A FOUCAULDIAN GENEALOGY OF TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS DISCOURSE: EXPLORING THE IMPACT ON ART EDUCATION

by

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(Under the Direction of Christina Hanawalt)

ABSTRACT

Foucauldian genealogy provides a space to think differently. Through an analysis of policy documents from the field of education and practitioner-oriented publications in the field of art education from 1983 to 2019, this genealogical dissertation traced the emergence of teacher effectiveness as a normalized discourse in educational policy and explored the impact of teacher effectiveness on the field of art education. Enabling conditions, such as the perception of a failing educational system in the United States, the prevalence of a market-based approach to education, and the shift in focus from teacher training programs to the individual teacher came to the fore as major contributors to the emergence of teacher effectiveness as a normalized discourse. While the COVID-19 pandemic, the parental testing opt-out movement, and the counter-narratives to A Nation at Risk acted as discontinuities that threatened the collapse of the discourse of teacher effectiveness, the discourse persisted. Despite the common perception that art educators exist outside of the purview of educational policy and the discourses policy supports, this dissertation demonstrates the consequential impact of teacher effectiveness discourse on the field of art education. The discourse of teacher effectiveness produces art

educators as teaching subjects, influencing the ways in which art educators are trained, evaluated, and judged at the local level.

INDEX WORDS: Genealogy, Governmentality, Michel Foucault, Poststructuralism, Art Education, Accountability, Policy, Teacher Effectiveness, Teacher Evaluation

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DEDICATION

To Papa Bobby, the only person who will happily and proudly read this from cover to cover.

To that former elementary school student, who I saw at ninth grade open house, who said "You're STILL NOT a doctor yet?!" Thank you for the motivation.

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To my amazing supporters, Adam and Brooke, who did everything in their power to make this possible for me.

To my committee, who guided and supported me along the way with their brilliance.

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CHAPTER ONE

> We have to know the historical conditions which motivate our conceptualization. We need ahistorical awareness of our present circumstances. (Foucault, 1982, p. 778)

Introduction

"Do you guys have standards for art?" I looked dumbfounded at my assistant principal as I tried to remember my nice, little Southern manners. There was classroom bustle all around me and all I could remember thinking was "*Do NOT do that thing with your eye right now that you do when you're annoyed!*" Standing in my K-5 art classroom during my first classroom observation, it hit me how undervalued I was in the school community. The person who got paid to evaluate my performance and my worth as a teacher did not know if my content area had teaching standards. I politely explained that we had both state and national fine art standards and directed her to the standards displayed on my wall. This experience shaped my perception of self as an art educator and my relationship to the field. I was aware that educational policies and mandates impacted me as an art educator, but I became interested in knowing enough about their impact on the art classroom to inform others.

While policy documents may appear drab, they bring with them a fascinating, and sometimes terrifying, mode of being. Mere words on a seemingly unexciting document bring loads of baggage and floods of change to the educational landscape. Providing a guide for considering educational policy as discourse, Stephen Ball (2015a) noted, "Policies both change what we do…and what we are " (p. 306). Ball (2015a) continued, "We do not *do* policy, policy *does* us" (p. 307). Once one thinks educational policy as a productive discourse, it appears

irresponsible to avoid a critical analysis of such policy. As an educator and researcher, I am astonished by the lack of concentration on educational policy in the field of art education – just look at how much it *does*!

Policy documents are surrounded by a storm of productive and powerful forces - the historical moments that allowed the policy to emerge, the state and local interpretations of the policy, and the ways in which those interpretations produce localized discourses that construct individuals. Educational policy discursively influences the ways in which "teacher subjects and subject positions are formed and re-reformed by policy" and the ways in which teachers are expected "to speak, listen, act, read, think, feel, behave and value in particular and specific ways" (Ball, 2015a, p. 307).

As a current K-12 educator, I have grown increasingly intrigued by the impact that educational policy documents have on the making of an educator. A new policy, signed into law, brings an overwhelming wave of change to a school building. Educational policies impact the language used in the school building, the actions of teachers and administrators, and the material objects within the school building. Educational policies reach beyond the paper document and form a discourse that impacts the expectations and norms of school culture.

In the last 60 years, attempts by the state and national governments to raise academic standards and improve educational opportunities for the nation's children have multiplied. The country's newfound focus on education in the 1960's gave birth to an overflow of educational policies that have pervaded the educational community since. More than simple linguistic documents, educational policies are historically situated artifacts, formed within a particular discourse in the field of education. The productive discourse of teacher accountability emerged from educational policy and has shaped the way teachers are trained, evaluated, and supported

within the school context. Using Foucauldian genealogy, this dissertation will trace the conditions of existence that have allowed the current discourse of teacher effectiveness policy, a branch of teacher accountability, to become normalized.

Foucauldian genealogy begins with the feeling that something is amiss, that something in the present is "without history" and assumed to be true (Foucault, 1984/1971, p. 76). After spending a decade in the K-12 classroom as an art educator, the discourse of teacher accountability has grown into a truth that no longer appears to be questioned by the educators around me. Each school year is met with discussions of data-driven this and growth-percentile that, yet the startling difference is the response - no eye rolls, no scoffs - just a blanket acceptance that this is the way that education works now.

As an art educator, the term "effective teacher" raises red flags, especially when the determination of my effectiveness is established by those removed from the field of art education. Current policy defines "effective teacher" as one "whose students achieve high rates (e.g., at least one grade level in an academic year) of student growth" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 12). Additionally, effective professional development for effective teachers is defined as "ongoing and job-embedded," and might focus on "gathering, analyzing, and using data; designing instructional strategies for improvement; differentiating instruction; creating school environments supportive of data-informed decisions; designing instruction to meet the specific needs of high-need students" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 10). While policy documents may be written with well-intentioned goals, the reality is that they create a specific type of teaching subject through the discourses they normalize. The changes to policy to include an emphasis on teacher effectiveness produce material effects both inside and outside the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Teacher effectiveness policy is a productive force in the field of education. Looking around the school building, I see the material impact of teacher effectiveness discourse everywhere: the language of administrative emails, the constant surveillance of teachers, the limitations placed on professional development options, and the curricular choices made by teachers. As an art educator, I have been a part of a multitude of conversations over the years where fine arts teachers declared that a new policy or a new school expectation does not apply to them because of the course they teach. As much as I wanted policies clearly written for math or English language arts teachers not to apply to me, I could see they were producing changes in the ways that I engaged as a teacher. Using Foucauldian genealogy, I examined documents to explore the enabling conditions that produced the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy. Additionally, I explored how teacher effectiveness policy was maintained, regulated, and resisted and the ways in which teacher effectiveness policy functions in the field of art education.

Researcher's Context

As I write this dissertation, I am in my eleventh year of teaching in a rural Georgia public school district. I started my career teaching PK-5 art for seven years and have recently transitioned into teaching high school art in the same district. Throughout the process of teaching, I have obtained a master's degree and have worked on my doctoral degree, maintaining my position as a student myself during my years of teaching. I became increasingly interested over the years in the ways in which my teaching was influenced by changes outside of my control and eventually decided to focus my interest on the ways in which educational policy was

impacting my role as an art teacher. During an early graduate course, I was introduced to the idea that language was not innocent - words *do* things. This idea found its way into my journal over and over again, and I began to see that words like "differentiation," "effectiveness," and "growth" had real meaning in my classroom and in the school building. I eventually landed on the phrase "teacher effectiveness," a phrase that I found repeated around me - through emails, faculty meetings, documents, and personal communications with fellow teachers. I chose to explore that term further and realized the impact it had on my teaching, my access to professional development, and my evaluation as an educator. As I continued to trace the phrase, I realized the concept of "teacher effectiveness" had produced a discourse that was continually reproduced as truth and was normalized within public education. Throughout this dissertation, I trace the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness within the United States, but also take moments to zoom in to the specifics of my home state of Georgia.

Research Questions

1. What were the enabling conditions that made teacher effectiveness policy possible?
2. How is teacher effectiveness policy maintained, regulated, and resisted?
3. How does teacher effectiveness policy function in the field of art education?

The first question focuses on the historical discursive formation of teacher effectiveness policy: *What were the enabling conditions that made teacher effectiveness policy possible?* Enabling conditions are defined as "the conditions of possibility for the emergence of a discourse" (Van Cleave, 2012, p. 48). According to Prado (2000), genealogists "pay close attention to enabling accidents and coincidences; we discount established essentialist histories" (p. 171). The genealogist considers an alternative view of history, one beyond the reductive view presented by the traditional historian. Instead of a search for origins, genealogy searches

for the historically situated, surrounding conditions that would allow a dominant discourse to emerge and to persist.

The second research question is an attempt to align my questioning with the non-essentializing traditions of poststructural theory: *How is teacher effectiveness policy maintained, regulated, and resisted?* Instead of asking an essentializing or a reductive question (i.e. what is teacher effectiveness policy?), I used a line of questioning inspired by Bové's (1995) *Discourse*. Bové (1995) proposed asking the following: "How does it [i.e. teacher effectiveness policy] function? Where is it to be found? How does it get produced and regulated? What are its social effects? How does it exist?" (p. 54). Questioning how a dominant discourse is maintained and regulated creates space to consider the power/knowledge dynamic that has allowed such a discourse to continue. Additionally, questioning the maintenance and regulation of a discourse makes necessary the investigation into the resistance of such a discourse. Burr (1995/2003) noted, "Power and resistance always go together for Foucault. Prevailing discourses are always under implicit threat from alternatives, which can dislodge them from their position of truth" (p. 80). Prevailing discourses are only dominant until they are not; genealogy provides a tool for the excessive questioning of and troubling of dominant discourses.

The final research question narrows attention to the specific impact that teacher effectiveness policy discourse has on the field of art education: *How does teacher effectiveness policy influence the field of art education?* The discourse of teacher effectiveness is productive, producing both material effects and a language of its own. The language legitimized by teacher effectiveness policy has produced new ways of teacher training, professional development, and of teacher evaluation that has impacted both K-12 and collegiate art educators directly. The field

of art education would benefit from a historical investigation into the educational policies that have shaped the ways in which art educators are trained and evaluated.

Poststructuralism

Foucauldian genealogy is a theoretical and analytic tool for researchers operating within the poststructural paradigm. Before moving forward, I will briefly situate poststructuralism and its relation to the positivist social sciences, interpretive social sciences, and critical social sciences. Lyotard (1979/1984) warned, "We are all stuck in the positivism of this or that discipline of learning" (p. 41). Positivism is a term used to describe an approach to science which "attempts to impose the rules, practices, and methodologies of the natural sciences on the social sciences" (Van Cleave, 2012, p. 58). Positivist social scientists endeavor to produce knowledge that is unambiguous and generalizable, assuming that a "fixed, measurable reality exists external to people" (Sanford, 2012, p. 5). Within educational research, an understanding of positivism is essential, as positivist research remains favored in the educational community, despite years of refusal from researchers thinking within alternative paradigms.

Interpretive and critical social sciences emerged as a critique of positivist social science in the mid-twentieth century. Both interpretive and critical approaches rejected the major tenets of positivism and claimed that humans were "deeply entangled in the world" and could not "detach themselves from it to discover value-free, brute facts" that could be generalized for anyone, anywhere (St. Pierre, 2012, p. 494). For those operating in the interpretive or critical paradigms, a single "Truth" would no longer be thinkable; instead, multiple truths or interpretations would become legitimized. While both interpretive and critical paradigms share in their understanding of truth, those working within the critical social sciences took interpretations a step further, toward the goal of emancipation from social injustice. While

interpretive social science existed to provide alternative descriptions of reality, critical social science existed to provide an emancipatory solution to problems of injustice perceived through conducted research.

Poststructuralism emerged at the same time as the turn toward interpretive and the critical social sciences, but with different goals in mind. While interpretive social scientists work to determine multiple descriptions of phenomena, and critical social scientists work to create pre-determined, positive change, poststructuralists work to determine the structure of the system in place that allows dominant ways of thinking and of being to exist. Contrary to interpretive and critical scientists, poststructuralists recognize that knowledge is "always locally determined," ongoing, and without a single solution (Lyotard, 1979/1984, p. 61).

Poststructuralism is a term used to categorize a vast group of diverse theoretical influences emerging from French philosophy and eventually making its way to the United States in the last half of the 20th century. Emerging from postmodernism in the arts, poststructuralism was the name assigned to those conducting critiques of structuralism in academia (St. Pierre, 2012). While all poststructural theorists are unique, they are unified in their opposition to the illusion of positivist certainty and their aversion to metanarratives. Rajchman (1987) concluded, "Post-structuralism is the philosophical expression of postmodernism that despises the enlightened values of science and democracy" (p. 50). While some poststructural theorists would have cautioned Rajchman's use of the word "despise," most would agree that poststructuralism exists to *critique* Enlightenment-inspired values and views of science. Foucault (1981/1988), wrote,

> Critique is not a matter of saying that things are not right as they are. It is a matter of pointing out what kinds of assumptions, [on] what kinds of familiar, unchallenged, unconsidered modes of thought the practices we accept rest. (p. 154)

Questioning and deeply examining the self-evident provides opportunities to reveal the accidents, contingencies, and jolts that have allowed common ways of thinking and being to emerge. According to St. Pierre (2012), the goal of the poststructural critique is "to take seriously such structures, which are necessarily exclusionary, to examine them so seriously that they deconstruct themselves, reveal their disciplinary goals and lose their innocence" (p. 496-497).

Foucault appeared to have a unique ability to critique both humanist ways of thinking and to critique existing structures while maintaining an encouraging demeanor. Through his archeological and genealogical analyses, Foucault aimed to critique a former mode of thinking only to create an opportunity for new ways of thinking. Foucault (1981/1988) explained that questioning assumptions, or exposing taken-for-granted "truths," evokes change: "one can no longer think things as one formerly thought them, [and] transformation becomes both very urgent, very difficult and quite possible" (p. 155). Deep investigation into the past to make sense of the present is necessary to provoke an opening up and an opportunity for change.

Why Genealogy?

Foucauldian genealogy complements poststructural skepticism, providing a tool to historically analyze the formation of prevalent discourses. Aiming to "grasp the formative power of discourse and disciplines," genealogy critiques the present by looking critically to the past (Bovė, 1995, p. 56). Foucault (1967/1997) explained the importance of a historical investigation of the existence of predominant discourses: "Those events functioned in relation to their original

situation, they left traces behind them, they continue to exist, and they exercise, in that very subsistence in history, a certain number of manifest or secret functions" (p. 289).

The genealogist provides a historical investigation into the commonplace discourses that dominate particular disciplines. In education, the discourse of teacher effectiveness has slowly produced a specific "truth" about teaching. The discourse of teacher effectiveness has produced a version of measuring teacher success that has overflowed into teacher evaluation, teacher training, and professional development. Genealogy provides an opportunity to critically analyze the truth produced by the discourse of teacher effectiveness and show that this truth is not a natural progression, but was produced by an overlapping of educational policy, political climate, and happenstance. May (1993) eloquently explained: "Truth itself requires a history – not a history of its progressive unfolding or of the obscuring of its original face, but a history of its creation and re-creation over time" (p. 74). Historical analysis provides a means to look critically at the dominant discourses of the present and to unveil how those discourses have produced a truth over time.

Teacher effectiveness policy is a productive discourse in education that has grown over the last half century, influencing the ways in which educators in the United States are trained, supported, and judged. While much educational policy is produced with noble goals, historical analysis provides researchers with the opportunity to dig into the actual impact of educational policy on the production of subjects in education.

In order to grasp the discursive formation of teacher effectiveness policy, one must look historically at discourses that have emerged from prior educational policy influencing the production of teachers as subjects. Foucauldian genealogy is a tool to examine the historical emergence of the present discourse of teacher effectiveness and to reveal that discourse as

socially and politically constructed. Foucauldian genealogy demonstrates that the dominant discourses that exist and shape us "are neither obvious, necessary, harmless, honourable nor coherent" (Baert, 1998, p. 123). Foucault (1981/1997) explained the necessity of historical analysis to understand the discourses that dominate our thoughts and actions:

> We have to dig deeply to show how things have been historically contingent, for such and such reason intelligible but not necessary. We must make the intelligible appear against a background of emptiness and deny its necessity. We must think that what exists is far from filling all possible spaces. (p. 139-140)

Revealing a non-linear development of a normalized discourse provides a space to reconsider the implications of the discourse and to imagine alternative possibilities.

