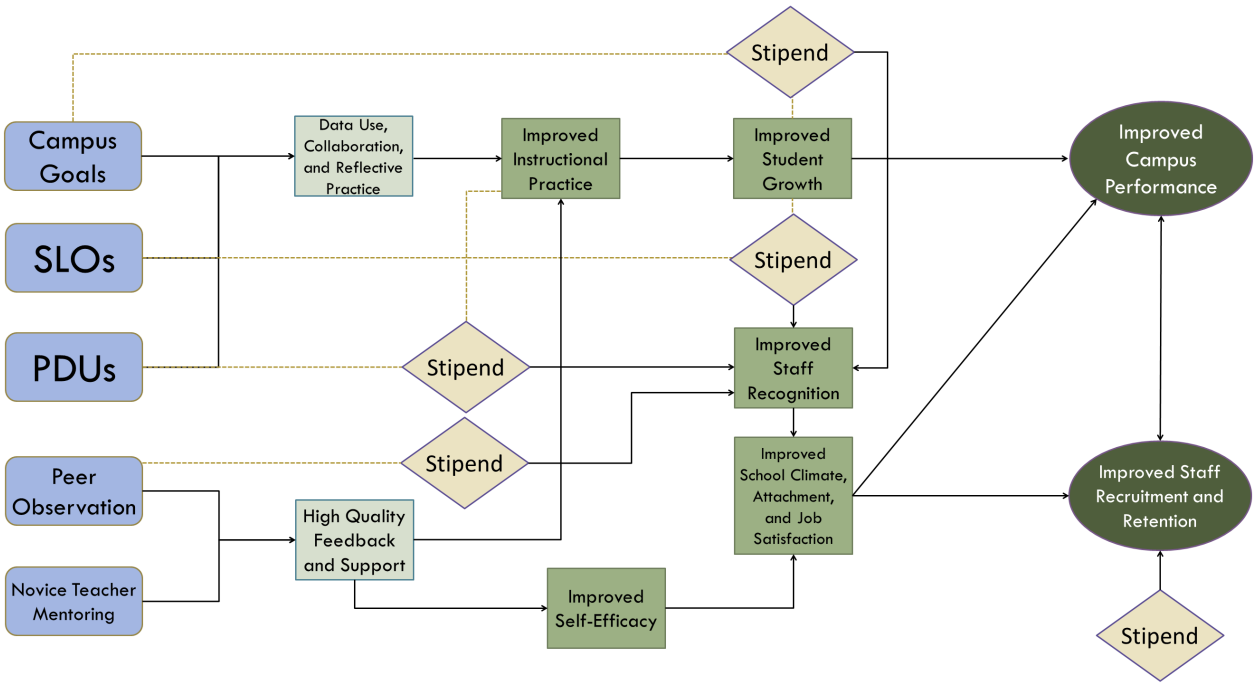
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Figure 1. REACH Program Logic Model 1
Table 1. 2012–2013 REACH Schools, by Program Entry Year 2
Figure 2. Percentage of REACH Participants who Met 0, 1, or 2 SLOs Since 2007–2008 4
Box 1. What are Student Learning Objectives? 4
Box 2. What are Professional Development Units (PDUs)? 9
Box 3. What is REACH peer observation? 12
Box 4. What is the basket of measures? 15
Table 2. Percentage of Schools Earning Schoolwide Growth Stipends, 2007–2008 through 2012–2013 15
Figure 3. Percentage of Schools That Met Schoolwide Growth Criteria for Reading and Math, 2007–2008 through 2012–2013 16
Table 3. Number of Teachers Served by REACH Mentors, 2007–2008 through 2012–2013 18
Box 5. What is the REACH novice teacher mentoring program? 18
Box 6. What are the recruitment and retention stipends? 21
Figure 4. Percentage of Teachers who Returned to Their Schools, REACH and All AISD, Fall 2007 through Fall 2013 22
Figure 5. Percentage of Teachers who Returned to Their Schools, REACH Cohorts and All AISD, Fall 2007 through Fall 2013 23

INTRODUCTION

The AISD REACH program, first implemented in Austin Independent School District (AISD) with a small cohort of schools in 2007–2008, was designed to facilitate improved campus performance and staff retention through a system of supports and rewards for educators at participating schools. Between 2007–2008 and 2012–2013, new cohorts of schools joined the program, and new program elements were implemented to enhance the system of supports and rewards for participating educators (Figure 1). By 2012–2013, the REACH program served educators at 38 AISD schools (Table 1).

Figure 1. REACH Program Logic Model



SLOs = Student Learning Objectives; PDUs = Professional Development Units

At the heart of the program were training and a formalized process for documenting and assessing student performance on teacher-developed student learning objectives (SLOs). Educators also were rewarded for schoolwide growth on state reading and mathematics (math) assessments and for choosing to work at a high-needs school. Additional supports were provided to participating novice teachers via full-time mentors whose role was to support the development of instructional practices of teachers in their first three years of service. Starting in 2010–2011, educators at REACH schools also were offered the opportunity to participate in and receive stipends for successful completion of professional development units (PDUs) with their colleagues. Additionally, the schoolwide growth program element was enhanced in 2010–2011 to incorporate school goals for multiple areas in addition to goals for growth on state assessments in reading and math. Finally, another program element, peer observation, was implemented in 2011–2012, allowing each teacher to receive classroom observation and detailed feedback from a trained observer twice each school year.

Table 1. 2012–2013 REACH Schools, by Program Entry Year

2007–2008	2008–2009	2009–2010	2010–2011	2011–2012	2012–2013
Lanier HS	Webb MS	Akins HS	LBJ HS	Eastside HS	Andrews ES
Dobie MS	Jordan ES	Harris ES	Reagan HS	Martin MS	Blanton ES
Hart ES		Norman ES	Travis HS	Pearce MS	Brooke ES
Rodriguez ES		Pickle ES	Garcia MS	Allison ES	Graham ES
Sims ES		Pleasant Hill ES		Barrington ES	Metz ES
Sunset Valley ES				Brown ES	Ortega ES
				Govalle ES	Overton ES
				Pecan Springs ES	Sanchez ES
				Walnut Creek ES	Winn ES
					Zavala ES

Note. O. Henry MS, Barton Hills ES, and Menchaca ES also participated in the original program pilot.
ES = elementary school, MS = middle school, HS = high school

Each element of REACH has been studied through a series of annual AISD program evaluations that examined results for a variety of quantitative and qualitative outcomes associated with the program. The present report summarizes the major findings from the annual program evaluations conducted for school years 2007–2008 through 2012–2013. Results are described for each program element, along with a summary of findings, to date, related to the program as a whole.

OVERALL PROGRAM RESULTS FOR STUDENTS

The REACH program was designed to provide a system of supports and rewards that would positively influence teacher retention and student achievement for participating schools. Although each program element was studied separately, the combination of all program elements may be more than the sum of the parts. To examine whether students at REACH schools performed better than they otherwise might have, recent studies examined passing rates and gains on state assessments for students at REACH schools relative to rates and gains for students at similar comparison schools (Schmitt, 2014; Schmitt, Lamb, Cornetto, & Courtemanche, 2013).

The ability to examine the longitudinal influence of REACH on passing rates for state assessments was limited due to the change in Texas assessments that occurred in Spring 2012, when the State of Texas Assessment for Academic Readiness (STAAR) began. However, evidence suggested many REACH schools outperformed their comparison school (Schmitt et al., 2013). REACH schools with at least 3 years of program implementation improved more on the previous Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) between 2007 and 2011 than did their comparison schools in the majority of instances (6/8), and improved less in one instance. REACH schools from the first three cohorts also had greater passing rates on STAAR in 2013 for all subjects than did their comparison schools in the majority of instances (8/13). Although evidence was modest, results suggested students at REACH schools benefitted from the program in ways that influenced their performance on state assessments.