As Prado (2000) explained, "When we attend to the discontinuities genealogy uncovers we come to understand what it is we actually do in speaking about people. Then we appreciate that "the subject" is what we say it is" (p. 58). When we reveal the unnatural, non-linear development of normalized ways of thinking, we begin to reveal the ways in which subjects, such as teachers, were made from these discursive formations. Teacher effectiveness policies and discourses produce certain types of teaching subjects; opening space for new discourses, or simply dismantling current discourses, provides an opportunity for new subjects to become thinkable. Foucauldian genealogy provides a means to analyze a current discourse that I feel is amiss and to situate that discourse historically to provide openings for alternative ways of being.

What About Art?

One of the struggles I have encountered with this study is how to incorporate the art classroom into the conversation. In my mind, it is all intertwined. I am living this policy, living these changing expectations, living these observations in my K-12 art classroom. I am wildly

aware that policy *creates* teaching subjects in the art classroom, as well as everywhere else in the school. Throughout the dissertation, I hope to illuminate those moments of policy intersecting teaching practice for the reader.

According to Hanawalt (2018), art educators typically "operate under the perception that art as a subject has remained largely outside the purview of accountability mandates" (p. 93). During the last ten years as a K-12 art educator, I have witnessed the changes that educational policies have had on my art curriculum, my professional development opportunities, and my annual evaluation processes. Hanawalt (2018) cautioned, "this (mis)perception may in fact be allowing the effects of the current audit culture on art education to go largely unnoticed" (p. 93). It is with this warning in mind that I explore the contributing effects of the governmental agenda of teacher effectiveness on the field of art education. Foucauldian genealogy reveals how the discourse of teacher accountability, and thus teacher effectiveness, has become a normalized truth in education. Once the messy history of the discourse of teacher effectiveness is disclosed, I begin to explore the effects that the discourse of teacher effectiveness has on the field of art education. Finally, I call on the field of art education to further explore how it plans to work within (or against) this existing structure.

Dissertation Structure

This dissertation is organized into six chapters. Chapter one provides the introduction to the study, the problem with the present, the research questions, and a brief introduction to the theories used in this study. Chapter two expands on the Foucauldian theories used to support this historical analysis and briefly explores how those theories were employed in the study. Chapter three provides a guide for data analysis, explaining how Foucauldian genealogy is used as analysis. Chapter four explores the findings of the study, revealing the emergence of teacher

effectiveness discourse and the conditions of possibility for the emergence. Chapter five draws attention to the discontinuities that threatened the collapse of the discourse of teacher effectiveness. Finally, chapter six looks at the impact the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness has on the field of art education and the implications of its impact.

CHAPTER TWO

Foucauldian Concepts

Michel Foucault (1926-1984) was a French philosopher, professor, and historian concerned with dismantling the "comforting illusions" of history (Oksala, 2007, p. 1). Throughout his career, Foucault used various forms of poststructural analyses to study the concepts in which he was interested. Traditionally, Foucault's scholarship is divided into three phases: the archeological phase, the genealogical phase, and the ethics phase.

Foucault's historical analyses included concepts of madness, sexuality, and punishment, which he studied through his concepts of archeology and genealogy. Foucault's concept of archeology focused on the relationship between truth and knowledge: "how and why we hold some things true, how and why we deem some things knowledge" (Prado, 2000, p. 10). Building on the concept of archeology, genealogy explored the relationship between truth and power. Instead of thinking of archeology and genealogy as separate concepts, one may think of them as "two stages of one process rather than two different methods" (Collins, 2013, p. 129). Foucault's archeological and genealogical phases dominated his scholarship through the 1960's and 1970's, until Foucault's interest shifted to focus on ethics.

In the 1980's, Foucault shifted his scholarship to the study of ancient ethics. During this time, Foucault published the last two volumes of The History of Sexuality: *The History of Sexuality: The Use of Pleasure* (1984/1985) and *The History of Sexuality: The Care of the Self* (1984/1986). While this portion of Foucault's scholarship is often referred to as a shift in study, Foucault maintained a focus on the use of genealogy. Foucault (1983/1997) referred to these

projects as “a genealogy of ethics” and further described them as a “genealogy of the subject as a subject of ethical actions, or the genealogy of desire as an ethical problem” (p. 266). Within these volumes, Foucault (1984/1985) focused his scholarship on the concept of subjectivity and freedom: “I felt obliged to study the games of truth in the relationship of self with self and the forming of oneself as a subject” (p. 6). Within all three phases of Foucault’s work, he maintained a focus on dismantling and questioning traditional views of history. In the coming sections, I will explore Foucault’s concepts of archeology and genealogy further.

Foucault’s Archeological Analysis

Foucault’s earliest works, in the 1960’s, employed a form of analysis referred to as archeology. In *Madness and Civilization* (1961/1965), *The Birth of the Clinic* (1963/1975), and *The Order of Things* (1966/1973), Foucault used archeological analysis to explore the historical underpinnings of a range of discourses in the human sciences, from the emergence of mental illness to the emergence of Man as an object of study. In *The Archeology of Knowledge* (1969/1972), Foucault provided an explanation of archeology as a method of historical analysis and challenged the way knowledge and truth were formerly analyzed.

In order to situate genealogy as a form of historical analysis, it is crucial to further explore Foucault’s archeological phase that emerged prior to his genealogical phase. It is important to remember that Foucault did not consider genealogy to be a break from archeology, but a widening of the analysis that archeology provided. Foucault’s archeological phase was concerned with the relationship between truth and knowledge, while his genealogical phase was concerned with the relationship between truth and power.

Foucault used his archeological analysis to demonstrate modern discourses relating to humans did not emerge out of a linear, progressive model, but instead as a result of discursive

practices. Prado (2000) explained, "To do archeology is precisely to understand how something like a discursive structure comes to be considered an underlying reality" (p. 28). Foucault challenged a traditional model of history supported by Enlightenment humanism and aspired to reveal the history of thought as disjointed, contingent, and accidental. To achieve his goal, Foucault consulted archives, official records, and other discursive documentation to reveal that the history of commonly held notions in society were not as normal as one might have believed. The objective of the archeologist is "not to reveal a hidden meaning or deep truth, nor to trace the origin of discourse to a particular mind or founding subject, but to document its conditions of existence and the practical field in which it is deployed" (Smart, 1988, p. 48-49). Similar to archeological analysis, Foucault continued his study of normative discourses with his genealogical analysis but expanded his approach to include the power relations that allow normative discourses to emerge and to remain. Prior to exploring Foucault's genealogical analysis, the following section provides the reader with an expanded understanding of discourse as it relates to a poststructural paradigm.

Discourse

As a productive force, discourses operate through the "privilege of unnoticed power," a power that "produces instruments of control" (Bové, 1995, p. 54). Discourses are inescapable, pervading our thoughts and practices, and producing quietly accepted ways of being. Discourses produce a type of controlling power, one that "generates certain kinds of questions, placed within systems that legitimate, support, and answer those questions" (Bové, 1995, p. 54). This concept of discourse provides insight into the productive and circular characteristics of discourse – an accepted discourse produces a system of thought that supports itself, therefore, the acceptable

thoughts and actions within that discourse appear normal. It is precisely this normalcy that Foucault, and other poststructuralists, aimed to question.

Influenced by Foucault, Bové (1995) explained that poststructural thought allowed researchers to move beyond asking essentializing questions of discourse; instead, Bové explained that one should ask questions about the functionality of discourse (p. 54). Shifting the focus to how discourse functions, Foucault allowed discourse to be considered beyond linguistic terms and conceived of as a productive force. St. Pierre (2000) explained, "Discourse can never be just linguistic since it organizes a way of thinking into a way of acting in the world" (p. 485). Foucault (1969/1972) further explained this expanded and productive view of discourse:

> Of course, discourses are composed of signs; but what they do is more than use these signs to designate things. It is this *more* that renders them irreducible to the language (*langue*) and to speech. It is this 'more' that we must reveal and describe. (p. 49)

When considering teacher effectiveness educational policy, discourse moves beyond the simple text of the policy to include everything from the language used in hiring interviews to the professional development opportunities now afforded to teachers. Educational policy as discourse influences the ways in which "teacher subjects and subject positions are formed and re-reformed by policy" and the ways in which teachers are expected "to speak, listen, act, read, think, feel, behave and value in particular and specific ways" (Ball, 2015a, p. 307).

Foucault (1969/1972) recognized the prevalent discourses around us "systematically form the objects of which they speak," and grow to inform how we see and accept the world around us (p. 49). Olssen (2006) echoed that concern: "these rules are regularities that determine the systems of possibility as to what is considered as true and false, and they determine what counts as grounds for assent or dissent, as well as what arguments and data are relevant and legitimate"

(p. 10). With this in mind, educators must remain both aware of and skeptical of the discourses that emerge from educational policy. Given that policy discourses enable specific ways of being for persons in the field of education, Ball (2015a) concluded that the role of the policy researcher "is to find out how a human being is envisaged in our present and the social practices that constitute this human being" (p. 308). To determine the subject that is being constituted by current educational policy, one must look historically at how such discourses emerged.

Foucault's Genealogical Analysis

Foucault broadened his approach to historical analysis in the 1970's with *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison* (1975/1979) and *The History of Sexuality: An Introduction, Volume One* (1976/1978). Not abandoning his archeological process, Foucault expanded the focus of genealogy to include how rule-governed systems of discourse influenced knowledge, power, and the body. This shift in his scholarship marked a change from simple historical understanding to a focus on how power relations that shaped and influenced the historical past have impacted the future (Olssen, 2006). To grasp the productive and formative power of discourse, Foucault's genealogical approach requires two levels of analysis:

> First, genealogy tracks down the ways in which discourses constitute "objects" and "classes of objects" which are available for study. Second, and more important, genealogy traces the way in which discourses constitute these objects as subjects of statements which can themselves be judged as "truth" or "false" according to the logic, syntax, and semantics of the empowered discourse. (Bové, 1995, p. 56-57)

Through a focus on power, "genealogy aims to document how culture attempts to normalize individuals through increasingly rationalized means, by constituting normality, turn them into meaningful subjects and docile objects" (Olssen, 2006, p. 14). The constitution of normality or

truth is produced as the effect of a dominant discourse. Bové (1995) explained that genealogy "lets us confront how power constructs truth-producing systems in which propositions, concepts, and representations generally assign value and meaning to the objects of the various disciplines that treat them" (p. 57). Foucault (1976/1978) created the concept power/knowledge (power-knowledge) to demonstrate that the effects of power-knowledges "are not static forms of distribution, they are 'matrices of transformations'" (p. 99). In other words, as Van Cleave (2012) stated, "Because power and knowledge are intertwined, knowledge is never neutral" (p. 42). Genealogy provides an analytical tool for poststructural researchers to dismantle the normalized truths produced by discourse and to demonstrate those truths exist only as a fragile effect of power relations.

Foucault demonstrated the dismantling of and the critique of predominant discourses in two of his historic texts of the 1970's. In *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison* (1975/1979), Foucault examined the history of criminality in France, focusing on how the body was disciplined and punished as a means of control. Foucault exposed the assumption that society has progressed to a more humane attempt to reform those labeled as criminals, while exposing the historical emergence of this system of belief. Bringing to light the alternative ways of thinking criminology in the past made the reader aware that the current system is not necessarily a natural or an improved model.

In *The History of Sexuality: An Introduction, Volume One* (1976/1978), Foucault explored the emergence of human sexuality as a discourse for both constructing and controlling human beings. By identifying and organizing discourses surrounding human sexuality, Foucault explained that human subjects were produced out of those labels. Unlike *Discipline and Punish* (1975/1979), this analysis focused less on the disciplining practices of surveillance and docility,

and more on the tendency for humans to internalize norms set forth by social sciences or discourses of truth.

Through his genealogies, Foucault established that the accepted historical "truths" of the emergence of discipline and sexuality were instead historically situated and contingent. Foucault's historical analyses showed that these concepts accepted as normal were instead the result of political, historical, and cultural contingencies. In contrast to traditional forms of history, "genealogy seeks out discontinuities where others found continuous development" (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1983, p. 106). Davidson (1986) also questioned the traditional historian's concept of continuous progress: "new kinds of statements which seem to be mere incremental additions to scientific knowledge are in fact only made possible because underlying rules for the production of discourse have significantly altered" (p. 223). According to May (1993), "The task of genealogy is not to recount history in its purity, but to give another perspective to history, one whose purpose is to rid history of its illusions of progress and reconciliation" (p. 76). In other words, the purpose of the genealogist is to trouble the untarnished linear view of the traditional historian, making space for what Foucault (1971/1984) called an "effective history" (p. 88).

Traditional History vs. Effective History

Foucault questioned the traditional historian's approach, opting instead for what he termed "effective" history. While Foucault did not argue against traditional history, he aimed to present a compelling alternative. A traditional historian may choose to function from a place of distance, maintaining space from the object of study in order to secure an objective gaze, whereas an effective historian "shortens its vision to those things nearest" to him/her (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 89). Effective history affirms "knowledge as perspective," furthering the idea that

all knowledge is situated (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 90) and "rejects as absurd the idea that history can be done objectively, that it can be conducted from no particular point of view" (Prado, 2000, p. 41).

According to Prado (2000), "his [Foucault's] is a holistic impeachment of traditional history's attempt to assimilate individual events into progressions and to count as significant only those events that can be so assimilated" (p. 44). A traditional historian assumes constants – language retains its meaning and ideas retain their logic, whereas "'effective' history deprives the self of the reassuring stability of life and nature" (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 88).

Foucault's effective history opposes the illusion of origins and the fallacy of a reductive view of history, noting, "the traditional devices for constructing a comprehensive view of history and for retracing the past as a patient and continuous development must be systematically dismantled" (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 88). The danger with traditional history or totalizing history is its claim of correctness. The risk in a model focused on correctness is that "the very existence of an alternative either to its self-conception or its accounts of the past poses a challenge" (Prado, 2000, p. 45). Effective history is a "redescription of traditional history" that highlights the discontinuities and inconsistencies that traditional history glossed over or deemed irrelevant (Prado, 2000, p. 45). Ultimately, traditional history is useful to the genealogist practicing effective history because it gives him/her a counterpoint. Foucault (1977/1984) noted, "history becomes 'effective' to the degree that it introduces discontinuity into our very being" (p. 88). Effective history disassociates itself from the reassuring stability of origins - it looks past the idea of a clean, continuous development of history and focuses instead on the messy, entangled accidents of history.

Origins

Foucauldian genealogy does not follow a linear path or a search for origins. The search for origins implies a quest for an essential truth, something Foucault would have rejected. Instead, Foucault (1971/1984) stated, "A genealogy of value, morality, asceticism, and knowledge will never confuse itself with a quest for their 'origins,' will never neglect as inaccessible the vicissitudes of history" (p. 80). The turns and ruptures of history, the forgotten moments, are those which Foucault excavated; the pure, untarnished origin was of no use in his work. Instead, "when genealogy looks to beginnings, it looks for accidents, chance, passion, petty malice, surprises, feverish agitation, unsteady victories, and power" (Davidson, 1986, p. 224). May (1993) described genealogy as working slowly, "in the details of history, in order to discover how a discourse or a practice arises and comes into prominence" (p. 74). This discovery is not a search for origins, as an "origin is that single source which provides both the material and the motivation for the flowering of a discourse or practice: it is the glorious womb" (May, 1993, p. 74). The untarnished, innocent perspective of origins points to an essentializing view of history that poststructuralists rejected; instead, lines of descent and emergence are the navigational tools used to think genealogy. Origins, in this theoretical scope, are a fallacy.