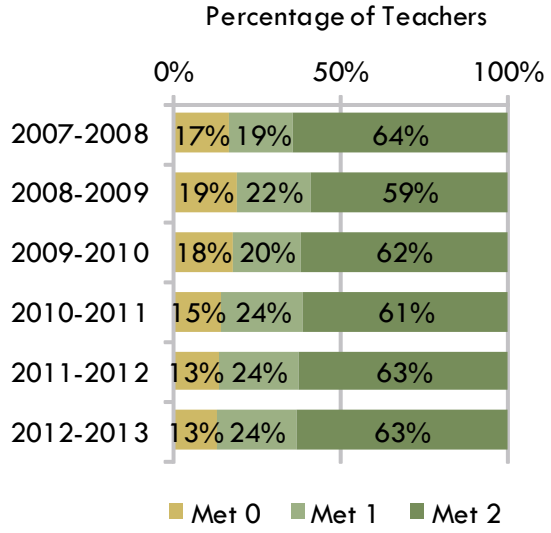
Longitudinal data also were examined for the actual performance (as opposed to the passing status) of specific students over time, using normal curve equivalents (NCEs) to allow for the transition from TAKS to STAAR. Results showed REACH high school reading/ELA and math classrooms had significantly greater gains than did comparison school classrooms, and students who were enrolled at least 3 years in a REACH elementary or middle school improved significantly more in reading from 2009 through 2013 than did their comparison school peers (Schmitt, 2014). Although the study was limited to only schools that were matched with comparison schools, evidence indicated REACH high school and middle school students benefited from the program in ways their peers at similar non-REACH schools did not.

STUDENT LEARNING OBJECTIVES

SLOs were designed to foster a deep analysis of student data to promote targeted instruction and documentation of students' progress over time. Through the SLO process, teachers identified areas of student need, provided focused instruction, and monitored growth in those specific areas. Teachers established SLOs for their own classes (i.e., individual SLOs) and also for the students served by a team of teachers (i.e., team SLOs). For more information about SLOs, see Box 1.

Each year from 2007–2008 to 2012–2013, approximately 81% to 87% of AISD REACH teachers met the stipend criteria for at least one SLO (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Percentage of REACH Participants Who Met 0, 1, or 2 SLOs Since 2007–2008



Source. REACH SLO database

The likelihood of accomplishing SLOs should have been equal across subject areas and schools, such that all teachers were equally likely to earn stipends for accomplishing their SLOs.

BOX 1. What are Student Learning Objectives (SLOs)?

SLOs are targets for student growth that teachers and other educators (e.g., counselors, assistant principals, librarians, and instructional specialists) set at the beginning of the school year and strive to achieve by the end of the semester or school year. SLOs are designed to focus teachers' instruction on a particular area of student need, tie specific instructional practices to that area of need, and inform adjustments in practice. Teachers submit one individual and one team SLO. Teachers whose subject area limits them from participating on a team may submit two individual SLOs. SLOs must be approved both by teachers' principal and by REACH program staff. Pre-assessments are administered before SLO targets are set, and post-assessments are administered in the Spring (or end of the semester) to determine if teachers made their SLO goals. Teachers receive stipends for meeting their SLO targets ($1,500 per individual SLO and $2,000 per team SLO). For more information about SLOs, visit http://www.austinisd.org/reach/learning-objectives

However, the rates at which teachers met SLOs varied due to factors such as school level, teaching assignment, and school SLO requirements (Schmitt, 2011; Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, Ware, Bush-Richards, & Imes, 2009; Schmitt, Lamb, Cornetto, & Courtemanche, 2014). SLOs should have driven an increase in teachers' analysis of student data, professional collaboration, and reflective teaching practices (Figure 1). If skills in these areas influenced performance on future SLOs, we would expect teachers with more SLO experience to have been more likely to meet SLOs than were those with less SLO experience. Additionally, we would expect these instructional practices to contribute to growth of knowledge and skills among both staff and students, and ultimately to result in improved campus performance.

SLOs and Collaboration, Data Use, and Reflective Teaching

Early results showed little relationship between SLOs and professional collaboration (Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, & Imes, 2009), though later results indicated more collaboration among teachers who used SLOs than among teachers at similar schools who did not use SLOs (Lamb & Schmitt, 2012a). Additionally, more than three quarters of teachers surveyed reported the SLO process positively changed their instructional strategies (Lamb, Schmitt, & Cornetto, 2010), and each year since 2009–2010 more than two thirds of REACH teachers agreed or strongly agreed that using SLOs had improved their teaching (Schmitt et al., 2013). The most recent study showed that teachers with more SLO experience performed better on SLOs and reported greater data use and collaboration than did those with less SLO experience even after controlling for years of teaching experience (Schmitt et al., 2014). This suggested the SLO process was linked with improvements to desirable instructional practices. Additionally, teachers from schools in the first three REACH program cohorts engaged in more frequent data use than did their peers at similar schools where SLOs were not implemented, another indication that SLOs likely facilitated some of the practices they were designed to promote.

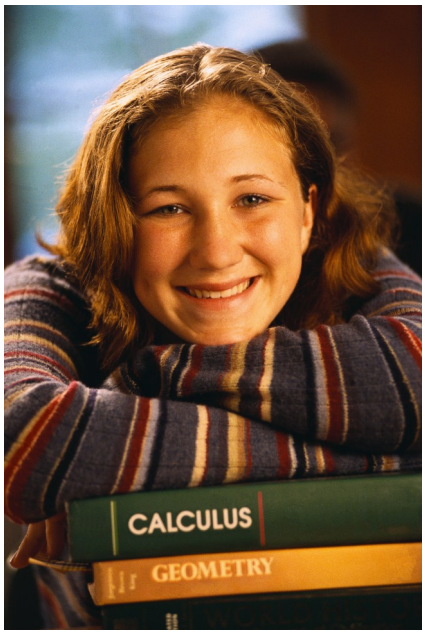
SLOs and Students' Performance on State Assessments

To the extent that SLOs targeted areas that were measured with state standardized assessments, schools where more teachers met their SLOs should have demonstrated greater performance and value-added gains based on state assessment results in those subjects than did schools where fewer teachers met objectives. Therefore, studies examined the relationships of schools' SLO performance with their performance on TAKS and STAAR. Additionally, studies examined the relationship of schools' SLO

performance with performance gains on state assessments, as measured by AISD's measure of net student growth and by Educational Value-Added Assessment System (EVAAS) scores (Wright, White, Sanders, & Rivers, 2010).

Results regarding SLOs and schoolwide performance were inconsistent across years, subject areas, and school levels. Although some evidence in some years suggested no relationship between SLOs and school-wide gains on state assessments (Cornetto, Schmitt, Malerba, & Herrera, 2010), results from other years indicated a favorable relationship between SLOs and school performance gains in math (Schmitt, 2011; Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009); reading (Schmitt, 2011; Schmitt, 2014); or science (Schmitt, 2014) at one or more school levels. Interpretation of historical findings is hampered by changes over time in methodology. Research includes findings related to two different assessments (i.e., TAKS and STAAR); two different SLO metrics (i.e., number of SLOs met and percentage of students who met SLOs); and two different growth measures (i.e., net growth and EVAAS).

Using the most recent data and metrics available, results showed a positive relationship between the percentage of schools' teachers who met team SLOs and schools' STAAR passing rates at all levels, a relationship between the percentage of schools' teachers who met both SLOs and schools' STAAR passing rates at the secondary level, and a relationship between the average percentage of students who met teachers' science SLOs and schools' science EVAAS at the secondary level (Schmitt et al., 2014).



Similar to results regarding SLOs and schoolwide performance, studies have yielded inconsistent findings with regard to the relationship between individual teachers' SLO performance and their students' performance gains on state assessments (Cornetto et al., 2010; Schmitt, 2011; Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009). However, as with schoolwide results, the changes over time in state assessments, available value-added metrics, and available SLO metrics make a longitudinal summary of findings challenging. Additionally, previous analyses were limited with regard to the ability to examine the potential influence on students of teachers' experience with SLOs. Due to these limitations, analyses were updated to reflect the most current data and metrics available.

Recent teacher-level analyses addressed two key issues: (a) whether teachers with high percentages of students meeting their SLOs had better value-added scores in that subject than did teachers with lower percentages of students who met their SLOs, and (b) whether teachers with more SLO experience had better value-added scores in their SLO subject than did those with less SLO experience. Results provided limited evidence that teachers with strong student SLO performance had better value-added scores on state assessments than did teachers whose students performed worse on SLOs (i.e., middle school science), and limited evidence that teachers with more SLO experience had greater value-added than did teachers who had less experience with the SLO process (i.e., middle and high school reading/English language arts (ELA) and middle school science; Schmitt, 2014).

SLOs and Students' Performance on Specific Objectives on State Assessments

Because SLOs were tightly focused and were not intended to target an entire subject area, establishing a link between the use of SLOs and students' achievement on state assessments was challenging. Simply put, expecting a goal that was focused on a small piece of tested material to influence the results of the entire test may be unreasonable (Schmitt et al., 2013). Although a link between teachers' performance on SLOs and their students' performance on the state assessment may be unrealistic, teachers whose students met SLOs that targeted specific Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) should have shown greater student growth in those areas, as measured by their respective reporting categories on the state assessment than did those whose students did not meet their SLOs.

Results of early analyses examining the link between SLOs and students' performance on the TAKS showed that in 23% of comparisons (28/123), students whose teachers established an SLO focused on a particular TAKS objective outperformed those whose teachers did not establish an SLO on that objective, while fewer than 1% of comparisons (1/123) showed students whose teachers did not establish an SLO outperformed those whose teachers did so. No detectable, systematic pattern was observed with respect to which grades, subjects, or objectives benefitted objectives benefitted most from SLOs (Malerba & Herrera, 2009).

More recent analyses by STAAR reporting category also were not sufficient for drawing conclusions regarding a link between SLOs and classroom-level performance in targeted areas (Schmitt et al., 2014). However, evidence showed students whose teachers focused SLOs in a specific area significantly outperformed their matched peers in that area more often than the other way around (17% versus 2% of comparisons), suggesting that SLOs may indeed foster skills that translate into performance on the state assessment. On the other hand, data justified a caution to teachers to ensure that emphasizing one area does not result in the neglect of others.

Overall, evidence suggested most teachers believed the SLO process improved their teaching, and that experience with SLOs likely enhanced teachers' data use and professional collaboration. Additionally, results indicated some benefits for students in the areas their teachers targeted with SLOs. However, evidence regarding the link between students' performance and SLOs was not conclusive, and positive results should be replicated before such a link is claimed.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT UNITS

Professional Development Units (PDUs) were intended to facilitate students' learning via improvements to teachers' data use, collaboration, reflective practice, and overall instructional practice (Figure 1). Since PDU implementation in 2010–2011, PDU participation rates ranged from 8% to 34% of REACH elementary, middle, and high school teachers each year. Almost one-quarter of the REACH teachers in 2012–2013 had participated in at least one PDU, and more than one-quarter of those teachers had participated more than once.

PDU participants consistently provided favorable feedback about their experiences (Courtemanche, 2014; Ibanez & Schmitt, 2013; Schmitt, 2011), with overwhelming agreement that their PDUs benefitted them in numerous ways, including collaboration with other teachers, analyzing instructional practices in new ways, and understanding students' needs (Courtemanche, 2014).

Because PDUs were voluntary, it is not surprising that participants differed from nonparticipants in several ways prior to participation, such as previous SLO performance, value-added scores, appraisal scores, years of teaching experience, attachment to their schools, data use, and self-efficacy (Courtemanche, 2014; Ibanez & Schmitt, 2013; Schmitt, 2011). Thus, differences found between participants and nonparticipants after the PDU experience also are not surprising. To better understand whether the PDU experience improved teachers' instructional practices, recent studies employed matching techniques to account for the previously existing differences between participants and

BOX 2. What are Professional Development Units (PDUs)?

PDUs are an optional component of REACH. Those who participate in PDUs form teams that work together during the course of a school year to identify, study, and implement job-embedded professional development activities in a specific area that is relevant to the student population or a specific content area to improve student achievement (e.g., English language learner instruction, classroom culture, technology instruction). PDU topics must be approved by the principal and REACH program staff. At the end of the school year, PDU teams present their methods and findings to their principal and Educator Quality staff. Projects are scored according to specific criteria. Those who receive a passing score on their PDU receive a stipend of $1,500. For more information on PDUs, please visit http://www.austinisd.org/reach/development-units .

nonparticipants when examining outcomes measures. Though modest, results suggested some positive outcomes for participants.

Participants improved more than did their matched nonparticipating peers on some measures. For example, the appraisal scores of elementary teachers who participated in 2012–2013 improved more from the previous year than did the appraisal scores of their matched nonparticipating peers (Courtemanche, 2014). Additionally, the 2011–2012 participants who had previously reported infrequent data use increased significantly more by the end of Spring 2012 than did their nonparticipating peers who also had reported infrequent data use the previous year (Ibanez & Schmitt, 2013).

Other evidence suggested some sustained influence of PDUs on former participants. Elementary participants in 2011–2012 demonstrated greater student achievement of SLOs in the year of participation than did their matched nonparticipating peers (Ibanez & Schmitt, 2013), and the difference in student SLO performance remained even in the year following participation (Courtemanche, 2014). Former elementary PDU participants also were more likely to report engaging in reflective teaching practices and to have increased their reflective teaching practices than were their matched comparisons in the year following the PDU.

Results indicated a slight positive relationship between PDU participation and factors such as teacher appraisal scores, peer observation scores, professional collaboration, reflective teaching practices, and the percentage of students who met teachers' SLOs. However, outcomes did not necessarily improve incrementally with increased participation, and relationships were modest (Courtemanche, 2014). Establishing a connection between PDUs and relevant outcomes proved challenging due to data limitations caused by small samples of PDU participants and even smaller samples of matched participants and nonparticipants. Additionally, it may be unrealistic to expect PDU participation to be related to broad outcomes, given the narrow and varied study topics. For this reason, it is useful to consider that the PDU process, itself, included measures of the PDU's impact on students' learning and its influence on instruction.

The scores participants received from the PDU judges were an additional source of evidence regarding the influence of PDUs on students and teachers. Teachers who scored high enough to earn a stipend for their PDU demonstrated sufficient evidence to a panel of judges that the process influenced their students' learning and their instruction. Thus, the majority of participants each year demonstrated positive outcomes as a result of the PDU process, according to the judges (Courtemanche, 2014). Additionally, teachers' PDU scores corresponded with other measures of their teaching; participants with higher PDU scores

showed somewhat greater student gains on EVAAS, higher peer observation ratings, and greater improvements from the previous year in the percentage of students meeting their SLOs than did those with lower PDU scores. Although these results did not establish a causal relationship between the quality of PDUs and the quality of relevant outcomes, they demonstrated the ability of the PDU scoring rubric to discriminate among teachers (Courtemanche, 2014).

Taken together, the evidence indicated teachers valued the PDU experience and believed it influenced their instruction. The majority of participants demonstrated sufficient impact on students' learning and on their instruction to earn a stipend, and PDU scores reflected performance on other relevant measures. Although the influence of PDUs was challenging to establish due to the self-selected sample of participants, analyses with matched samples of participants and nonparticipants showed some positive results for participants.

PEER OBSERVATION

The peer observation program component, implemented in 2011–2012, provided observation and feedback to each teacher in the REACH program twice during the school year. Teachers met with their peer observers prior to receiving classroom visits, then received written feedback regarding observed instructional practices and classroom climate. Feedback was provided within 48 hours of each observation, along with a request for a follow-up conversation. The program was intended to improve campus performance through the staff and student growth that would occur as a result of enhanced instructional practice and classroom climate (Figure 1).

BOX 3. What is REACH peer observation?

The REACH peer observation program element provides teachers with constructive and objective feedback to improve their teaching practice. Peer observers are former teachers who receive extensive training and conduct two observations (one announced and one unannounced in 2011–2012, two unannounced in 2012–2013) along with post-observation conferences using a specifically designed observation rubric. Teachers receive a $500 stipend for meeting the established performance standard. For more information, visit http://www.austinisd.org/reach/peer-observers.

Results from the evaluation of the first year of peer observation (Lamb & Schmitt, 2012b) indicated teachers generally valued peer observation. During 26 focus groups with a total of 205 teachers in Spring 2012, teachers specifically described the value of the pre-and post-observation conferences, which provided positive opportunities for peer observers and teachers to establish rapport and discuss observers' feedback. The majority of teachers in focus groups reported the feedback they received during these conferences made them better teachers, and most preferred the feedback from their peer observers because it was clearer and more detailed than the feedback from their administrators. However, some teachers described challenges and concerns. Most commonly, teachers reported concerns that peer observers did not have teaching experience in their content area or grade level. Some teachers also reported concerns that including peer observation as a future teacher appraisal component might compromise the constructive relationship between observers and teachers.

In a separate Spring 2012 focus group, REACH principals reported limited knowledge about the peer observation program in the first year, but expressed mostly favorable attitudes toward the program. They did, however, express concerns with possible incongruences between the ratings teachers received from administrators and the ratings they received from peer observers. Data suggested a somewhat weak relationship between administrator and peer

observation ratings, which likely reflected differences in the descriptors that defined what administrators and peer observers were supposed to rate. As a result of the challenges and concerns identified during the first year, changes were made to the observational rubric, peer observers received additional training in certain content areas, and processes were implemented to ensure greater communication between principals and peer observers.