Emergence

Rather than a focus on origins, Foucauldian genealogy adopted Nietzsche's concept of *Entstehung*, or "emergence" (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 83). Building on the concept of descent, where the genealogist "carefully exposes the tiny influences on bodies that, over time, produce subjects," emergence focuses on the generative forces that produce history (Prado, 2000, p. 36). Prado (2000) explained, emergence is "enabled by collisions of forces, some of which enhance, nullify, or redirect others, and some of which combine with others to form new forces" (p. 37). Discourse can be understood as emerging out of moments of dissension, where

productive forces collide, and a multitude of factors impact a particular discourse's emergence and prosperity. It is only through traditional history that the emergence of discourses is conceived as a linear reflection. Conversely, Prado (2000) explained, the genealogist's role is to reveal what emerges over time is "not the culmination of anything but is a consequence of an accumulation of factors with no inherent relatedness. It is only the retrospective imposition of some historical interpretation that makes those factors appear to be more than coincidentally related" (p. 37). To interrogate a problem in the present, the genealogist must explore the enabling conditions that allowed a particular discourse to emerge and to become regarded as truth. The enabling conditions are "the conditions of possibility for the emergence of a discourse" (Van Cleave, 2012, p. 48). Prado (2000) added, as genealogists "we pay close attention to enabling accidents and coincidences; we discount established essentialist histories" (p. 171). By focusing on the jolts, surprises, dissensions, and lowly beginnings that have allowed a particular discourse to emerge and to become accepted as truth, genealogists reveal that the normalized present may not be so unquestionable after all. Studying the enabling conditions that allowed teacher effectiveness to emerge provides a space to rethink the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness, troubling its necessity in the field of education.

Power Relations

Foucault introduced a novel concept of power, one that rejected a wholly negative perception of power. When referring to power, Foucault (1976/1978) noted, "I do not have in mind a general system of domination exerted by one group over another" (p. 92). Instead, Foucault (1976/1978) redefined power as occurring in "relations" and having a "directly productive role" (p. 94). Foucault (1976/1978) redefined power as constantly moving,

productive, and available to everyone. The productive nature of power creates a space to understand the connection between power and knowledge.

According to Foucault (1975/1979), power and knowledge are not separate entities, but are always intrinsically related. In *Discipline and Punish* (1975/1979), Foucault stated:

> We should admit rather that power produces knowledge (and not simply by encouraging it because it serves power or by applying it because it is useful); that power and knowledge directly imply one another; that there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, not any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations. (p. 27)

Foucault therefore "rejects the view of power as an essentially repressive force, seeing it instead as at its most effective when it is productive, when it *produces* knowledge" (Burr, 2003, p. 69). According to May (1993), one must no longer think of power in terms of "what it denies, represses, rejects, or excludes but rather in terms of what it creates" (p. 39). Power, knowledge, and discourse intertwine to determine what is thinkable in the present. Within my study of national teacher effectiveness policy, the Foucauldian concepts of power/knowledge and discourse will be necessary to examine the emergence of teacher effectiveness as a "truth" in the field of education.

Disciplinary Power

Foucault's theory of disciplinary power was explained in contrast to sovereign power (Foucault, 1975/1979). Disciplinary power operated through an invisible, watchful gaze; sovereign power operated through public displays of violence enacted by a leader. In *Discipline and Punish*, Foucault (1975/1979) described disciplinary power as working through "minor procedures" that existed to produce individuals over time (p. 170). Foucault (1975/1979)

detailed five techniques that were used to control populations of individuals within an enclosed space: hierarchical observation, normalizing judgement, examination, panopticism, and surveillance.

Hierarchical observation described the physical orientation of the space to maximize observation; ideally, a disciplinary space would allow "a single gaze to see everything constantly" (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 173). Normalizing judgement involved the attention given to non-conforming behavior and the praise given to conforming behavior through comparison. Examination referred to "a normalizing gaze… that makes it possible to qualify, to classify, and to punish (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 184). Disciplinary power transformed the old concept of examination, one that was sporadic and rapid, to a form of "perpetual examination" where one is constantly under examination (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 186). Panopticism, inspired by Bentham's idealized prison plan, referred to a physical construction used to maximize surveillance of its inhabitants. Lastly, surveillance referred to the act of being watched and the gradual transference to self-monitoring. These five elements of disciplinary power are used throughout this dissertation to explore the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy and its role as a dominant discourse in education. As Foucault (1976/1978) stated, "it is within discourse that power and knowledge articulate themselves" (p. 100)

Governmentality

In the late 1970's, Foucault introduced his theory of governmentality. Foucault (1978/2000) explained governmentality as the "art of governing" things and persons at the level of the population (p. 203). Foucault's concept of governmentality shifted the focus of his work from the disciplining of individual bodies (as explored in *Discipline and Punish*) to the controlling and persuading of populations, or groups of people. Within Foucault's work, studies

of governmentality were inherently genealogical, but shifted the focus of historical investigation from the individual body to the population. By "governmentality," Foucault (1978/2000) meant three things:

1. The ensemble formed by the institutions, procedures, analyses, and reflections, the calculations and tactics that allow the exercise of this very specific albeit complex form of power, which has as its target population, as its principal form of knowledge political economy, and as its essential technical means apparatuses of security.
2. The tendency that, over a long period and throughout the West, has steadily led toward the preeminence over all other forms (sovereignty, discipline, and so on) of this type of power - which may be termed "government" - resulting, on the one hand, in the formation of a whole series of specific governmental apparatuses, and, on the other, in the development of a whole complex of knowledges [*savoirs*].
3. The process, or, rather, the result of the process through which the state of justice of the Middle Ages transformed into the administrative state during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and gradually becomes "governmentalized." (p. 219-220).

According to Ailwood (2004), "studies of governmentality are concerned not only with the regulatory practices of a particular state, but also with the conditions of possibility that are created in which individuals govern themselves and others" (p. 21).

Explaining government as "the broad sense of techniques and procedures for directing human behavior," Foucault (1980/1997) directed his audience to notice both the ways in which governments control individuals and the ways in which individuals within a population control themselves (p. 81). Van Cleave (2012) further explained this concept: "Foucault's notion of governmentality included not only the practices employed by governments to produce their

desired citizens but also the practices subjects use to govern themselves within the discursive and material structures of the state" (p. 19). While further reading is necessary to situate Foucault's theory of governmentality within my policy research, the fact that legislative policy is a means for controlling a population makes the use of governmentality appear necessary within my research.

Resistance

Coupled with power, Foucault introduced his audience to a unique and exciting version of resistance. Foucault contended resistance was a part of power and not external to power. Furthermore, he defined resistance as "present everywhere in the power network," indicating that opportunities for resistance are always within reach (Foucault, 1976/1978, p. 95). I find Foucault's interpretation of resistance encouraging because he viewed resistance as a situated, local project. Claiming "there is no single locus of great Refusal," Foucault (1976/1978) allowed the reader to conceive of resistance on a smaller scale (pp. 95-96). Foucault also encouraged a "plurality of resistances," allowing the reader to imagine the multiple opportunities for resistance he or she might encounter on a given day (Foucault, 1976/1978, p. 96). As openings arise through an interrogation of the teacher effectiveness discourse, moments of resistance will emerge and demand to be acted upon. As Popkewitz and Brennan (1997) stated, "There is a continual need to unpack the frameworks within which we are constituted rather than to assume that liberation can be achieved by overthrowing previous regimes" (p. 295).

Conclusion

This chapter highlights the Foucauldian concepts I used to think through the emergence of teacher effectiveness as a normalized discourse in the field of education. Using Foucault's

genealogies to guide my research, I looked historically at the enabling conditions and the discontinuities that allowed for the emergence of and prevalence of teacher effectiveness discourse. Teacher effectiveness discourse produced a "regime of truth" in the field of education, thus impacting the types of teaching subjects that are thinkable within the art classroom (Foucault, 1977/1980, p. 131). Tracing the emergence of teacher effectiveness provides an opening to critique and resist the "discourse's disciplinary effect," making space to think differently (Sanford, 2012, p. 16). St. Pierre (2000) explained, "once a discourse becomes 'normal' and 'natural,' it is difficult to think and act outside it" (p. 485). The language of teacher effectiveness is so normalized in education that terms such as 'highly effective teacher,' 'effective professional development,' and 'data-informed instruction' all carry an understood meaning and weight in current teaching practice. Genealogy provides an opportunity to explore the 'truth' of teacher effectiveness as a "product of power," and the teaching subject as a "product of disciplinary techniques" (Prado, 2000, p. 4).

The following chapter examines the documents collected to trace the emergence of teacher effectiveness, and the ways in which I used Foucault's theories to think through the analysis of those documents. Chapters four and five describe the enabling conditions and discontinuities, respectively, that contributed to the emergence of the teacher effectiveness discourse. Finally, chapter six examines the implications of the discourse of teacher effectiveness on the field of art education.

CHAPTER THREE

> All my books…are little toolboxes, if you will. If people are willing to open them and make use of such and such a sentence or idea, of one analysis or another, as they would a screwdriver or a monkey wrench, in order to short circuit or disqualify systems of power, including even possibly the ones my books come out of, well, all the better.
>
> (Foucault, 1975, as cited in Eribon, 1991, p. 237)

~~Method~~ of the Study

Foucault would caution considering his genealogical and archeological approaches as traditional qualitative methodologies. Such a description runs the risk of elevating such "methodologies" to a superior standing over other methodological approaches. Foucault did not endeavor to develop a method of analysis that could be used universally, but instead proposed a form of analysis that could be applied locally and uniquely. According to Shiner (1982), "Foucault is not looking for a "method" which will be superior to other methods in objectivity and comprehensiveness but is forging tools of analysis which take their starting point in the political-intellectual conflicts of the present" (p. 386). Shiner (1982) continued, describing Foucauldian genealogy as "anti-method," in the sense "that it seeks to free us from the illusion that an apolitical method is possible" (p. 386). Instead of considering Foucauldian genealogy as a methodological approach, it helps to think genealogy as one of Foucault's many analytic tools that can be used to better understand the history of the present.

Foucauldian Genealogy as Analysis

If one rejects the term "method" to consider genealogical analysis, the question of how to *do* the research emerges. Foucault (1984/1971) described genealogy as "grey, meticulous, and patiently documentary" (p. 76). Foucault (1984/1971) continued his description: "It operates on a field of entangled and confused parchments, on documents that have been scratched over and recopied many times" (p. 76). Deriving from a feeling that something in the present is amiss, Foucauldian genealogy excavates the discursive documents which allowed the present problem to emerge. Since Foucault regarded his theories and analyses as "little toolboxes," (as cited in Eribon, 1991, p. 237) he provided researchers with the autonomy to use his theories to fit their personal research needs.

The Trouble with Data

Within my research, I avoid equating the document collection involved in genealogical research with the phrase "data collection" for two reasons: the association of data with positivist research and the current rebranding of the term data in education. According to Torrence (2019), data was considered "inert, passive...or waiting to be discovered" by the scientist who collected it (p. 734). This understanding of data presumes a stable, pre-existing truth about the objects collected as data. Likewise, Denzin (2013), cautioned that the term data invokes a positivist epistemology and ontology which is not suitable for use in poststructural research. While a redefining of data in the sense of my document collection may have been suitable for my project, I decided to avoid the use of the term data primarily because of the shifting understanding of data in the field of education.

Within education, data has become a procedure or tool for "systemic accountability" (Torrence, 2019, p. 734). Data collected has become a way to govern subjects operating within the educational system, ranging from the governing of students and teachers, to school boards

and states. In the field of education, "data" has morphed into a term synonymous with "science," and has become heavily linked to the procedures of accountability in schools (Torrence, 2019, p. 738). The pursuit of "good data" and the avoidance of "bad data" have become a productive force in education, both being produced in the school building and producing those in the school building (Torrence, 2019, p. 738). Additionally, Denzin (2013) posited, "money, and concerns for auditing from the audit culture" appear to drive this shift in the redefining of data (p. 354). For these reasons, I will refer to the information gathered for analysis as "document collection."

Document Collection

To trace the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness, I chose to place parameters on my genealogical study. I narrowed my research to a 36-year time frame, ranging from 1983-2019. Working within that timeline, I collected physical documents and digital documents to trace the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness. Prado (2000) described relevant documents for genealogy as "archives, chronicles, diaries, journals, logbooks, letters, memoirs, official records, and registries" (p. 40). The following sections discuss the documents collected and the system of document collection for this study.

National Reports

National reports and statements from national education commissions heavily influenced the perception of the state of public education in the United States. In order to trace the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness, I reviewed and analyzed multiple national reports on education. The first reports I analyzed were the 1983 report *A Nation at Risk* and the 1985 report *A Call for Change in Teacher Education*.

Next, I analyzed two national studies focused on the need for improved teacher quality: the Carnegie Task Force's (1986) *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* and the

Holmes Group's (1986) *Teachers for Tomorrow's Schools* (Ladson-Billings, 1998). These two reports raised concerns about teacher quality and advocated for more stringent teacher requirements.

Another report analyzed was the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future's *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future* (1996). Within this report, the commission advocated for an ambitious and ill-defined goal: "Within a decade—by the year 2006—we will provide every student in America with what should be his or her educational birthright: access to competent, caring, qualified teaching" (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996, p. 21).

In addition to educational commission reports, I also analyzed longitudinal data collected on public education through three reports: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), and the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). These reports provide a guide for understanding both global educational standing and regional educational standing within the United States. Table 1 shows the full list of national and international reports analyzed.

Table 1

National and International Reports Analyzed

National and International Reports Analyzed	
Year	**Title of Report**
1983	*A Nation at Risk*, National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education
1983	*Making the Grade*, The Twentieth Century Fund
1983	*Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and be Able to do*, College Entrance Exam Board

1984	*Beyond Creating: The Place for Art in America's Schools,* The Getty Center for Education in the Arts
1985	*A Call for Change in Teacher Education,* Commission of Excellence in Teacher Education
1986	*Tomorrow's teachers: A report of the Holmes group,* Holmes Group
1987	*Excellence in Art Education: Ideas and Initiatives,* Ralph Smith
1988	*Toward Civilization: A Report on Arts Education,* National Endowment for the Arts
1994	*National Standards for Arts Education,* National Committee for Standards in the Arts
1995-2019	*Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study* (TIMSS), International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
1996	*What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future,* National Commission on Teaching and America's Future
2009	*Common Core State Standards Initiative,* National Governors Association
2000-2018	*Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA), Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
1980-2019	*National Assessment of Educational Progress* (NAEP), National Center for Educational Statistics
2014	*National Core Arts Standards,* State Education Agency Directors of Arts Education

National Policy Documents

Since the term "effective teacher" was legitimized through national legislation in 2009, I analyzed national educational policy documents from 1983-2019. Several national policy documents stood out as major players in the development of the discourse of teacher effectiveness: *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* of 1994 (P. L. 103-227), *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2002 (P.L. 107-110), *The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act* of 2009 (P.L. 111-5),

and the *Every Student Succeeds Act* of 2015 (P.L. 114-95). Using LexisNexis as a source for collection, I located key legislative documents that helped shape the emergence of the national teacher effectiveness discourse.

The first major piece of legislation I analyzed was the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* of 1994 (P. L. 103-227) introduced by President Bill Clinton. This bill promised to "hold schools and teachers to high standards of accountability" and marked a trend toward the government's continued interest and investment in public education (P. L. 103-227, p. 20). Citing the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* at his Memorandum on Promoting Excellence and Accountability in Teaching speech in 1996, President Clinton declared the need for "dedicated, outstanding teachers, who know their subject matter, are effectively trained, and know how to teach to high standards" (p. 1).

The second piece of legislation I analyzed was the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2002* (NCLB) introduced by President George W. Bush (P.L. 107-110). A reauthorization of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, NCLB called for greater accountability measures in all areas of education. Next, I analyzed the *American Recovery and Reinvestment Act* (ARRA) of 2009 introduced by President Barack Obama (P.L. 111-5). The *American Recovery and Reinvestment Act* provided $4.35 billion in *Race to the Top* (RTTT) competitive grants for education. The terms "effective teacher" and "highly effective teacher" were defined and legitimized by the federally funded RTTT grant.

The fourth major piece of legislation analyzed was the *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA) of 2015 introduced by President Obama (P.L. 114-95). RTTT and the ESSA discarded the phrase "highly qualified" and replaced it with the term "highly effective" (Hourigan, 2011). Within ESSA (2015), the discourse of teacher effectiveness remains relevant and productive, yet

the definition of "effectiveness" is placed back into the hands of the state to determine. As the four educational policy documents above were explored and analyzed, other relevant policies came to light. Table 2 lists the various national policy documents that were explored in my analysis, while Figure 1 shows interactions between policies. In addition to policy documents and national report documents, I collected documents which pointed to national trends and events related to public education. Some of these items included documents supporting the development of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) programs and documentation supporting Presidential summits on education.