Additional evidence from the second year (Schmitt, 2013) suggested peer observation was a fairly reliable and valid measure of teachers' classroom instruction. Teachers' scores from peer observations during the same school year were moderately related to each other, and also were moderately related to other measures, including their students' growth and their administrators' and students' ratings of their teaching. This suggests peer observation measured aspects of classroom instruction similar to aspects that were assessed in other ways. Changes to the observational rubric in 2012–2013 likely suppressed the magnitude of the stability in peer observation ratings over time that might otherwise have been found; nevertheless, ratings were moderately stable from year to year. In fact, peer observation ratings were equally as stable across years as were administrators' appraisal scores at the high school level.

Data showed that those who scored higher were more likely than were those with lower scores to have agreed peer observation was a good idea. It is noteworthy, however, that even though novice teachers scored lower, on average, than did non-novice teachers in 2012–2013, they were in fact more likely than their experienced peers to have agreed peer observation was a good idea (Schmitt, 2013). Novice teachers at REACH schools were accustomed to regular classroom observation and feedback from their assigned mentor teachers, which may have predisposed them to more favorable attitudes about classroom observation in general.

Unfortunately, the options for assessing changes in teachers' instructional practices over time were limited. Peer observation scores improved from Spring 2012 to Spring 2013 and from the first observation to the second observation during 2012–2013 for teachers who had scored in the bottom quartile initially. Thus, those in greatest need of improvement did improve. However, aside from administrators' ratings and peer observation scores, no other instructional measure was available for all teachers at multiple time points. Additionally, the survey measures used for assessing instructional practices (i.e., data use, reflective teaching, and collaboration) did not necessarily address the behaviors that may have improved through peer observation and feedback. Because peer observers typically identified and discussed two specific areas for improvement during their post-observation conferences with teachers, the available observational and survey data may not have sufficiently addressed the areas on which teachers focused their efforts for instructional improvements. To truly evaluate the influence of peer observation on teachers' practice, another measure would be necessary.

However, it was possible to examine teachers' opinions regarding whether peer observation was useful to them and their students. Although many still questioned the qualifications of their peer observers (Lamb, Schmitt, Gross, & Cornetto, 2013), the majority of teachers did, in fact, report peer observation was a good idea (Schmitt, 2013). Most were satisfied with the support they received from their peer observer and agreed their peer observer collaborated with them to improve their teaching. Additionally, the majority said they often considered the feedback they received during the post-observation conferences. Many even reported their students had benefitted from the feedback they received. Thus, it seems peer observation was a well-received program that many teachers, especially at the elementary and high schools, valued.

Overall, evidence indicated many teachers valued the quality of feedback they received, and the majority of teachers reported peer observation was a good idea. Some teachers reported concerns that peer observers did not have teaching experience in their own content area or grade level, but evidence suggested peer observation was a reliable and valid measure of teachers' classroom instruction. Most teachers were satisfied with the support they received from their peer observer and agreed their peer observer collaborated with them to improve their teaching; however, results did not show peer observation changed teachers' instructional practices in the specific ways that were measured. Better ways of assessing the influence of peer observation on teachers' classroom instruction are necessary so studies may rely on more than teachers' perceptions of the program when evaluating its effectiveness.

SCHOOLWIDE GROWTH

REACH educators were rewarded for achieving high student growth in reading and math. Two versions of the schoolwide growth program element were implemented. From 2007–2008 through 2009–2010, AISD educators at REACH schools that achieved the top quartile of growth among similar schools in Texas on the TAKS in reading and/or math (i.e., Comparable Improvement; see Texas Education Agency, 2011) received stipends for schoolwide growth. In 2010–2011, schoolwide growth was replaced with a "basket of measures" containing goals in four areas (Box 4). The basket of measures was more rigorous than the original REACH schoolwide growth measure because (a) it included three goals in addition to growth on the state reading and math assessments, and (b) schools were required to demonstrate significant growth in both reading and math to achieve the value-added goal.

Over time, the percentage of REACH schools earning stipends for schoolwide growth fluctuated between 19% and 67%. The 2 years with highest percentages of schools earning stipends occurred before the change from using Comparable Improvement to using the basket of measures (Table 2). However, the percentage of schools that met the standard for growth in reading or math each year for either Comparable Improvement or value-added was not distinctly different before or after the change in stipend criteria (Figure 3). Thus, the additional requirements for the basket of measures appear to have resulted in fewer schools earning stipends.

Research examining whether schools with incentives for schoolwide growth in reading and math (i.e., REACH schools) outperformed those

BOX 4. What is the basket of measures?

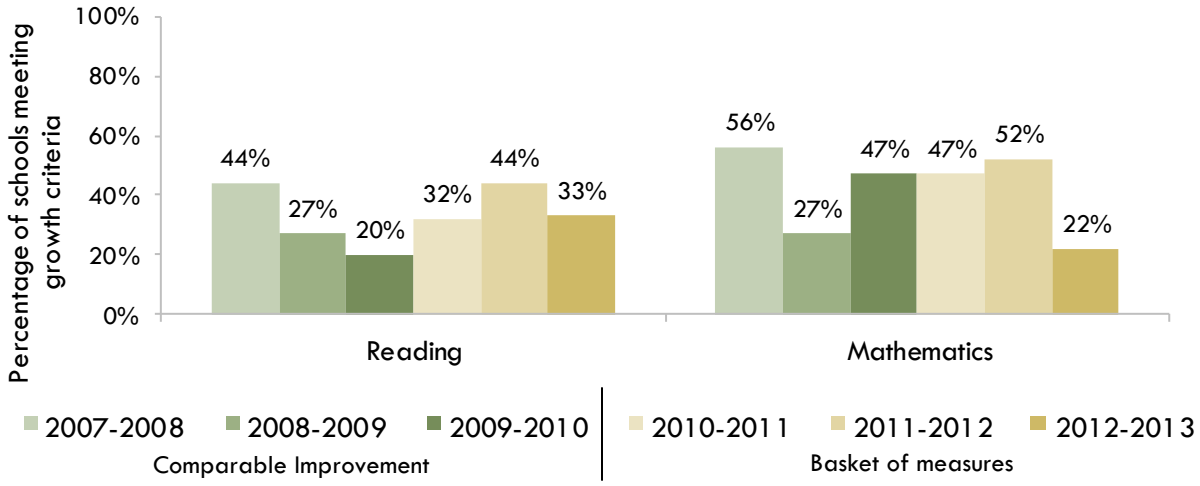
The basket of measures is designed to motivate staff at REACH schools to pursue common goals to improve students' achievement. In addition to having a predetermined goal for value-added in reading and math, faculty examine data to identify goals in three other areas: (a) TAKS/ STAAR performance, (b) college readiness, and (c) campus choice. Goals are approved by associate superintendents and central office REACH staff. Educators at schools that meet three out of the four goals each receive $2,000; those at schools meeting all four goals each receive $3,000. For examples of basket of measures indicators, visit http:// www.austinisd.org/reach/basket-measures

Table 2. Percentage of Schools Earning Schoolwide Growth Stipends, 2007–2008 Through 2012–2013

	Year	REACH schools earning stipends
Comparable Improvement for reading and math	2007–2008	67%
	2008–2009	27%
	2009–2010	53%
Basket of measures	2010–2011	32%
	2011–2012	19%
	2012–2013	25%

Source. REACH schoolwide growth database

Figure 3. Percentage of Schools That Met Schoolwide Growth Criteria for Reading and Math, 2007–2008 Through 2012–2013



without incentives (i.e., non-REACH comparison schools) found no difference between REACH and comparison schools in the reading growth achieved, and limited evidence that schools with incentives achieved greater growth in math than did those without incentives. For example, in 2007–2008, REACH schools outperformed their comparison peers on schoolwide growth in math (Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al.,2009), but the pattern was not maintained in the subsequent years in which the Comparable Improvement method was used to measure and reward schoolwide growth (Cornetto et al., 2010; Lamb, Schmitt, & Cornetto, 2011). Additionally, in later years, EVAAS scores in reading and math were not significantly different for REACH schools in the first three program cohorts and their comparison schools (Schmitt, 2014). Feedback from program participants regarding the schoolwide growth program component was generally neutral, but indicated the original Comparable Improvement method of measuring schoolwide growth did not provide the desired incentive for educators to alter their practices (Cornetto et al., 2010). Participants reported similar opinions regarding the newer basket of measures (Lamb & Schmitt, 2012a).