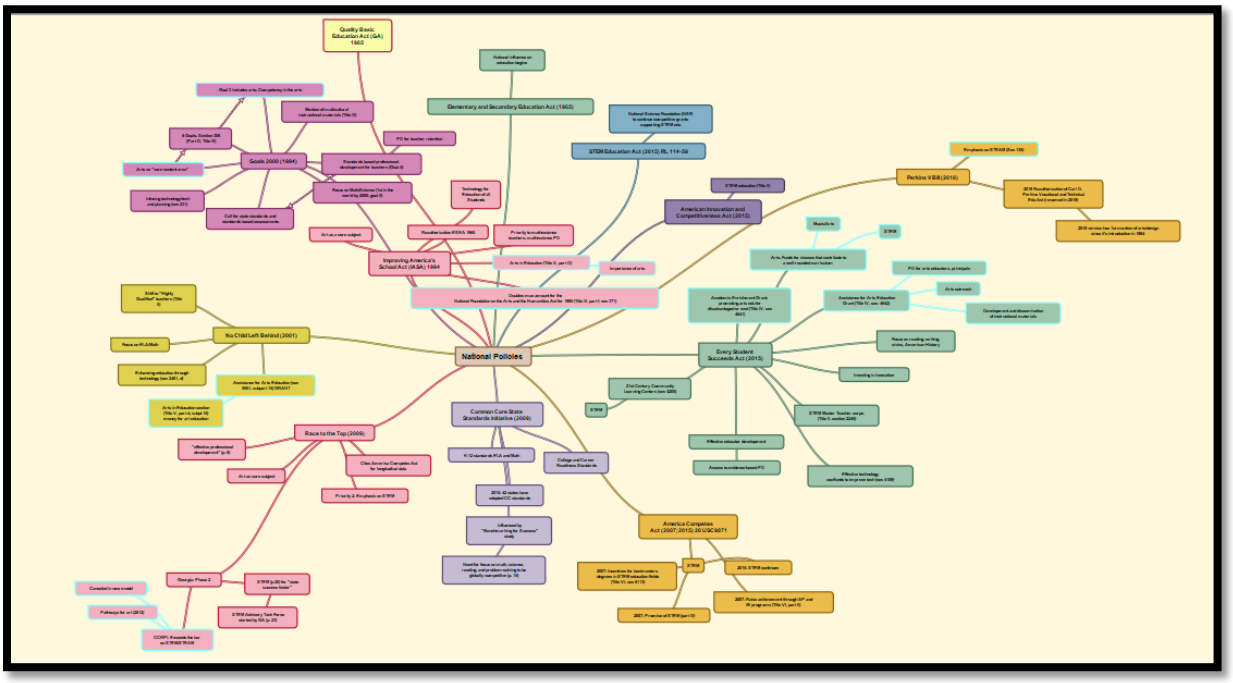
Table 2

National Policy Documents Analyzed

National Policy Documents Analyzed	
Year	**Title of Policy Document**
1994	Goals 2000: Educate America Act, P.L.103-227
1994	Improving America's Schools Act, P.L.103-425
1998	Carl D. Perkins Vocational — Technical Education Act, P.L. 105-332
2001	No Child Left Behind, P.L. 107-110
2007	America Competes Act, P.L. 110-69 *(Reauthorizations in 2010, 2015)*
2009	American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, P.L. 111-5
2009	Race to the Top Competitive Grant
2015	Every Student Succeeds Act, P.L. 114-95
2015	American Innovation and Competitiveness Act, P.L. 114-329
2015	STEM Education Act, P.L. 114-59
2018	Strengthening Career and Technical Education for the 21st Century Act, P.L. 115-224

Figure 1

Relationships Between Policies



Enlarged figure located in the appendix

Art Education Documents

Along with tracing national policy documents and national report documents in the field of education, I analyzed documents specific to the field of art education. Arts education reports sponsored by the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA), and the National Art Education Association (NAEA), and the Getty Center for Education in the Arts proved useful in understanding the impact of educational policy on the field. Additionally, publications from NAEA's *Art Education* journal were analyzed to trace the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness in the field of art education.

The first report I analyzed was *Toward Civilization: A Report on Arts Education*, sponsored by the NEA in 1988. In *Toward Civilization*, the NEA (1988) advised "state certifying agencies should strengthen and broaden teacher certification requirements in the arts

for all teachers whose responsibilities include the arts. Testing of arts teacher qualifications should be improved and mandated" (p. vi). Between reports like *Toward Civilization* and the introduction of Discipline-Based Art Education (DBAE), the field of education was trying to ensure it was on a level playing field with core academic subjects, thus making it susceptible to the changes occurring with educational policy.

In addition to reports on art education, three major research journals in the field of art education were reviewed in order to locate conversations occurring in the field of art education during the time of major legislative transitions (*Art Education*, *Studies in Art Education*, and *Arts Education Policy Review*). Reviewing the journals from 1983 to present, I searched specifically for key legislative terms related to the legislative documents listed above. Additionally, I searched for any authors referring to "policy" or "reform" as key terms within their texts. I paid specific attention to two special issues on educational policy: *Studies in Art Education* issue 49(4) and *Arts Education Policy Review* issue 114(1-4).

Lastly, I located three texts which provided further historical context for the major shifts that occurred in the field of art education. These texts provided information necessary to align changes in art education with the changes in the national conversation involving teacher effectiveness policy. These texts included Smith's (1996) *The history of American art education: Learning about art in American schools*, Efland's (1990) *A history of art education: Intellectual and social currents in teaching the visual arts*, and Eisner and Day's (2004) *Handbook of research and policy in art education*.

While I analyzed documents from the field of art education, I searched for moments when national policy and national reports overlapped trends in art education. I was surprised by the lack of overlap between changes in general education policy and writings in the field of art

education. I discuss the need for a connection between national policy shifts and literature in the field of art education in chapter six. Table 3 lists the art education documents analyzed, while Figure 2 depicts a visual representation of the trends observed in art education literature from 1983-2019.

Table 3

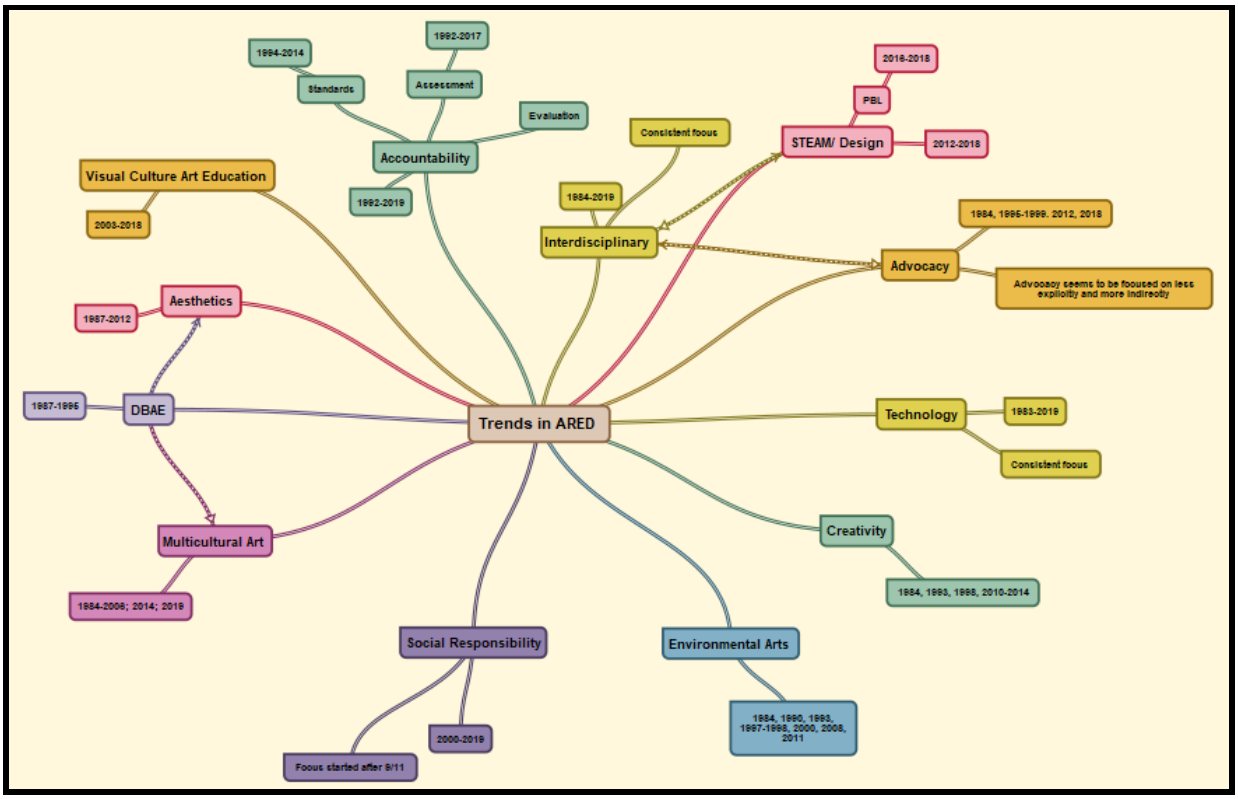
Art Education Documents Analyzed

Art Education Documents Analyzed	
Year	**Title of Document**
1982	*Instant Art, Instant Culture: The Unspoken Policy of America's Schools*, Laura Chapman
1984	*Beyond Creating: The Place for Art in America's Schools,* The Getty Center for Education in the Arts
1980's	Discipline Based Art Education (DBAE) curriculum documents, various
1987	*Excellence in Art Education: Ideas and Initiatives,* Ralph Smith
1988	*Toward Civilization: A Report on Arts Education*, National Endowment for the Arts
1994	National Standards for Arts Education, National Committee for Standards in the Arts
1996	*The history of American art education: Learning about art in American schools*, Peter Smith
2014	National Core Arts Standards, State Education Agency Directors of Arts Education
1983-2019	*Art Education* Journal, National Art Education Association
1983-2019	*Studies in Art Education*, National Art Education Association
1983-2019	*Arts Education Policy Review*, Routledge
1990	*A history of art education: Intellectual and social currents in teaching the visual arts*, Arthur Efland

2004	*Handbook of research and policy in art education*, Elliot Eisner and Michael Day

Figure 2

Art Education Trends



Enlarged figure located in the appendix

Theory as Analysis

As the documents continued to pile on my desks at work and home, I began to ponder how one would even begin to *do* a genealogy. I was painfully aware there was not, nor should there be, a prescribed method for conducting genealogical research. Eventually, I was comforted by Tamboukou's (1999) conclusion, "there is no way of truly understanding what genealogy is about, other than by concentrating on genealogy" (p. 211). With that advice, I re-read *Discipline and Punish*; the next time I got stuck I revisited *The History of Sexuality*; the next time I got

stuck I revisited a genealogical dissertation, and on and on. I read genealogies to get unstuck while attempting to write a genealogy. I was also guided by a series of provocative questions, guided by theory, that helped me when I did not know my next move:

- Why did the discourse of teacher effectiveness emerge at this time and in this form? (Labaree, 1992)
- What does it look like to "do the next thing that makes sense"? (St. Pierre, as cited in Guttorm, Hohti, & Paakkari, 2015, p. 16)
- How does teacher effectiveness exist? Where is it to be found? (Bové, 1995)
- How is it that this particular statement (teacher effectiveness) appeared rather than another? (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 27)

The more theory I read, the more I began to see theory everywhere. The more *Discipline and Punish* I read, the more easily I could see instances of disciplinary power, surveillance, and examination in the documents I was analyzing and in my daily life. When I revisited *The History of Sexuality*, power relations became less invisible. Reading *The Archeology of Knowledge* made the categorization of teachers in policy and everyday life more apparent. Just as Jackson and Mazzei (2012) advocated, I was "thinking with theory" and allowing that to guide my actions (p. 717).

Guided by the wisdom of seasoned scholars, I began to write and read through my document analysis (Tamboukou, 1999; Richardson & St. Pierre, 2005; St. Pierre, 2011; Jackson and Mazzei, 2012; Van Cleave, 2012). Expanding on analysis, St. Pierre (2011) noted, "Until one begins to think, one cannot know what one will think with. In that sense, data are collected during thinking and, for me, especially during writing" (p. 621). Van Cleave (2012) affirmed the concept of writing as analysis in poststructural work: "An analytic practice such as coding does

not leave space for the unthinkable, the invisible, and the inaudible, so I had to trust that writing would lead me to the interstitial space where the known and the unknown touch" (p. 44). Within my research, Foucauldian analysis provided freedom to engage with the documents and make use of Foucault's 'little toolboxes,' but I found that freedom to be daunting as well. Making sense of the mounds of documents required writing, re-writing, color-coding, talking with friends, re-writing, reading Foucault, mind-mapping, reading policy, re-writing, talking with my students, re-writing, reading Foucault, talking with my husband, and a lot of listening to Toni Braxton.

Dissertation Organization

The organization of my dissertation was a point of great concern for me throughout this process. Trying to negotiate the theory within a six-chapter format raised a lot of questions about the theoretical implications of splitting this research into more traditional sections. Within a writing group, we discussed if the theory would allow a chronological organization of policy and events, or if that would fall more into the domain of "traditional history" (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 89). I chose to organize the following three chapters in alignment with my research questions. Chapter four explores the enabling conditions that allowed the present discourse of teacher effectiveness to be thinkable, while chapter five explores the discontinuities that arose and threatened to dismantle the discourse of teacher effectiveness. In chapter six, I explore the impact of the discourse of teacher effectiveness on the field of art education, focusing specifically on the types of teaching subjects produced through the discourse. While the enabling conditions and the discontinuities of teacher effectiveness discourse are not separate in the messy emergence of the discourse, I chose to separate these two concepts for the ease of the reader.

CHAPTER FOUR

> The search for descent is not the erecting of foundations: on the contrary, it disturbs what was previously considered immobile; it fragments what was thought unified; it shows the heterogeneity of what was imagined consistent with itself. (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 82)

Enabling Conditions

To interrogate a problem in the present, the genealogist must explore the enabling conditions that allowed a particular discourse to emerge and become regarded as truth. Enabling conditions are "the conditions of possibility for the emergence of a discourse" (Van Cleave, 2012, p. 48). Prado (2000) revealed, "we pay close attention to enabling accidents and coincidences; we discount established essentialist histories" (p. 171). By focusing on the jolts, surprises, dissensions, and lowly beginnings that have allowed a particular discourse to emerge and to become accepted as truth, genealogists reveal that the normalized present may not be so unquestionable after all. Exploring the enabling conditions for the discourse of teacher effectiveness requires the use of Foucault's concepts of *effective history*, *origins*, and *emergence*, which were outlined in depth in chapter two.

Enabling Conditions for the Discourse of Teacher Effectiveness

In this chapter, I argue that there is no point of origin for the discourse of teacher effectiveness. Foucault (1971/1984) stated genealogy "opposes itself to the search for 'origins'" (p. 77). Instead, the discourse of teacher effectiveness emerged through a combination of several enabling conditions. While there were likely countless enabling conditions that led to the emergence of teacher effectiveness as an accepted norm, I arranged the enabling conditions I

observed into three themes: the perception of a failing educational system, the adoption of a market-based model of education, and a shift in focus from teacher education programs to individual teachers.

In 2009, the terms "effective teacher" and "highly effective teacher" were defined and legitimized by the federally funded Race to the Top grant. According to the United States Department of Education (2009), a highly effective teacher was one "whose students achieve high rates (e.g., one and one-half grade levels in an academic year) of student growth" (p. 12). Similarly, an effective teacher was one "whose students achieve acceptable rates (e.g., at least one grade level in an academic year) of student growth" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 12). The language of Race to the Top introduced three new categorizations of teachers: highly effective teachers, effective teachers, and ineffective teachers. According to Foucault (1982), these classifications are considered "dividing practices," where the subject is "divided inside himself or divided from others" (p. 208). The language and the material effects of Race to the Top have become a productive force in the educational sphere, producing teacher evaluation systems, professional development options, textbooks, and, ultimately, a new version of the teaching subject. The following sections demonstrate that the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness occurred not out of a moment of "original unity," but instead through "accidents, chance, passion, petty malices…and power" (Davidson, 1986, p. 224).