The basket of measures, like SLOs, was intended to increase school performance by improving the use of data, collaboration among school faculty, and reflective teaching practices (Figure 1). Teachers may become more proficient with the instructional practices associated with the process (i.e., data use, collaboration, and reflective teaching) as they gain experience working toward common goals, and schools with more such experience may be more likely to meet their goals in the future. Schools where faculty work toward common goals should also have better student performance in those targeted areas than do similar schools without common goals.

Indeed, the average levels of collaboration and reflective teaching were higher in 2012–2013 at elementary schools with more years of experience in the REACH program than at those with fewer years in REACH (Schmitt, 2014). This suggests school faculties with more experience

setting and working toward common goals may demonstrate better instructional practices than do those with less such experience. However, neither years of experience with school-wide goal setting (i.e., years in REACH) nor ratings for data use, collaboration, and reflective teaching were significantly related to the number of targets schools met in their basket of measures. Thus, the likelihood of meeting schoolwide growth targets was not influenced by either teachers' instructional practices or their experience with a formalized goal-setting process. Additionally, results did not suggest a relationship between having or meeting schoolwide STAAR reading or math performance goals and students' SLO performance, and results provided limited evidence that attendance rate goals led to improvements (Appendix A).

The percentage of teachers' students who met their reading or math SLOs did not appear to differ between schools that set and did not set STAAR goals in reading or math, nor did REACH schools that set an attendance goal have better attendance rates than did those without an attendance goal (Appendix A). However, secondary REACH schools with attendance goals improved more from the previous year than did schools without attendance goals. Differences between the attendance improvements of REACH and non-REACH comparison schools were not statistically significant, but nearly significant results suggested a need for further study (Appendix A).

Analyses regarding Comparable Improvement and the basket of measures were hampered by small sample sizes, particularly when conducted separately for elementary and secondary schools, and especially for the subset of schools in the first three cohorts. Additionally, results were confounded by the likelihood that any differences between REACH and comparison schools reflected the influence of multiple REACH program elements (i.e., SLOs, PDUs, and Peer Observation), rather than effects of the schoolwide growth program element alone.

Despite these limitations, however, some findings pertaining to the schoolwide growth program element were noteworthy. Overall, evidence did not suggest the REACH schoolwide growth stipends for gains in reading and math operated effectively as incentives. Additionally, no relationship was found between performance on schoolwide goals and factors such as years in the program; teachers' instructional practices (i.e., data use, collaboration, and reflective teaching); or SLO performance. However, results provided evidence for cautious optimism regarding the influence of establishing schoolwide attendance rate goals.

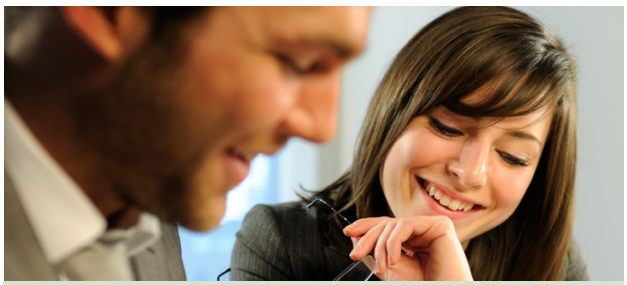
NOVICE TEACHER MENTORING

The novice teacher mentoring program, a key element of AISD REACH, was designed to facilitate the high-quality instruction that leads to student growth, and to support critical beliefs and attitudes associated with teacher retention (Figure 1). REACH teachers in their first 3 years of teaching were provided a mentor whose sole responsibility was supporting a group of novice teachers (Box 5). From 2007–2008 through 2012–2013, REACH mentors supported a total of 1,000 teachers (Table 3).

Table 3. Number of Teachers Served by REACH Mentors, 2007–2008 Through 2012–2013

Year	Number of new teachers served
2007–2008	85
2008–2009	115
2009–2010	195
2010–2011	239
2011–2012	300
2012–2013	433
Total (unduplicated)	1,000

Source. REACH mentor teacher database



BOX 5. What is the REACH novice teacher mentoring program?

REACH teachers in their first 3 years of teaching receive formal, ongoing support from full-release mentors who each serve approximately 10 new teachers. The mentors are experienced former teachers who receive extensive training in new teacher development to work and collaborate with new teachers in their classrooms. Mentors observe instruction, collaborate on lesson plans, and offer guidance on the challenges teachers face every day. Mentors and novice teachers engage in a confidential, non-evaluative, learner-centered relationship, with a focus on accelerating the development of the novice teacher's skills while supporting the school's academic goals and vision. For more information, visit http://www.austinisd.org/reach/mentors

Despite challenges with the first year of implementation (Malerba, Bush-Richards, & Schmitt, 2008), educators at REACH schools strongly valued the mentoring program and the support it provided for new teachers as well as for the faculty as a whole (Cornetto, 2013; Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a; Cornetto & Schmitt, 2012; Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al., 2009; Schmitt, Malerba, Cornetto, & Bush-Richards, 2008). In Spring 2011, 2012, and 2013, novice teachers at REACH schools were significantly more likely than their peers at comparison schools to agree that the additional support they received as new teachers improved their instructional practice, helped them to have an impact on their students' learning, and was important in their decision to continue teaching in their schools (Cornetto, 2013). Additionally, even veteran teachers and principals reported a multitude of benefits REACH mentors provided for their schools (Cornetto, 2013; Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a, 2012; Schmitt et al., 2008; Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al.,

2009). For example, 100% of AISD REACH principals who responded to a Spring 2013 survey agreed that "it is valuable for me to have the AISD REACH mentor(s) on my campus," and even teachers who never had a REACH mentor described ways the mentors supported all teachers. REACH mentors were required to log each discrete mentoring event and to code events into categories based on the primary focus/goal of the event. Each year from 2008–2009 through 2012–2013, the "campus support" category ranked among the top categories of support mentors provided (Cornetto, 2013). Although much of the campus support was provided alongside their mentees (e.g., participation in morning duty with mentees or attending Back-to-School events with mentees), REACH mentors also supported their schools in other ways. Teachers in focus groups described how mentors assisted the entire school through activities designed to support teachers in a strategic and efficient way, such as participation in grade level/ department meetings or partnerships with veteran teachers and instructional coaches (Schmitt et al., 2008; Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al., 2009).

Evidence indicated REACH mentors were focused on the needs of mentees and their students, and that when a teacher was truly struggling, mentors used strategies to ensure the students got what they needed (Cornetto, 2013). Most of the mentors' activities (~85%) were directly related to mentee support (Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a), but the amount of time spent on specific activities differed according to teachers' needs. Mentors spent more time with struggling teachers than with other teachers on certain activities (e.g, co-teaching, co-planning, and analyzing student work), reflecting a programmatic decision to ensure students stayed on track without gaps in their classroom experience. Mentors spent more time with non-struggling teachers than with struggling teachers on other activities, such as gathering additional resources, providing support, goal setting, and providing post-observational feedback (Cornetto, 2013).

The degree of separation between mentors and students, along with challenges related to the measurement of teacher practice, limited the ability to determine the ways in which REACH mentors affected the teaching and learning process. However, early studies indicated students of REACH novice teachers demonstrated growth that was comparable to that of the students of their more experienced peers on SLOs (Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009) and state assessments (Cornetto et al., 2010). Thus, the potentially detrimental effects of having a novice teacher did not appear to have affected the performance of novice teachers' students at REACH schools. Additionally, teachers with more years of REACH mentoring had greater effectiveness index scores (based on observations and SLO performance) than did teachers with fewer years of REACH mentoring (Cornetto, 2013).

Evidence also suggested REACH mentors influenced teachers' self-efficacy. REACH novice teachers had greater self-efficacy than did their comparison school peers (Cornetto, 2013; Cornetto et al., 2010), and teachers with more years of REACH mentoring reported greater teaching self-efficacy than did teachers with the same amount of teaching experience but

fewer years of REACH mentoring (Cornetto, 2013). Additionally, results indicated that when mentors provided more classroom observation and feedback, and when mentors provided more support with classroom management, novice teachers felt more supported and had greater self-efficacy than when mentors spent less time on these activities (Cornetto & Schmitt, 2012). Years of mentoring support was not associated with greater job satisfaction or attachment to teaching (Cornetto, 2013), but REACH mentoring support was related to novice teacher retention.