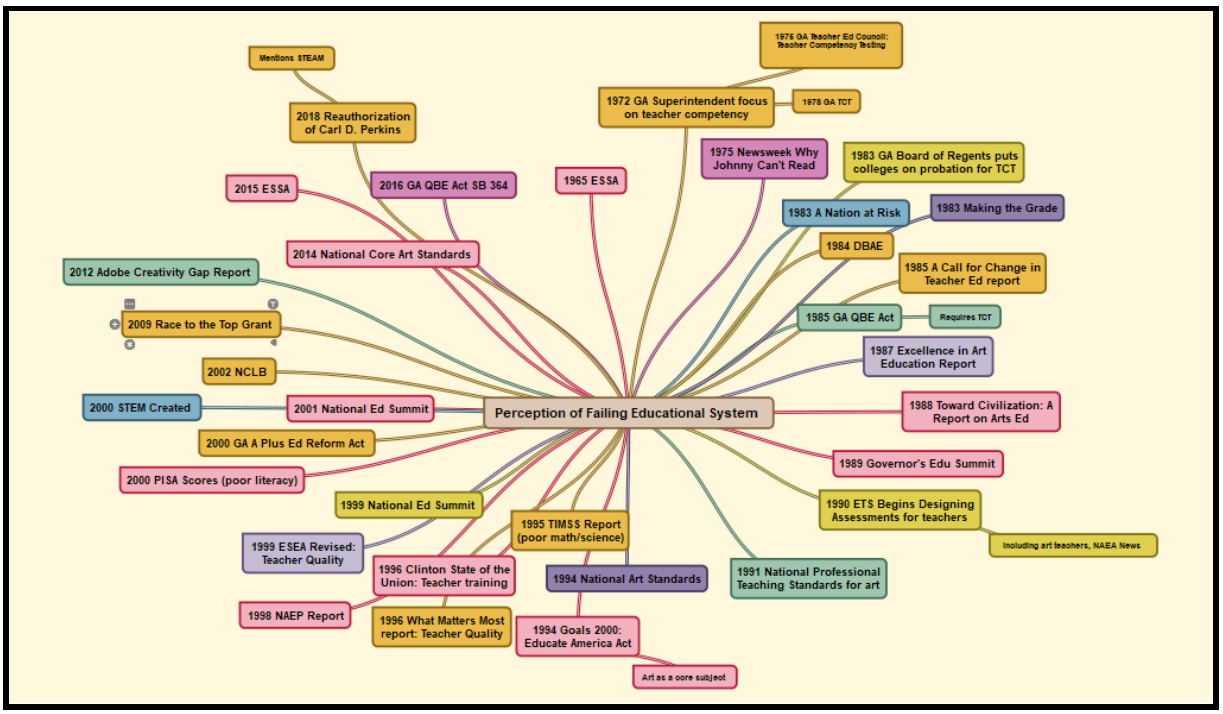
Enabling Condition: The Perception of a Failing Educational System

One condition for the emergence of teacher effectiveness discourse was the perception of a failing educational system in the United States. The very *notion* of failure, or an inability to compete globally, fueled movement in the development of the discourse of teacher effectiveness. During my search for enabling conditions, I read Federal educational policy

documents ranging from the 1980's to the present. As I analyzed policy documents and national reports, the theme of fear tied to global performance continued to emerge. I chose to bracket my research between the 1980's and current policy to create a manageable timeline for my research. I selected the 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk* as a starting boundary for the recurrence of the perception of a failing educational system, not as a point of origin. Using 1983 as a boundary, I have separated this section into several subsections to describe the many contributing facets of the perceived failing school system within the United States: national reports, emerging policies, failure perceived through comparison, and STEM (Science, technology, engineering, and math) education. Figure 3 below is included to help the reader visualize some of the connections made while analyzing.

Figure 3

Perception of Failing Educational System



Enlarged figure located in the appendix

But First, Sputnik

I remember vividly sitting in my undergraduate history of art education course and the professor stating, "When in doubt, the answer is probably Sputnik." We all laughed. This professor mentioned Sputnik so often that the students in the class joked that it should become a drinking game. But, as he often was, this professor was correct. I would be remiss to not mention Sputnik's role in the history of education.

On October 4, 1957, the Soviet Union successfully took the lead in the Space Race by launching the first earth-orbiting satellite, Sputnik. The United States found itself lagging in the space race, which spurred a shift in focus to national education initiatives. Belief that the Soviet educational system had surpassed the United States' educational system led to the passing of the National Defense Act of 1958, placing an educational focus on science and mathematics. *A Nation at Risk* revealed a perception of educational failure similar to that of Sputnik.

National Reports Fueling a Perception of Failure

In 1981, President Ronald Reagan appointed the National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education to investigate the state of education across the nation; the report created by the commission was dire, to say the least. Painting the current educational system as a failure, the commission linked educational failure to global standing, economic demise, and national security: "The educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people" (United States, 1983). *A Nation at Risk* powered the discourse of teacher competence, prompting states to look to teacher content knowledge as playing a part in the perceived problem with the state of education in America.

A Nation at Risk fueled much of education reform and policy that emerged in the 1980's and 1990's, despite the counter-narratives to *A Nation at Risk* that will be discussed in the following chapter. In 1985, the National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education published a final report: *A Call for Change in Teacher Education*. Released at the annual American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education meeting in February 1985, the report called for teacher candidates to demonstrate knowledge and skill based on a content-specific test, a test of the knowledge of foundations of teaching, and a demonstrated ability of effective teaching (Butler, 1984).

Within a year of *A Call for Change in Teacher Education*, two national studies focused on the need to improve teaching quality emerged: the Carnegie Task Force's (1986) *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* and the Holmes Group's (1986) *Teachers for Tomorrow's Schools* (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Both studies advocated for more stringent requirements for teachers entering the workforce. The Holmes Group (1986) urged for increased testing, while questioning the merits of university teaching programs:

> Taking and even passing college and university courses is no guarantee that the material has been learned. Thus, all instructors should also pass a written test in each subject they will teach, prior to certification. This exam should test for their understanding of the basic structure of the discipline, and tenets of a broad liberal education. They should additionally pass a general test of their reading and writing ability, and a test of the rudiments of pedagogy. These tests would assess reasoning as well as specialized knowledge, general information, and memory. They should be sufficiently difficult so that many college graduates could not pass. (p. 11)

Studies such as these were only the tip of the iceberg in pushes for educational reforms.

Organizations related to the arts began to weigh in on the conversation as well. In 1988, the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) published a study urging for additional testing for art education professionals. In *Toward Civilization: A Report on Arts Education*, the NEA (1988) advised "state certifying agencies should strengthen and broaden teacher certification requirements in the arts for all teachers whose responsibilities include the arts. Testing of arts teacher qualifications should be improved and mandated" (p. vi). Politicians, researchers, and content-specific organizations continued to focus their reform efforts on those directly impacting students: the teachers. At the same time, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) issued an agenda for improving teaching certification and expectations. In *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, the commission advocated for an ambitious and ill-defined goal: "Within a decade—by the year 2006—we will provide every student in America with what should be his or her educational birthright: access to competent, caring, qualified teaching" (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996, p. 21). These national reports all used the fear of a failing educational system to evoke change.

Educational Policies Fueling a Perception of Failure

A Nation at Risk sparked a fear of educational failure the country had not seen since Sputnik. Educational policies erupted, all aiming to mend the broken educational system. Both state and federal governments enacted educational policies, all shifting with the educational jargon of the moment to fix the problem of the United States' failing education system.

Ensuring to "hold schools and teachers to high standards of accountability," the Goals 2000: Educate America Act of 1994 focused on providing higher standards for parents, teachers, and schools (Goals 2000, P. L. 103-227, p. 20). Citing the Educate America Act at his Memorandum on Promoting Excellence and Accountability in Teaching speech in 1996,

President Clinton declared the need for "dedicated, outstanding teachers, who know their subject matter, are effectively trained, and know how to teach to high standards" (p. 1). The language of policy matters, as it forms a "regime of truth" that subjects within the school building perform within (Foucault, 1977/1980, p. 131). Ball (2015a) explained educational discourses "enable us to think about whether we are 'good' teachers or 'effective' teachers, to think about what learning is and how we recognize it, and to know what a 'good' lesson looks like" (p. 307). In the case of the Educate America Act, the haphazard use of phrases like "effectively trained" and "high standards" created a discourse in which both educators and politicians had to perform.

While most educational reforms of the 1980's and 1990's aimed to improve teacher quality, one of the most radical attempts of the federal government to influence teacher quality and teacher certification occurred with the 1998 Higher Education Reauthorization Act. On October 7, 1998, President Clinton signed the Higher Education Reauthorization Act (P.L. 105-244) into law. Title II of the law sought to improve teacher quality by holding higher education institutions and states accountable for teacher preparation and teacher licensing (National Academy of Science, 2001). The report required states to report teacher licensing procedures and passing rates on teacher licensure testing for their teacher candidates, with the purpose of ranking educational programs (National Academy of Sciences, 2001; P.L.105-244). Additionally, this law asserted that institutions had the "responsibility of making their licensure examination pass rate data public and reporting how these rates compare with averages for all teacher preparation programs in the state" (Earley, 1998, p. 4). The requirements of P.L. 105-244 created a mechanism that required the public reporting of licensure procedures, as well as a mechanism to limit or to withdraw federal funding from educational institutions and states labeled as low performing.

In response to the general trends in education at the time, along with a perception that art education was strictly studio-based, the Getty Center for Education in the Arts in Education introduced Discipline-Based Art Education (DBAE) (Delacruz & Dunn, 1996). DBAE was art education's response to the "reform-fever" sweeping the country (Delacruz & Dunn, 1996, p. 46). DBAE placed an equal emphasis on studio production, art history, art criticism, and aesthetics, and proponents of DBAE stated the new curriculum should be sequential, should be implemented on a district-wide basis, and "student achievement and program effectiveness should be formally and systematically assessed and evaluated" (Delacruz & Dunn, 1996, p. 47). Many key concepts of DBAE mirrored the educational trends in general education in the United States.

A significant turning point for arts education policy and the impact of the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) on arts education occurred in 1981 with President Reagan's appointment of Frank Hodsoll as the head of NEA (Heilig, Cole, & Aguilar, 2010). Prior to this point, the NEA paid very little attention to public arts education. Hodsoll led the charge to include arts education into the NEA conversation and published *Toward Civilization: A Report on Arts Education* (1988). In this document, Hodsoll argued the need for a comprehensive, sequential art curriculum, as well as an emphasis on data collection, comprehensive testing, and improved teacher quality (National Endowment for the Arts, 1988). Building on the influence of the NEA, federal involvement in general education and arts education became even more prevalent in the 1990's. In 1994, the National Voluntary K-12 Standards for the Arts were published, inviting the art world into the standards movement in education (Heilig, Cole, & Aguilar, 2010). The push for standardization extended to all fields of education through

inclusion of academic standards to guide teaching and learning and professional standards to guide teacher training and evaluation.

In 2001, President George W. Bush continued his predecessor's call for improving teacher quality by unveiling his version of educational reform: No Child Left Behind (NCLB). A reauthorization of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, NCLB called for greater accountability measures in all areas of education. The illusion that all schools and students, regardless of their local situation, would reach a uniformed level of success placed excessive burdens on teachers, administrators, school districts, and states. Additionally, the requirement that all teachers, including veteran teachers, be deemed "highly qualified" placed significant pressure on teachers and school districts. The legitimization of the need for highly qualified teachers through policy added to the fear-based discourse surrounding education and again focused the perception of a failing school system on the educators.

Mirroring the *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future* report of 1996, NCLB mandated all classrooms in the United States be taught by "highly qualified teachers" by the academic year 2005-2006 (Berliner, 2005). Initially, the burden of defining "highly qualified" fell to states and local school districts, but by 2004 the United States Department of Education issued expectations for defining "highly qualified." According to the U.S. Department of Education (2004a), "to be deemed highly qualified, teachers must have: 1) a bachelor's degree, 2) full state certification or licensure, and 3) prove that they know each subject they teach" (p. 1). While uncertainties still existed in this definition, one thing was clear: all states needed to adopt teacher licensure tests to demonstrate the credibility of their teachers to the federal government.

Another way in which the NCLB policy demonstrated a focus on qualified teachers was through the inclusion of parental rights in the literature. The "Parents' Right to Know" provision of NCLB required that school districts provide parents with information concerning teacher qualifications upon request (U.S. Department of Education, 2004b, p. 16). Being federally funded, schools were now obligated to report: whether or not the teacher met state certification requirements, whether or not the teacher was working under an emergency or provisional teaching certificate, the bachelor's degree, undergraduate degree, or any degree held by the teacher, and, if the student is receiving aid from a paraprofessional, that paraprofessional's qualifications (U.S. Department of Education, 2004b, p. 16).

The discourse of teacher quality policy that emerged in the early 2000's formed a new version of the teaching subject. NCLB required new and existing teachers to prove their competence and merit outside of the classroom. NCLB further removed hiring autonomy from local school districts and placed stipulations on the requirements that acting teachers must possess. Additionally, NCLB linked federal funding and stipulations to existing teachers' professional development opportunities. Requiring professional development options that met a list of demands ranging from the length of the conference to the content presented severely limited the individual needs of core content area teachers, especially within the arts (Sabol, 2013). The push toward long and lingering localized professional development limited opportunities for teachers operating on the outskirts of the curriculum, such as art teachers (Hourigan, 2011).

The era of accountability linked to federal funding continued with a recent model of federal educational reform: Race to the Top (RTTT). The $4.35 billion grant was introduced as part of the 2009 American Recovery and Investment Act and was offered to states on a

competitive basis (Aguilar & Richerme, 2014). The RTTT grant was available to states that implemented ambitious plans for reform in four areas: standards and assessment, data systems to support instruction, development and retention of effective teachers, and reversal of low performing schools (Aguilar & Richerme, 2014; United States Department of Education, 2009). While teacher quality remained a priority in the transition from NCLB to RTTT, the measurement of teacher quality had shifted. The language and the material effects of Race to the Top have become a productive force in the educational sphere, producing new systems for teacher evaluation and development, as well as creating a new version of the teaching subject.

Race to the Top, along with the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015, shifted the measurement of teacher proficiency. Under NCLB, teacher ability was initially established by the placement of "highly qualified teachers" within the school building. Race to the Top and the Every Student Succeeds Act discarded the phrase "highly qualified" and replaced it with the term "highly effective" (Hourigan, 2011). According to the RTTT executive summary (2009), "effective teacher means a teacher whose students achieve acceptable rates (e.g., at least one grade level in an academic year) of student growth" (United States Department of Education, p. 12). The discourse of teacher effectiveness policy shifted the evaluation of and credibility of educators to focus on their ability to demonstrate student academic growth. This turn shifted the educational conversation from an emphasis on teacher preparation and training prior to classroom entry, to an emphasis on teachers' ability to create numerical results within the classroom.

In addition to the focus on student growth measures to evaluate teacher effectiveness, RTTT (2009) also introduced the phrase "data-informed" professional development (United States Department of Education, p. 10). The RTTT federal grant suggested that professional

development opportunities for teachers be "ongoing and job-embedded," and might focus on "gathering, analyzing, and using data; designing instructional strategies for improvement; differentiating instruction; creating school environments supportive of data-informed decisions; designing instruction to meet the specific needs of high-need students" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 10). Within RTTT, the defining of professional development established affordances and limitations on the professional growth options available to teachers, especially limiting those teachers in the arts whose content may not be best supported by school-led professional development. The changing discourse of teacher effectiveness produced new ways of being for existing educators, from evaluation to professional development, but the impact of the discourse did not stop with existing educators. The focus on student growth not only impacted educators within the field, but also applied to teacher candidates preparing for entry to the field.

ESSA (2015) required that teacher training programs "will award a certificate of completion…to a teacher only after the teacher demonstrates that the teacher is an effective teacher, as determined by the State, with a demonstrated record of increasing student academic achievement either as a student teacher or teacher-of-record on an alternative certificate, license, or credential" (P.L. 114-95, Section 2002). While models of teacher competency testing are still present in all states, ESSA shifted the focus of teacher competency from content knowledge to the demonstration of advancing measurable student outcomes.

To demonstrate the effectiveness of teacher candidates, 39 states have moved to include teaching performance assessments, such as edTPA, into the repertoire of teacher certification requirements. Aligned with the call from ESSA to demonstrate increasing students' academic achievement, Stanford University's Center for Assessment, Learning, and Equity unveiled

edTPA in 2013. According to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), edTPA is "a performance assessment to help determine if new teachers are ready to enter the profession with the skills necessary to help all of their students learn" (AACTE, 2017). The edTPA program assesses teacher candidates in the areas of planning, effective teaching practice, and student assessment, in order to "emphasize, measure and support the skills and knowledge that all teachers need from Day 1 [*sic*] in the classroom" (AACTE, 2017). While teacher certification requirements have undergone a transition in recent years, many of the original challenges remain. The edTPA system was not a new system of establishing teacher competency, but an additional generalized requirement placed on prospective teachers, adjoined to their previously established coursework, student teaching practicum, and teacher competency exams. The urgency to demonstrate prospective teacher effectiveness in Georgia was supported by edTPA from 2015 to 2020 (Henson, 2015). In chapter five, I will discuss the disruption of the COVID-19 pandemic and its impact on accountability measures.

Building on the language of the Race to the Top grant, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was signed into law by President Barack Obama on December 10, 2015 (P.L. 114-95). Section 2001 of ESSA (2015) established four goals for the allocation of federal funds toward United States public education:

1. increase student achievement consistent with the challenging State academic standards;
2. improve the quality and effectiveness of teachers, principals, and other school leaders;
3. increase the number of teachers, principals, and other school leaders who are effective in improving student academic achievement in schools; and

4. provide low-income and minority students greater access to effective teachers, principals, and other school leaders.

ESSA (2015) built on the discourse of teacher effectiveness established by Race to the Top but made some key changes to affirm state and local control. In section 2301, ESSA (2015) stated:

> Nothing in this title shall be construed to authorize the Secretary or any other officer or employee of the Federal Government to mandate, direct, or control a State, local educational agency, or school's—(1) instructional content or materials, curriculum, program of instruction, academic standards, or academic assessments; (2) teacher, principal, or other school leader evaluation system; (3) specific definition of teacher, principal, or other school leader effectiveness; or (4) teacher, principal, or other school leader professional standards, certification, or licensing. (P.L. 114-95)

Within ESSA (2015), the discourse of teacher effectiveness remains relevant and productive, yet the definition of "effectiveness" is now placed back into the hands of the state to determine.

The Every Student Succeeds Act gave states an 18 month transition period, meaning that many states had until September 18, 2017 to submit their applications for federal educational funding to the United States Department of Education; within these applications, states determine their own definition of teacher effectiveness (Georgia Department of Education, 2017). The states' determined definition of teacher effectiveness will not only impact practicing educators, but also those planning to enter the field. ESSA (2015) required that teacher training programs "will award a certificate of completion…to a teacher only after the teacher demonstrates that the teacher is an effective teacher, as determined by the State, with a demonstrated record of increasing student academic achievement either as a student teacher or teacher-of-record on an alternative certificate, license, or credential" (P.L. 114-95, Section

2002). While models of teacher competency testing are still present in all states, ESSA and RTTT have shifted the focus of teacher competency from content knowledge to the demonstration of advancing measurable student outcomes.

The very notion of teacher effectiveness policy is not thinkable without the discourses of teacher competence and teacher quality that emerged through educational policy. The perception of a globally failing education system and the fear accompanying that perception allowed, in part, for the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy.

Comparison Fueling a Perception of Failure

The perception that the educational system in the United States was failing was further fueled by testing data, both at the international and national levels. International testing of K-12 students created a system of comparison which fueled the fear of a lack of global competitiveness. Likewise, national testing comparisons fueled the fear of failing state educational systems. Finally, teacher effectiveness policy encouraged a level of peer-to-peer comparison which emerged from a shift in focus to teacher failure.

International Comparison. In 1983, *A Nation at Risk* declared that the United States' educational system was becoming destroyed by the "rising tide of mediocrity" (p. 13). The strong declarations of educational failure in *A Nation at Risk* led to widespread educational reform and comparison. Two of the main models for international comparison are the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

TIMSS emerged as the first superstar of international comparison in 1995, assessing the mathematics and science knowledge of 4th and 8th grade students (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, 2020). Launching shortly after the 1989 National Education

Summit, where President George H. W. Bush and the governors from all 50 states established six ambitious goals for education, the TIMSS report was quickly embraced by the United States (United States Department of Education, 2000). Since its inception in 1995, TIMSS has been administered every four years and provides a means to compare general mathematics and science knowledge across countries. In 2015, the United States ranked 14th in 4th grade mathematics and 10th for 8th grade mathematics, putting the United States behind top ranking countries Singapore, Hong Kong, Korea, Taipei, and Japan. Similarly, the United States ranked 10th in 4th grade science in 2015 and 11th in 8th grade science (Teacher's College, Columbia University, 2016).

Similar to TIMSS, PISA evaluates reading, mathematics, and science literacy skills across over 80 countries every three years (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020b). PISA narrows its focus to 15-year old students to establish comparisons between same-aged students, measuring their inside and outside of school literacy skills. In 2015, the United States ranked 19th in science, 20th in reading, and 31st in mathematics (Teacher's College, Columbia University, 2016). The continuous comparison of countries has contributed to the narrative of the failure of United States public education.

National Comparison. A common means of comparison within the United States is the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). NAEP advertises as "the largest nationally representative and continuing assessment of what America's students know and can do in various subject areas" and assesses students in the areas of civics, economics, geography, mathematics, music and visual arts, reading, science, technology and engineering literacy, United States history, and writing (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2018). NAEP began assessment in 1969 and continues to biennially test 4th, 8th, and 12th grade students across the

nation. Gaining validity during No Child Left Behind (NCLB), NAEP is the predominant national comparison tool used to rank and sort public schooling across states.

Since NAEP's inception in 1969, state comparison was utilized but was not fully reliable. NCLB fueled state comparison and increased the desire for a more standardized way to compare states. Common Core Standards entered the scene in 2010 and provided a way for NAEP assessments to become more standardized across the nation, focusing their efforts specifically on mathematics and English language arts standards (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2020). NAEP, now supported by Common Core, fuels the conversation of failing school systems and comparison across states, further painting a picture of national failure.

Peer Comparison. While state comparison and national comparison have contributed to the narrative of a frail and failing school system in the United States, comparison among teachers and administrators in the profession have drastically increased because of teacher effectiveness policy. Teacher effectiveness policy encouraged a level of peer-to-peer comparison which emerged from a shift in focus to teacher failure. NCLB alluded to teacher blame by demanding teachers be deemed "highly qualified" before entering the field. This change in language to "highly qualified" shifted the focus to teachers but kept most of the blame on school systems for hiring less than qualified teachers in the first place. Race to the Top (RTTT) changed the narrative by demanding teachers prove themselves as "highly effective" once in the classroom. The discourse of teacher effectiveness policy shifted the evaluation of educators to the demonstration of student academic growth. The shift from a focus on teacher training prior to entering the classroom, to a focus on the teacher's ability to demonstrate numerical growth within the classroom has shaped the way that educators are compared to one another today. Shaw (2016) described the problem associated with this approach: "When teacher

effectiveness researchers make a claim about teacher effectiveness, they are talking about a very specific and narrow set of teachers: those in grade levels and subject areas tested under state or federal mandate" (p. 5).

As part of the RTTT competitive grant application, states earned points for developing a plan to increase teacher and leader effectiveness through "clear approaches to measuring student growth," and "rigorous, transparent, and fair evaluation systems" using data from student growth as a "significant factor" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 9). Additionally, the RTTT grant stated that teacher and leader evaluations should be used in decisions regarding professional development, "compensating, promoting, and retaining teachers and principals," and "removing ineffective tenured and untenured teachers" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 9). RTTT urged states to develop or adopt systems of teacher evaluation that measured the effectiveness of educators to make hiring, firing, and promotional decisions. Many states adopted one of three prominent evaluation models: The Charlotte Danielson Framework for Teaching, the Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model, or 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning (Hazi & Rucinski, 2014). Evaluation models provide a means to rank teachers' performance both through student growth and through a set of teaching standards.

The state of Georgia developed an evaluation model similar to the Danielson Framework called the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System of Georgia (TKES). TKES consists of three components that come together to determine an overall Teacher Effectiveness Measure (TEM) score (Figure 4). Fifty percent of a teacher's TEM score is determined by administrative observation of performance standards (Figures 5 & 6), another 30% is determined by student growth scores, and the final 20% is determined by the teacher's professional growth plan (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). Peer comparison through TKES scores, or through

the evaluation scoring systems developed in other states, emerged from a perception of failing public school systems within the United States. From a Foucauldian perspective, the focus on comparison through ranks or grades "marks the gaps, hierarchizes qualities, skills, and aptitudes; but it also punishes and rewards" (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 181).

Figure 4

Teacher Effectiveness Measure in Georgia

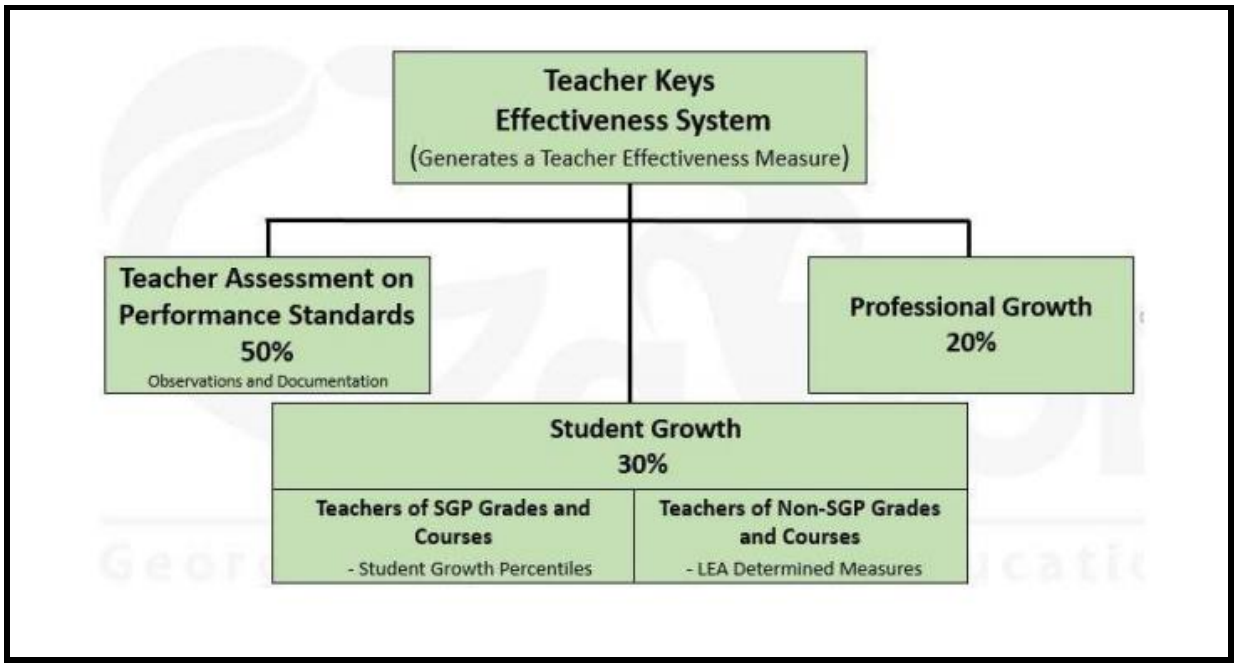
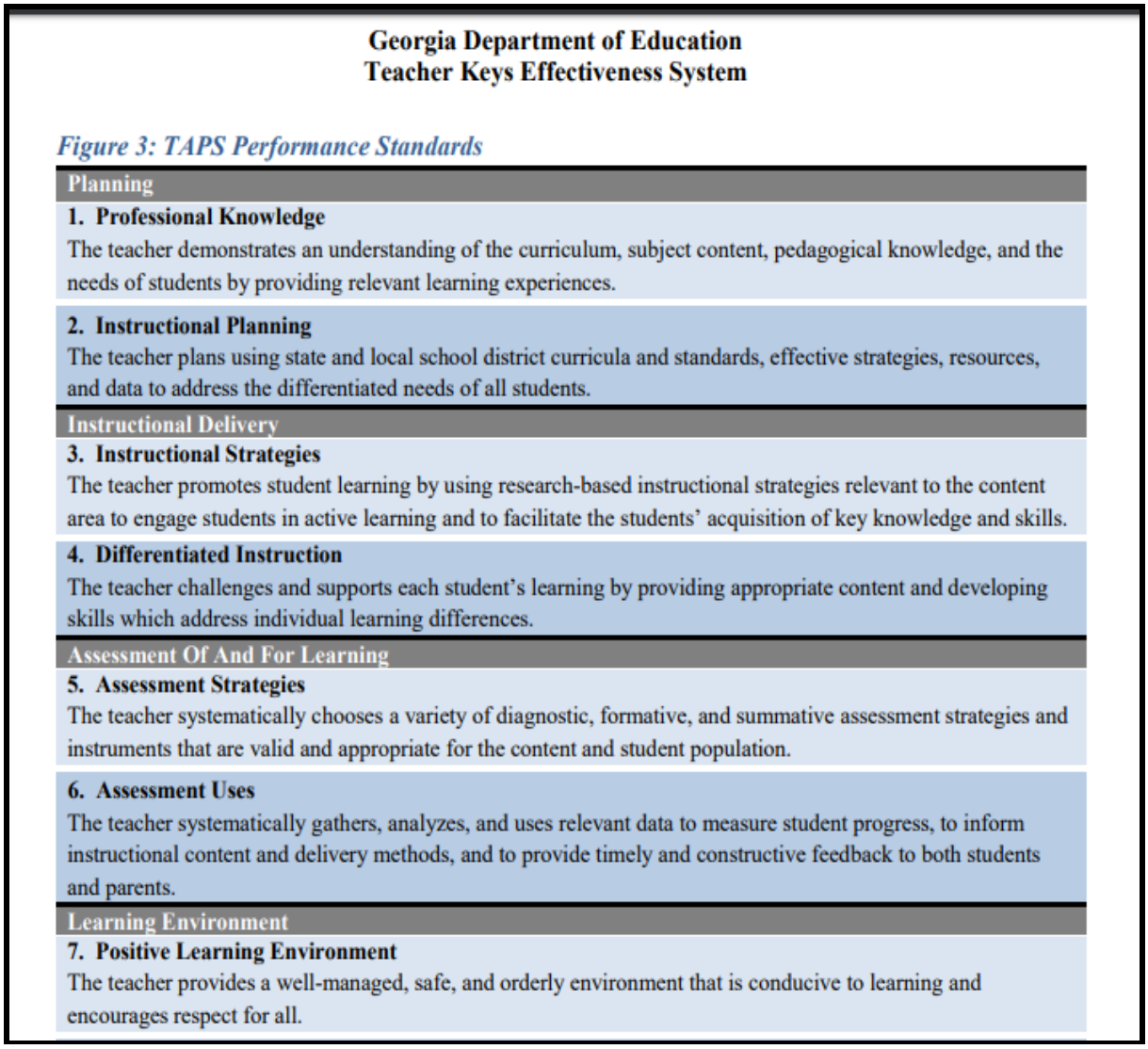


Figure 5

Teacher Keys Effectiveness System Standards, Part 1



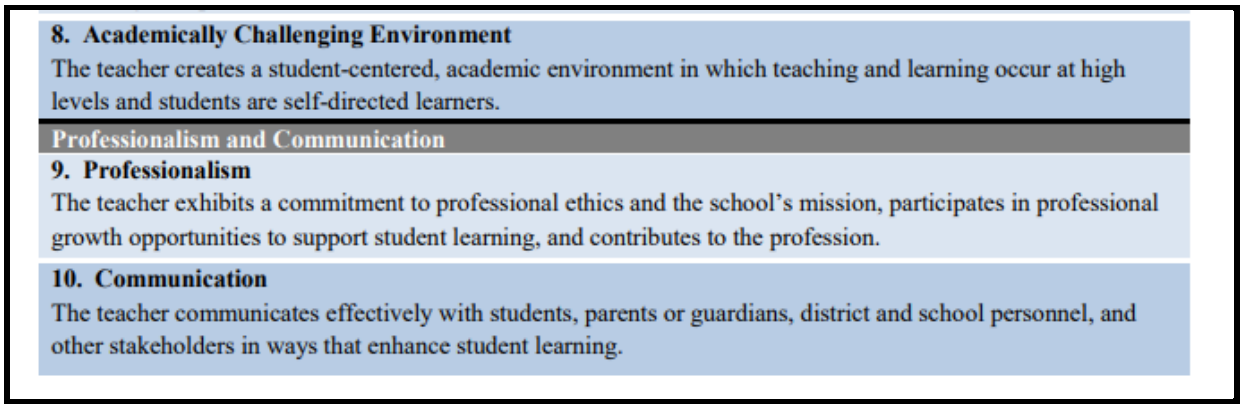
Georgia Department of Education
Teacher Keys Effectiveness System

Figure 3: TAPS Performance Standards

Planning
1. Professional Knowledge The teacher demonstrates an understanding of the curriculum, subject content, pedagogical knowledge, and the needs of students by providing relevant learning experiences.
2. Instructional Planning The teacher plans using state and local school district curricula and standards, effective strategies, resources, and data to address the differentiated needs of all students.
Instructional Delivery
3. Instructional Strategies The teacher promotes student learning by using research-based instructional strategies relevant to the content area to engage students in active learning and to facilitate the students' acquisition of key knowledge and skills.
4. Differentiated Instruction The teacher challenges and supports each student's learning by providing appropriate content and developing skills which address individual learning differences.
Assessment Of And For Learning
5. Assessment Strategies The teacher systematically chooses a variety of diagnostic, formative, and summative assessment strategies and instruments that are valid and appropriate for the content and student population.
6. Assessment Uses The teacher systematically gathers, analyzes, and uses relevant data to measure student progress, to inform instructional content and delivery methods, and to provide timely and constructive feedback to both students and parents.
Learning Environment
7. Positive Learning Environment The teacher provides a well-managed, safe, and orderly environment that is conducive to learning and encourages respect for all.