After one year of the REACH mentoring program, novice teacher retention rates increased at a faster rate at REACH schools than at their similar high-needs comparison schools (Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009). Additionally, novice teacher retention rates in subsequent years also were more favorable for teachers served by REACH mentors than for their comparison school peers (Cornetto, 2010b, 2011, 2013). Evidence suggested the mentoring program's influence on novice teacher retention may have improved with new mentoring cohorts over time as the program evolved (Cornetto, 2011). Additionally, results showed that the novice teachers who left had significantly lower administrator and peer observation scores than did those who stayed; thus, REACH schools retained the most effective novice teachers. However, data indicated that although REACH novice teachers were retained at a greater rate than their comparison peers while they were being served, and that those who remained were more effective than those who left, teachers were not necessarily more likely to remain at the school after they exited the mentoring program (Cornetto, 2013).

Overall, educators at REACH schools also strongly valued the mentoring program and the support it provided for new teachers as well as for the faculty as a whole. Evidence indicated mentors focused on teachers' unique instructional needs, and that students of REACH novice teachers performed comparably to students of their more experienced peers. Results suggested REACH novice teachers had greater self-efficacy than did their peers at similar non-REACH schools, and that REACH mentoring support was related to novice teacher retention. However, data also indicated although REACH novice teachers were retained at a greater rate than their comparison peers while they were being served, the influence of mentoring on teacher retention was not necessarily sustained once teachers exited the mentoring program.

RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

The REACH recruitment and retention stipends were intended to reward teachers for their decision to teach in a high-needs school and to encourage them to remain in the same school. Through teacher retention, school staff were expected to develop the stability that supports collaboration critical for students' success.

Because the program, itself, may have influenced teacher retention, the influence of stipends, specifically, was unclear. In 2009 and 2010, REACH teachers reported neutral opinions regarding whether the recruitment/retention stipend influenced their decision to stay at or come to the school (Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010b). Yet, in 2013, elementary and middle school teachers reported retention stipends had the most positive impact of all REACH stipends on their decision to remain at the campus, and indicated retention stipends outweighed many other school factors in the decision (Appendix B). In fact, teachers indicated REACH stipends of all types and the opportunity to participate in specific program elements outweighed all but one of nine school working conditions (relationships among campus staff) in terms of positive impact on the decision to stay. Over time, the retention stipend may have become more important to retention decisions, and the program as a whole may have positively influenced decisions to remain at the school.

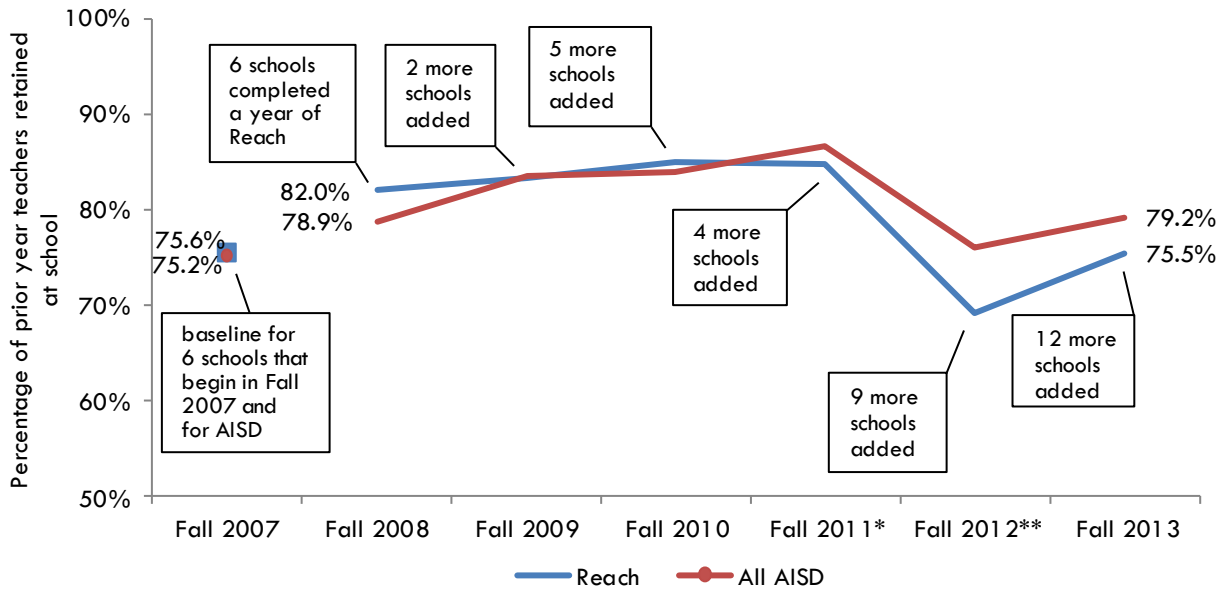
BOX 6. What are the recruitment and retention stipends?

To retain teachers at hard-to-staff schools, teachers received stipends for coming to and remaining at REACH schools. From 2007–2008 through 2012–2013, teachers who had taught at the school for 1 to 3 years received $1,000 and those who had taught at the school for 4 or more years received $3,000. Beginning in Fall 2013, retention stipends were awarded only to teachers who met SLOs the previous year ($1,000 for one, $3,000 for two) or who were new to the campus and also highly qualified according to the federal definition of a highly qualified teacher ($1,000). Half the recruitment/ retention stipend was awarded at the beginning of the school year, and the remaining half was awarded at the completion of the school year. For more information, visit http://www.austinisd.org/reach/program-overview.

Early results from focus groups, surveys, and transfer requests suggested the REACH program, itself, may have influenced teachers' decisions about whether to remain at their schools (Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al., 2009). Teachers reported the program provided incentives for them not to transfer, leave the profession, or retire. REACH novice teachers were among the most vocal in their statements regarding the influence of REACH on their retention, consistently reporting their mentors positively influenced their decision to return the following year (Cornetto & Schmitt, 2012; Schmitt, Cornetto, Lamb, et al., 2009).

Before REACH began, the percentage of teachers who returned to their schools was similar for teachers at all schools in AISD and for teachers at schools in the first REACH cohort (Figure 4). After a year of implementation, more teachers returned to their REACH schools than returned to schools in AISD, suggesting a slight improvement due to REACH. As new schools were added, retention rates for REACH and all AISD teachers remained similar until Fall 2012, when the percentage of REACH teachers returning to their schools dropped more than did the percentage districtwide.

Figure 4. Percentage of Teachers Who Returned to Their Schools, REACH and All AISD, Fall 2007 Through Fall 2013



*Excludes teachers who were not renewed due to reduction in force
**Excludes early childhood and prekindergarten teachers due to the opening of new schools
Source. PEIMS 90 records
Note. REACH data exclude four schools that started REACH but did not continue

However, the addition of new REACH schools each year made the comparison of REACH with all AISD problematic. Not only was the potential REACH program effect diluted each year, the schools that entered REACH in the last three cohorts were strikingly dissimilar to the other schools in AISD. For this reason, REACH retention studies examined REACH schools relative to similar other schools.

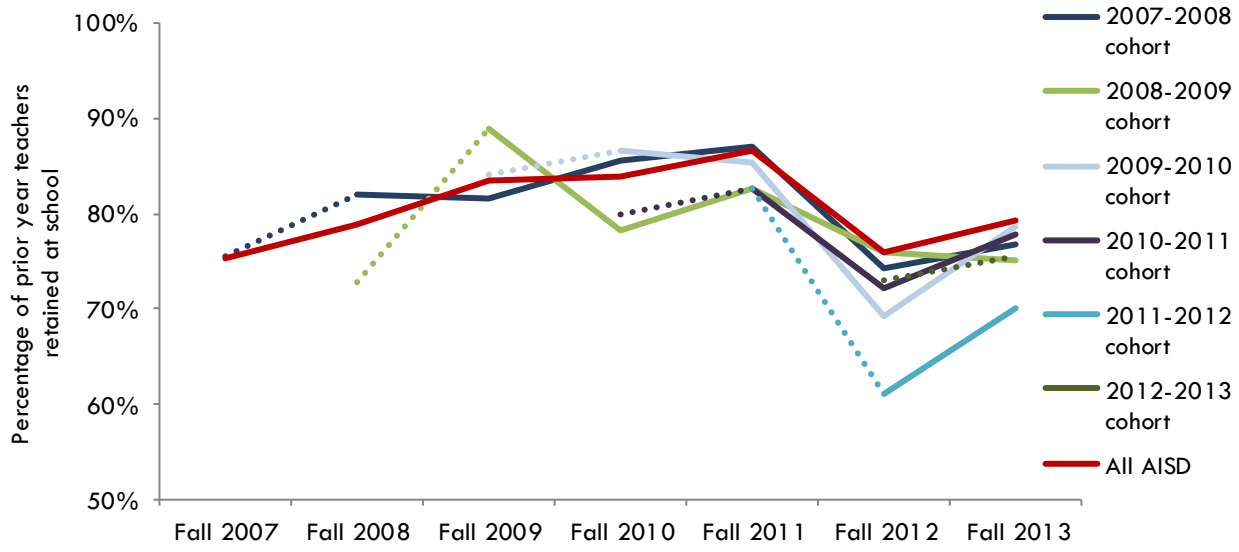
Early reports showed no significant differences between the annual retention rates for REACH teachers and for teachers at similar comparison schools (Cornetto, 2011; Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a; Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009). However, the rate of improvement in retention was significantly better for REACH novice teachers than for their comparison school peers (Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a; Schmitt, Cornetto, Malerba, et al., 2009). Additionally, results suggested the program had progressively more influence on novice teacher retention

with subsequent mentoring cohorts (Cornetto, 2011; Cornetto & Schmitt, 2010a). These studies were not continued, however, because they included schools that did not remain in the REACH program.