Figure 6

Teacher Keys Effectiveness System Standards, Part 2



8. Academically Challenging Environment

The teacher creates a student-centered, academic environment in which teaching and learning occur at high levels and students are self-directed learners.

Professionalism and Communication

9. Professionalism

The teacher exhibits a commitment to professional ethics and the school's mission, participates in professional growth opportunities to support student learning, and contributes to the profession.

10. Communication

The teacher communicates effectively with students, parents or guardians, district and school personnel, and other stakeholders in ways that enhance student learning.

STEM Education Fueled by the Perception of Failure

The perception of a failing school system and a lack of global competitiveness in the United States made way for the emergence of STEM education (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) as a national phenomenon. The official STEM acronym was introduced in 2001 by the National Science Foundation (NSF), but prior to that the promise of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics were already under consideration (Hallinen, 2019). In 1994, President Clinton declared via policy, "By the year 2000, United States students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement" (P.L. 103-227, p. 8). The 1999 PISA scores disproved that proclamation, as the United States ranked 19th in mathematics and 18th in science (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020a). Since Clinton's declaration in 1994, STEM education has continued to thrive through its promise of innovation and competitiveness. Federal funding has contributed to the "Promising practices" of STEM (P.L. 110-69, p. 70) continuously through the following acts:

- The America COMPETES Act of 2007 (P.L. 110-69); Reauthorizations in 2010 (P.L. 111-358) and 2015 (H.R. 114-1806)

- The Race to the Top (RTTT) grant of 2009, issued through the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (P.L. 111-5)
- Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015 (P.L. 114-95)
- American Innovation and Competitiveness Act of 2015 (P.L. 114-389)
- STEM Education Act of 2015 (P. L. 114-59)
- Perkins V. Bill of 2018 (P.L. 115-164)

STEM education has contributed to the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy through its focus on the need for global competitiveness and its assumption of a failing educational system within the United States. Within United States educational policy, STEM has become embraced as a magical cure for a perceived problem of educational failure. Within the field of art education, STEM gained traction in 2012 and continued to build momentum through a transition to STEAM (science, technology, engineering, art, and mathematics). A conversation of the implications of STEM education on the field of art education will continue in chapter six.

Enabling Condition: A Market-based Model of Education

Another enabling condition for the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy was the adoption of a market-based model of education, often referred to as neoliberalism's role in education. Giroux (2013) explained the relationship of neoliberalism and education:

> Neoliberalism or unbridled free-market fundamentalism employs modes of governance, discipline, and regulation that are totalizing in their insistence that all aspects of social life be determined, shaped, and weighted through market-driven measures...it is a mode of pedagogy and set of social arrangements that uses education to win consent, [and] produce consumer-based notions of agency. (p. 459)

The concept of neoliberalism, emerging from the 1980's, marked a shift from the perception of public education as a public good to the perception of public education as part of the market, or a public commodity (Lambert, et al., 2015). Similar to the above enabling condition of the perception of a failing school system, market-based approaches to education emerge from an idea that education is perceived to be "in crisis" or "failing" to meet current standards (Lambert, et al., 2015, p. 465). The concept of failing schools became further supported as a crisis once public schools made the shift from a public good to an economic good. Lambert, et al. (2015) noted, "public institutions such as schools, which were previously viewed as central to the collective good, are re-framed under neoliberalism to be part of the market" (p. 261). According to Berliner and Biddle (1995), neoliberalism relies on a "manufactured crisis" of failure to remain relevant, citing *A Nation at Risk* as a major manufactured crisis in education (p. 190). The market-based approach to education relies on several tenets: a focus on competition, on control, and on choice.

Focus on Competition

According to Lambert, et al. (2015), one of the "tenets of neoliberalism and the marketization of education is the concept of competition" (p. 468). Additionally, Ball and Olmedo (2013) agreed that "Neoliberalism requires and enacts a 'new type of individual'...formed within the logic of competition" (p. 88). The concept of competition is demonstrated through the comparison of assessment scores, teacher evaluation scores, and cumulative school and district ratings. Additionally, the concept of competition is revealed through the constant vying for attention from businesses designed to profit from competition among educational institutions. Ball (2018) referred to the privatization of education and the focus on for-profit organizations to provide the needed cure as "edu-businesses" (p. 587).

One key example of the market-based focus on competition in education was the development of the School Improvement Grants (SIG) by the federal government in 2001. Part of Title I, section 1003(g) of No Child Left Behind, the SIG program sought to improve the nation's lowest achieving schools by supplying funds for competitive grants (National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, 2017). While the SIG program was founded in 2001, the majority of funding for the program was implemented from 2009-2016. Within the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (ARRA), the SIG program received a tremendous boost in funding from $125 million in 2007 to $546 million by 2012; SIG funding was accompanied by the expressed goal of turning around 5,000 of the nation's lowest performing schools (Trujillo & Renee, 2015, p. 4). The SIG program allowed schools to separate themselves into four different categories for improvement: transformation, turnaround, restart, or school closure. Within these options, schools deemed "low performing" for two or more years must implement drastic changes under the guise of an "improvement plan." The options for improvement ranged from the firing of administration and staff to the complete closure of the school with options for parental choice for relocation (Trujillo & Renee, 2015; United States Department of Education, 2017). SIG allocations in Georgia amounted to $18,904,099 in 2009, $19,333,421 in 2010, and $19,228,131 in 2011 (United States Department of Education, 2016). Allocations to districts within Georgia were determined by another competitive grant application submitted to the Georgia Department of Education. Within this level of the competition, districts, and schools within the state of Georgia could apply with a detailed plan for improving "clusters" of "feeder schools" at the elementary, middle, and high school level. One suggestion from the state was to consider firing all principals associated with the low performing feeder schools prior to receiving the SIG award (Georgia Department of

Education, 2016a). Responding to the SIG program, Trujillo and Renee (2015) determined, "From this perspective, principles of competition, performance measurement, monitoring, and accountability for results are assumed to produce more effective, efficient schools" (p. 7). According to Foucault (1975/1979), such surveillance and monitoring "makes it possible to qualify, to classify and to punish. It establishes over individuals a visibility through which one differentiates them and judges them" (p. 184).

Another aspect of the ARRA was the Race to the Top (RTTT) grant in 2009, a competitive grant offered to states based on a rigorous application process. Embedded in the grant was language aimed at encouraging school improvement based on competition: teacher evaluations should be used for "compensating, promoting, and retaining teachers" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 9). The neoliberal ideal of competition is encouraged through federal grants, like RTTT, and policy. Competition between teachers, schools, school districts, and states is demonstrated through the comparison of testing data, teacher evaluation scores, and the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI) in the state of Georgia.

In addition to using testing and evaluation data to encourage competition between teaching peers, Lambert, et al. (2015) discussed the neoliberal born tradition of the "public shaming of 'underperforming' teachers" (p. 467). According to Lambert, et al. (2015), the public denouncing of teachers with underperforming test scores typically occurs at faculty meetings as a form of public shaming (p. 467). Foucault (1975/1979) explained that through examination individuals may be "described, judged, measured, compared with others" in order to be "corrected, classified, normalized, excluded" (p. 191). While teachers are compared to peers through unhealthy competition, schools and districts are also compared through publicly available school ratings and testing data. Under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act

(2015), all states were required to produce a "statewide accountability system" to numerically compare schools and districts within the state; in Georgia, this accountability system is referred to as the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI) (Georgia Department of Education, 2020a). In addition to a focus on competition, market-based models for education also focus on aspects of control.

Focus on Control

In *Discipline and Punish* (1975/1979), Foucault described Bentham's Panopticon. The panopticon was a model for a prison system planned around a singular tower surrounded by exposed prison cells. Bentham's design provided an efficient model to maximize surveillance while minimizing cost. Within the panopticon model, "The director may spy on all the employees that he has under his orders: nurses, doctors, foremen, teachers, warders; he will be able to judge them continuously, alter their behaviour, impose upon them the methods he thinks best" (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 204). Within a neoliberal, market-based approach to education, teachers become accustomed to the "continual surveillance of their teaching and being judged by students' results" (Lambert, et al., 2015, p. 465). This panopticon of continual surveillance and self-surveillance alters the very nature of teaching and produces new teaching subjects.

Control is a key tenet of the neoliberal ideals that support a market-based approach to education. The culture of surveillance that supports this approach can be seen in both the architectural design of modern schools and the programs of control developed through curriculum alignment, teacher observations, and data-driven evaluation. Ball & Olmedo (2013) reported that the performativity involved in the market-driven approach to education "introduces a routine of constant reporting and recording of our practice" (p. 90). Similarly, Foucault (1975/1979) noted, "the examination that places individuals in a field of surveillance also

situates them in a network of writing; it engages them in a whole mass of documents that capture and fix them" (p. 189). The 'government' of neoliberal education both trains us and documents our performance as educators. Within this structure, 'government' designates "the way in which the conduct of individuals or of groups might be directed" (Foucault, 1982, p. 790). The "permanent visibility" of the performance of teachers, their testing data, and their school rating creates a culture of control where teachers feel inclined to self-discipline their teaching performance (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 201).

Focus on Choice

Finally, the concept of choice is important when considering the impact of a market-based approach to education. The school choice movement gained momentum in 1990 with the publication of *Politics, Markets, and America's Schools* (Chubb & Moe, 1990a). Within their books and subsequent publications, Chubb and Moe (1990a, 1990b) made the case for school choice as a national norm. Within their system, Chubb and Moe (1990a, 1990b) argued that shifting from a democratic approach to public education to a market approach for public education would make schooling more educationally effective. Similar to the concept of control, "educational neoliberalism often utilises managerial control systems such as benchmarking of academic standards and assessment and fostering competition by ranking schools publicly and giving parents more 'choice'" (Lambert, et al, 2015, p. 463). Interest in the topic of school choice has remained steady since the 1990's, even spurring the development of the *Journal of School Choice* in 2006 and continues to be a part of political conversations regarding public schooling (Rollin & Stein, 2006; Robertson & Riel, 2019; Meckler, 2020). Additionally, a 2018 EdNext poll of 4,601 adults revealed that 54% of participants support "wider choice" for public school parents and the voucher option to enroll in private school establishments with federal

funding assistance (Cheng, et. al., 2019, p. 2). The market-based approach to education relies heavily on competition, comparison, and choice; chapter 5 explores the refusal to accept that model of education from parents engaged in the testing opt-out movement.

Enabling Condition: Shifting Focus from Training Program to Individual Teachers

A third enabling condition of the discourse of teacher effectiveness was the shift in focus from teacher training programs to individual teachers; this shift is best exemplified by the evolution of language in educational policy. The concepts of "competent" and "quality" teaching subjects allowed for the emergence of "effective" as an adjective to define teaching subjects. Tracing the emergence of the teacher effectiveness discourse, I will first explore the concepts of "teacher competence" and "teacher quality" that have allowed "teacher effectiveness" to become thinkable.

Teacher competence. Fueled by a belief that the United States education system was failing, educational policy from the 1960's to 1990's shifted its focus to teacher competency. The discourse of teacher competency focused on improving the quality of education by developing ways of testing teacher candidates' knowledge before permitting them to enter the field. Much of the brunt of the teacher competency discourse fell on the shoulders of the teacher training programs preparing the teacher candidates. Looking to teachers as both the problem and the solution of the state of American education, policy shifted to include language about teacher preparation and teacher content knowledge. The emphasis on competency during this time produced a discourse that normalized teacher certification examinations and government oversight of teacher preparation programs that continue to this day.

Enacted by President Lyndon B. Johnson, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was signed into law on April 11, 1965 (Nelson, 2016). Noting it was "the most

sweeping educational bill ever to come before Congress," Johnson (1965) ushered in a new era of governmental involvement in education (p. 1). Fueled by Johnson's war on poverty, the founding assumption of ESEA was "the poor were poor because they lacked schooling" (Cusick, 2014, p. 177). With this rationale, both poverty and education simultaneously became national issues. Education, once a local and state issue, entered the arena of federal policy and funding. While the original version of ESEA did not include regulations for teacher certification, it did lay the groundwork for future educational policy related to teacher training. Specifically, ESEA marked a change in the dispersal of federal funding for education by running educational funds through the state department instead of local school districts. Cusick (2014) concisely explained the dilemma: "The federal agency has forced state departments…to exercise state departments' constitutional power over what goes on in classrooms, a power that prior to their dependence on federal money had, by many state departments, been left latent" (p. 177). Unfortunately, the exercise of state power over local classroom practices often came with the threat of federal fund withdrawal, a practice that remains prevalent today. Much of the educational policy decisions occurring at this time were the result of the United States educational system being described as "failing." This description increased in usage after the 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, and continued to influence educational policy.

While some southern states, such as Georgia, began teacher certification and teacher competence reform as early as 1975, the bulk of teaching and education reform emerged in response to the 1983 report *A Nation at Risk* (Sandefer, 1984). Painting the current educational system as a failure, the National Commission on Excellence in Teacher Education linked educational failure to global standing, economic demise, and national security: "The educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens

our very future as a Nation and a people" (United States, 1983). The educational policy and reform ramifications of *A Nation at Risk* were sweeping; by 1984, 38 states had teacher certification requirements to ensure teacher competence (Sandefur, 1984). *A Nation at Risk* powered the discourse of teacher competence, prompting states to look to teacher content knowledge as playing a part in the perceived problem with the state of education in America.

According to Bové (1995), "discourses produce knowledge about humans and their society" (p. 56). Teacher competence policies function as a discourse producing accepted truths and norms within the field of education. One major implication of the discourse of teacher competency was the focus on teacher content knowledge as a marker of teacher quality. Under this educational model, prospective teachers' mastery of content knowledge became normalized and favored over pedagogical training. The focus on prospective teachers' content knowledge made possible the discourse of teacher quality that pervaded educational discourse in the early 2000's with No Child Left Behind (NCLB).

Teacher quality. Emerging from the discourse of teacher competence, the focus on teacher content knowledge continued in 2001 with the reauthorization of ESEA. Instead of urging for and suggesting a need for competent teachers, NCLB mandated that all teachers be deemed "highly qualified" to remain employed in United States public schools. Within this policy, newly hired core content teachers beginning the 2002-2003 academic year were obligated to meet the state and federal "highly qualified" requirements, while existing core content teachers had until the 2005-2006 school year to achieve highly qualified status. Within this policy, core content subjects were defined as "English, reading or language arts, math, science, history, civics and government, geography, economics, the arts and foreign language," marking an inclusion of fine arts as a core subject area (U.S. Department of Education, 2004a, p.

10). NCLB altered the ways in which teachers in these core content areas were deemed competent in their respective fields and altered the expectations for new and existing educators.

The discourse of teacher quality policy that emerged in the early 2000's formed a new version of the teaching subject. NCLB required new and existing teachers to prove their competence and merit outside of the classroom. NCLB further removed hiring autonomy from local school districts and placed stipulations on the requirements that acting teachers must possess. Additionally, NCLB linked federal funding and stipulations to existing teachers' professional development opportunities. Requiring professional development options that met a list of demands ranging from the length of the conference to the content presented severely limited the individual needs of core content area teachers, especially within the arts (Sabol, 2013). The discourse of teacher quality furthered the focus on teacher preparation programs and teacher training as the solution for a failing educational system.