Longitudinal retention analyses also were hindered by the lack of available comparison schools for REACH schools in the last three program cohorts because, as the program expanded, all remaining similar schools became part of the REACH program. Without comparison schools for reference, retention analyses were limited to examinations of trends within program cohorts in comparison with the trend for the district. When compared with the district retention rate, REACH teacher retention rates were bolstered upon initial program implementation. Rates improved after the first year of program implementation in five of six cohorts (Figure 5). However, the increases were not sustained.

Most program cohorts began with school retention rates lower than the overall AISD school retention rate, and remained below the school retention rate for AISD after the initial bump following the first year. The two cohorts whose baseline school retention rates nearly matched the district's school retention rate prior to implementation (2007–2008 and 2009–2010) continued to mirror the district's rate. However, REACH did not appear to have closed the school retention rate gap between high needs schools and the district.

Figure 5. Percentage of Teachers Who Returned to Their Schools, REACH Cohorts and All AISD, Fall 2007 Through Fall 2013



Source. PEIMS 90 records
Note. Data exclude four schools that started REACH but did not continue, teachers who were not renewed due to reduction in force, and status of early childhood and prekindergarten teachers for Fall 2012. Dashed lines indicate the change from the baseline year to the first year after implementation.

CONCLUSION

A body of evaluation research from 6 years of the AISD REACH program provided evidence the program likely influenced student performance, teacher practices, and novice teacher retention. The ever-changing population of program schools, and the resulting elimination of potential similar non-REACH comparison schools, created challenges for longitudinal analyses and for the isolation of program effects. Additionally, the targeted nature of certain program elements (i.e., SLOs, PDUs, Peer Observation) likely restricted the possibility of finding significant linkages between the program and the types of broad student and teacher outcomes that were available for research. Nevertheless, some favorable program effects did emerge.

Specifically, results indicated program success with regard to students' passing rates and gains on state assessments, and suggested a relationship between SLOs and students' performance on state assessments. The program also appeared to have influenced teachers' professional collaboration and data use, and results showed a positive program influence on novice teachers' retention rates. Additionally, continuous feedback from participants suggested the program benefitted teachers in a variety of other ways. For example, PDU participants consistently reported PDUs were valuable and supported their instruction. Although the influence of PDUs on broad student outcomes was not established, each PDU was scored on the impact it made for students in the specific area of focus. The fact that most PDUs demonstrated an impact on students in a specific area suggests the PDU process did indeed foster instructional practices that resulted in improved student achievement.

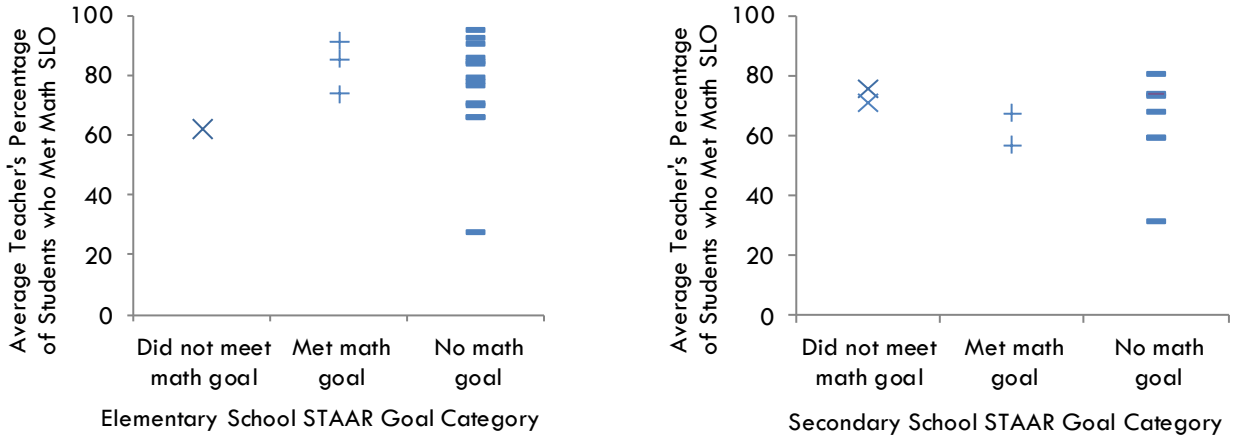
However, little evidence was found that schoolwide growth or retention stipends facilitated the desired results. Results did not indicate rewards either for schoolwide growth in reading or math, or for achieving the basket of measures, were effective incentives. Teachers described not only a lack of understanding about how to achieve the necessary reading and math performance gains, but also a lack of awareness regarding the schoolwide goals that were in their basket of measures. With the exception of attendance rate goals, the basket of measures did not appear to have influenced schoolwide performance in targeted areas. Additionally, retention rates for teachers at participating schools did not suggest the program made a significant difference for teachers' retention rates. Although the retention rates may have improved for some schools, an overall program effect on retention was not evident. Thus, the retention stipends did not operate as intended.

Additional evidence regarding the nuanced influence of specific program elements (e.g., peer observation and PDUs) would provide more information about the aspects of the program that are most critical for supporting high quality instruction. Nevertheless, the review of AISD REACH evaluation research to date suggests the program as a whole supported teachers and students at high-poverty schools in ways that facilitated educator development and student performance.

APPENDICES

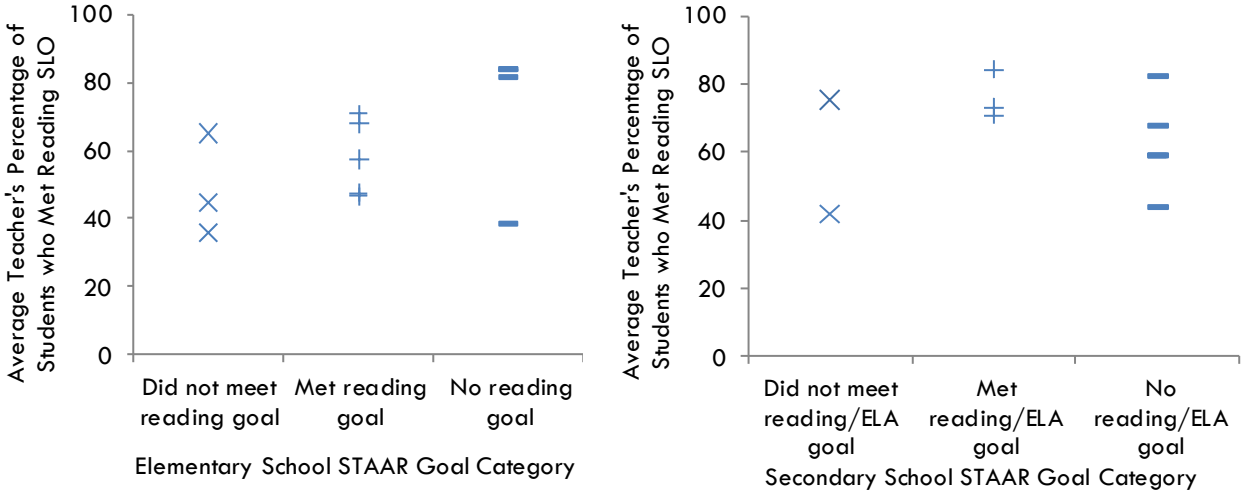
Appendix A. Student Learning Objective (SLO) and Attendance Rate Performance by Performance on Basket of Measures Goals

Figure A1. Average Percentage of Students Who Met Teachers' Math SLOs in STAAR Grades for Schools That Did Not Meet, Met, or Did Not Set Schoolwide Math STAAR Goals for the Basket of Measures



Source. SLO database, Basket of Measures database
Note. Results are limited to schools with at least four teachers in STAAR grades who set SLOs in math.

Figure A2. Average Percentage of Students Who Met Teachers' Reading/English Language Arts (ELA) SLOs in STAAR Grades for Schools That Did Not Meet, Met, or Did Not Set Schoolwide Reading/ELA STAAR Goals for the Basket of Measures

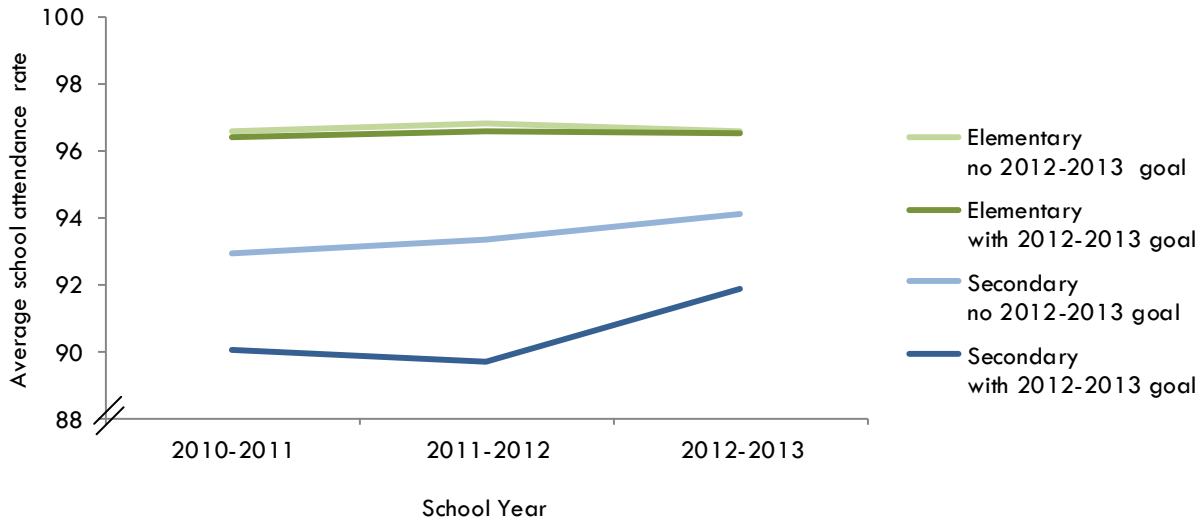


Source. SLO database, Basket of Measures database
Note. Results are limited to schools with at least four teachers in STAAR grades who set SLOs in reading/ELA.

Appendix A. Student Learning Objective (SLO) and Attendance Rate Performance by Performance on Basket of Measures Goals (continued)

Table A1. Results for Paired *T*-tests Examining Change in Attendance Rate From 2010–2011 to 2011–2012 vs. Change in Attendance Rate from 2011–2012 to 2012–2013 for REACH Schools With and Without Attendance Rate Goals in the 2012–2013 Basket of Measures

		Change in attendance rate, 2010–2011 to 2012–2013		Change in attendance rate, 2011–2012 to 2012–2013		
School level	n	Mean change in rate	Standard deviation	Mean change in rate	Standard deviation	*t*
Elementary						
No attendance goal	8	.20	.61	-.19	.35	-1.62
Attendance goal	17	.16	.37	-.05	.32	-1.53
Secondary						
No attendance goal	4	.43	.75	.75	.68	0.47
Attendance goal	7	-.33	1.01	2.13	1.61	3.51*

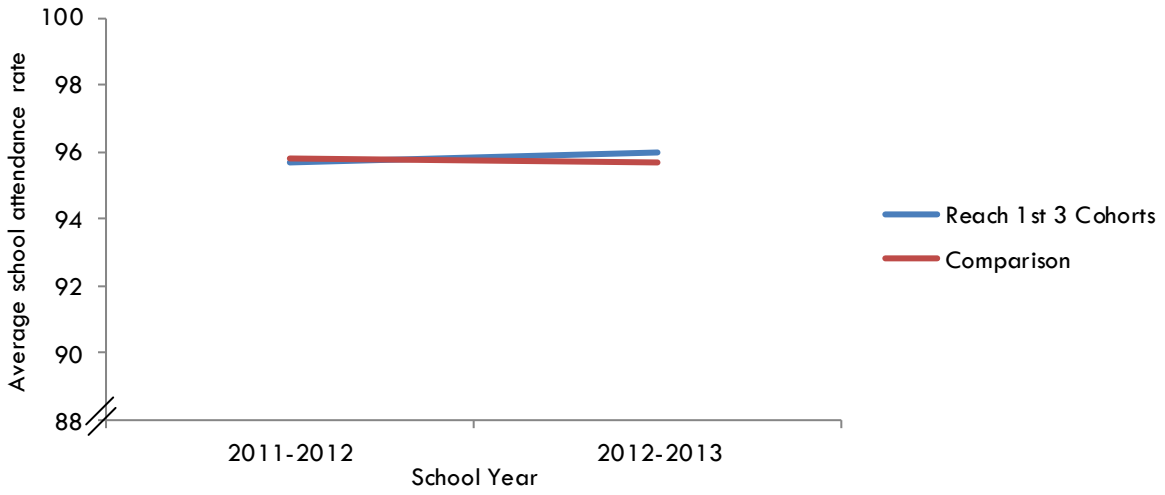


Source. 2012–2013 TAPR, PEIMS Edit+, Basket of Measures database
*$p < .05$

Appendix A. Student Learning Objective (SLO) and Attendance Rate Performance by Performance on Basket of Measures Goals (continued)

Table A2. Results for Paired *T*-tests Examining Change in Attendance Rate from 2011–2012 to 2012–2013 for REACH Schools from the First Three Cohorts With Attendance Rate Goals in the 2012–2013 Basket of Measures Compared With Their Comparison Schools

		Change in Attendance Rate, 2011-2012 to 2012-2013						
	n	Mean 2011–2012	Mean 2012–2013	Change 2011–2012 to 2012–2013	Difference in change	Standard deviation	*t*	*p*
REACH 1st 3 cohorts	9	95.66	95.97	.31	.43	.63	2.06	.07
Comparison schools	9	95.82	95.70	-.12				



Source. 2012–2013 TAPR, PEIMS Edit+, Basket of Measures database

Appendix B. Ratings for Factors Related to Retention, Spring 2013

Table B1. Average Ratings for the Extent to Which the Following Factors Impact Teachers' Decision to Remain at Their Campus, Spring 2013

	All	Elementary	Middle	High
Retention stipends for staying at your school	2.97	3.09	3.44	2.37
Stipend for Individual SLOs	2.74	3.01	2.93	2.70
Stipend for team SLOs	2.54	2.81	2.92	2.76
Participation in individual SLOs	2.25	2.63	2.69	3.05
Relationships among campus staff	2.22	2.33	2.30	2.35
Stipend for campus Basket of Measures	2.05	2.36	1.72	2.52
Stipend for Peer Observation	1.99	2.09	1.62	2.35
Participation in team SLOs	1.93	2.50	2.00	3.26
REACH Novice Teacher Mentoring	1.75	1.63	2.67	2.90
Participation in campus Basket of Measures	1.74	1.93	1.78	2.57
Stipend for PDUs	1.72	2.12	1.62	2.77
Participation in Peer Observation	1.64	1.84	1.55	2.58
Opportunity to participate in PDUs	1.59	1.91	1.50	2.66
School facilities and resources	1.56	1.83	1.25	2.61
Available time to collaborate with colleagues	1.43	1.41	1.74	2.16
Class sizes	1.37	1.75	1.24	2.66
Teacher leadership opportunities	1.09	1.04	1.68	2.57
Campus leadership	1.02	1.10	2.14	3.31
Expectations for employees' use of non-instructional time	0.50	0.84	0.60	2.67
Campus procedures for student behavior management	0.43	0.76	0.03	3.03
Parent involvement	0.26	0.73	-0.19	2.18

Source. 2013 Employee Coordinated Survey
Note. Each item was rated on a scale ranging from –5 to 5, where –5 = negative impact: causes me to consider leaving and 5 = positive impact: causes me to consider staying.

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