Teacher effectiveness. Emerging from discourses of teacher competence and teacher quality, the current discourse of "teacher effectiveness" has gained traction in the realm of educational policy. Beginning in 2009, the terms "effective teacher" and "highly effective teacher" were defined and legitimized by the federally funded Race to the Top (RTTT) grant. According to the United States Department of Education (2009), a highly effective teacher was one "whose students achieve high rates (e.g., one and one-half grade levels in an academic year) of student growth" (p. 12). The language and the material effects of RTTT have become a productive force in the educational sphere and aim to focus on the individual teachers' role in the classroom. By shifting the focus to a model that elevates student achievement as the determining factor in success, individual teachers are placed under a microscope and judged based on the ability to produce numerical, measurable growth in their classrooms.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I argue that the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness would not be thinkable without certain enabling conditions which have allowed that discourse to emerge. The perception of a failing educational system, the adoption of a market-based approach to education, and the shift in focus from teacher education programs to individual teachers all contributed to the emergence of teacher effectiveness as a discourse in education. Foucauldian genealogy not only searches for the enabling conditions that allowed a discourse to emerge, but also searches for the moments of discontinuity that threaten to disrupt that normalized discourse. In chapter five, I explore instances that threatened the collapse of the discourse of teacher effectiveness.

CHAPTER FIVE

> In order to understand what power relations are about, perhaps we should investigate the forms of resistance and attempts made to dissociate these relations. (Foucault, 1982, p. 211)

Discontinuities

The concept of discontinuity stands in direct contrast to the search for origins. Traditional history searches for a clean, linear narrative of historical events, whereas effective history searches for the disruptions. Discontinuities are the moments of disruption that make discourses visible and threaten their collapse. In short, they are "instances of interruption" to the perceived flow of history (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 4). According to Foucault (1969/1972), "Discontinuity was the stigma of temporal dislocation that it was the historian's task to remove from history" (p. 8). For the genealogist, discontinuity has "become one of the basic elements of historical analysis" as they move historical analysis away from the search for origins and untarnished beginnings (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 8).

Discontinuities reveal a moment where the discourse is "available to transformation at any time because of shifting power/knowledge relations" (Van Cleave, 2012, p. 113). With teacher effectiveness discourse, the "breakdowns and resistances" acted to either support and strengthen the normalized discourse or to dissolve and disrupt the normalized discourse (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 80). The "incident of interruptions" noted in this chapter do not encompass all moments of rupture that threatened the collapse of teacher effectiveness discourse, but instead represent a few breaks observed in the narrative (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 4).

Discontinuities in the Emergence of Teacher Effectiveness Discourse

In order to determine the "conditions of existence" that allowed for the emergence of the discourse of teacher effectiveness, I analyzed documents from 1983-2019 (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 39). As I analyzed the documents, I noted moments of disruption, or inconsistencies, in the normalized narrative. Within this chapter, I discuss the discontinuities I identified in the discourse of teacher effectiveness, which include the *Nation at Risk* counter narratives, the testing opt-out movement, and the COVID-19 pandemic. While these are certainly not the only moments of disruption, these few discontinuities stood out as significant to me as I analyzed the documents collected for this dissertation.

Discontinuity: *A Nation at Risk* Counter-Narratives

The National Commission on Excellence in Education was established in August of 1981 by Terrel H. Bell, the Secretary of Education. Secretary Bell, a professional educator and supporter of public education, took the position knowing that President Reagan had campaigned on an agenda to abolish the federal Department of Education and intended to maintain that goal (Holton, 1984; Guthrie & Springer, 2004; Good, 2010). Bell urged President Reagan to appoint an educational commission to research the successes of American public education but ended up developing the commission himself when the president refused (Guthrie & Springer, 2004). Once the commission was established, President Reagan met with the team to share his five-part goal for the state of public education:

1. Education as the "right and responsibility of every parent"
2. Like the economy, educational excellence "demands competition among students and among schools"

3. "We welcome the resurgence of independent schools," as pluralism and independence are markers of American education
4. Educational excellence cannot be achieved "in schools still plagued by drug abuse, crime, and chronic absenteeism"
5. A move to allow "God back in the classroom" (Holton, 1984, p. 4).

In addition to his five points, President Reagan maintained his agenda to return public education to its place as a local issue and to reduce or eliminate the role of the federal government in public education. Working from March of 1981 to April of 1983, the committee of 18 members drafted a brief, but impactful, "clarion call" to the public (Good, 2010, p. 370).

While the crisis-inducing language of *A Nation at Risk* gained attention from the public, multiple scholars and educational committees were supplying counter narratives that did not receive equal media attention. One immediate counter argument was published by Daniel Koretz, an analyst at the Congressional Budget Office (CBO). Koretz was summoned by the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, a branch of the CBO, to complete a two-part report that evaluated the state of educational achievement in United States public education. Koretz's reports concluded the decline in achievement expressed by *A Nation at Risk* was too narrow and the findings were simply incorrect (Koretz, 1986, 1987). Koretz's report was largely ignored by the media.

In addition to Koretz's report, multiple alternative perspectives on the state of U.S. education emerged as counter narratives to the dire picture painted by *A Nation at Risk*. The Sandia Report emerged as the central document contradicting *A Nation at Risk*. Sandia National Laboratories, contracted by the Department of Energy (DOE), conducted their own account of the state of American public education in 1991 (Stedman, 2001). While the document was

complete in 1991, the final report was not made public until the May/June issue of the *Journal of Educational Research* in 1993 (Carson, Huelskamp, & Woodall, 1993; Stedman, 2001). The report included an analysis of "dropout statistics, standardized tests, postsecondary studies, educational funding, international comparisons, and educator status" and concluded that on nearly every measure they found "steady or slightly improving trends" (Carson, Huelskamp, & Woodall, 1993, p. 259). While the report was completed in 1991, Sandia researchers reported the Bush administration suppressed the report and reported being told that it would "never see the light of day" (Miller, 1991, p. 1).

Fueled by the Sandia Report, other educational scholars published similar findings illustrating the steady rate of U.S. educational trends and slight improvements over time (Bracey, 1992, 1994; Jaeger, 1992; Berliner, 1993). These authors pointed to the flaws within *A Nation at Risk*, yet their publications never received any traction outside of the academic community. The prevailing notion of the failure of United States' public education maintained its standing, despite the counter narratives that emerged. Counter arguments to *A Nation at Risk* had the potential to "dislodge them from a position of truth," but could not gain the media attention to persuade the public (Burr, 2003/1995, p. 80). Bracey (1994) wrote extensively about the role of the media in the prevailing discourse of school failure. He noted instances of media outlets diminishing the work of Berliner, Jaeger, and Bracey, instead labeling them as 'revisionists' or 'renegade researchers' to reduce their impact (p. 81).

There are several contributing factors to the media's attention given to *A Nation at Risk* and lack of attention given to its rebuttals. One contributing factor was the intentional language used in *A Nation at Risk* to create a compelling narrative: "more than simply a jumble of numbers, the report contained an identifiable narrative arc that made it both memorable and

resonant" (Menta, 2015, p. 23). One member of the Commission admitted, "in order to be more effective some alarming language had to be used...even to the point that the statistics may not have been quite correct" (Good, 2010, p. 378). Menta (2015) explained, "critics of the report never were able to offer an equally convincing counternarrative that would tie together their assorted criticisms into a compelling story" (p. 23).

Another contributing factor to the embrace of *A Nation at Risk* was the timing. The release of the report coincided with an economic recession, offering a compelling explanation of economic failure, as well as an explanation of the international successes of Japan and South Korea (Guthrie & Springer, 2004; Menta, 2015). *A Nation at Risk* ultimately contributed to an economic view of schooling, one in which the economic purposes of schooling were elevated above the other purposes of schooling (Menta, 2015). A final contributing factor to the media attention given to *A Nation at Risk* was the curious nature of its unveiling. The release of *A Nation at Risk* took place at the White House at a press event with a presentation by President Reagan. While the president reviewed the finalized report days prior to the event, it became apparent from his prepared remarks that he did not read the report. Reiterating his initial goals of limited federal involvement in education, voucher programs, and the inclusion of God in schools, the media initially became intrigued in the disconnect between the Commission and the president's remarks (Holton, 1984). Within months, six hundred thousand copies of *A Nation at Risk* were requested; the report was also reprinted in the *Washington Post* each week for the year following the report's release (Holton, 1984; Menta, 2015).

Reports by Bracey, Berliner, and Jaeger, as well as the Sandia Report, offered a well-researched rebuttal to the enabling condition of school failure supported by *A Nation at Risk*.

While these counter narratives provided an opportunity to dismantle the concept of school failure fueled by *A Nation at Risk*, the economic issues and the compelling narrative of *A Nation at Risk* outweighed the counter arguments provided by these authors and allowed the narrative to continue. Burr (2003/1995) explained, "Discourses do not interlock neatly with each other, cleanly sealing off all possible cracks and weaknesses. There are weak points, places where they may be attacked, and points at which other discourses pose a real threat; they are always implicitly being contested by other discourses" (p. 110). The counter narratives to *A Nation at Risk* were discontinuities that contested the dominant discourse.

Discontinuity: The Testing Opt-Out Movement

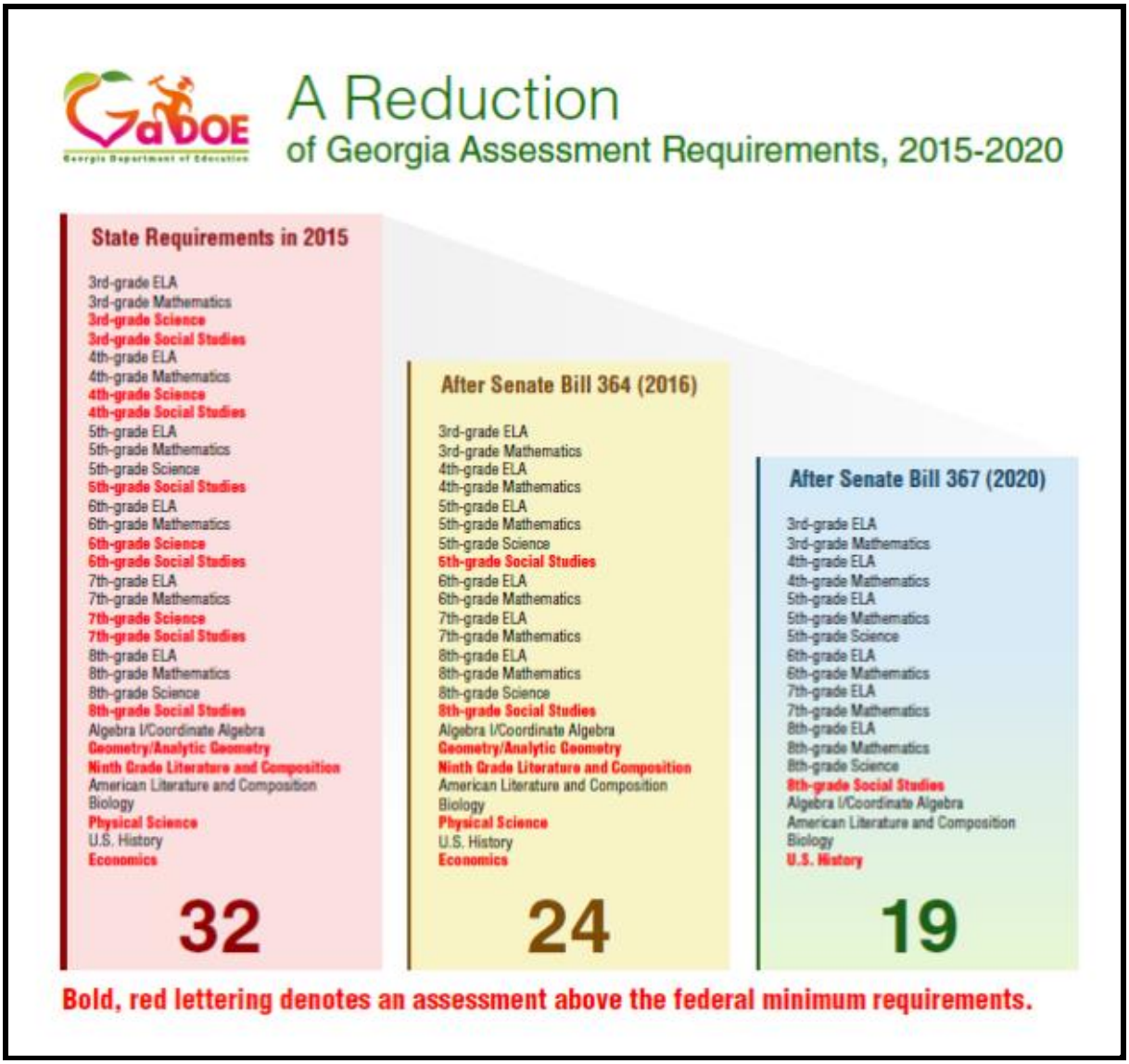
Educational policies put forth by the federal government from No Child Left Behind to the present have required states to participate in mandated standardized testing to receive federal funds. As standardized testing became normalized, so did the dependency on student scores to determine teacher effectiveness. The testing opt-out movement was characterized by the refusal of parents to allow their children to participate in state mandated testing. The testing opt-out movement gained momentum among grassroots organizations and threatened the reliance on testing data to determine student growth. Grassroots organizations, such as United Opt Out and FairTest, have led the charge in organizing parental resistance to mandated testing. New York State reported an 18% test refusal rate in 2018 for 3rd-8th grade students, challenging the federal government's requirement that 95% of students participate in testing (New York State Education Department, 2018; Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015). While New York State led the nation in test refusals, 10 other states experienced opt-out rates that exceeded the Department of Education's 5% threshold, including Colorado and Alaska (Pizmony-Levy & Saraisky, 2016). While the Every Student Succeeds Act (2015) warns states that federal funding may be

withheld if more than 5% of students opt-out of mandated testing, there has been no formal action to withhold funding from any state to this point (Strauss, 2018; FairTest, 2018).

The testing opt-out movement is an ongoing disturbance in the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness. Parental testing opt-outs have revealed teacher evaluation determined by student test scores to be an unstable practice. Over the past few years, states have varied greatly in their responses to parental acts of resistance. In Georgia, public resistance to testing practices aided in legislative change, contributing to a reduction of mandated tests for K-12 students and a reduction in the weight of student growth measures for teacher performance evaluation (Georgia Department of Education, 2016b; Georgia Department of Education, 2020d) [Figure 7]. Conversely, Ohio attempted to pass legislation that would require students who opted out of testing to receive a zero on standardized exams, essentially opting to lower their state performance score (Kirylo, 2018). Despite the varied response, several states responded to resistances from grassroots organizations. The following states took action to reduce the number of state mandated assessments offered and took steps to reduce the impact of standardized testing on teacher evaluation determinations: Georgia, New Mexico, West Virginia, Hawaii, Oklahoma, Ohio, South Carolina, New York, and Maryland (Neill & Guisbond, 2017).

Figure 7

Georgia Department of Education Assessment Requirements



The testing opt-out movement produced changes in power relationships, disrupting the relations of power between parents, schools, and the governing systems that evaluate teachers (Foucault, 1984/1971, p. 88). According to Schroeder, Currin, and McCardle (2018), the testing opt-out movement acts to "starve the system of data" and disrupt the system of surveillance that has become normalized in school settings (p. 1004). Parent organized opt-outs acted as

"breakdowns" that disturbed the normalized trend of depending on student assessment data to quantify teacher effectiveness (Foucault, 1971/1984, p. 80).

Discontinuity: The COVID-19 Pandemic

On February 11, 2019, the World Health Organization announced the official name for the global disease that was causing the 2019 novel coronavirus outbreak. The new virus, called COVID-19, was first identified in Wuhan, China and quickly spread around the globe (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020). Dangers from the deadly virus caused schools around across the United States, and around the world, to close in the spring of 2020. Nearly 1.6 billion students in over 190 countries closed their doors between February-May 2020 and transitioned to some form of distant learning (United Nations, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic acted as a disruptor to the dominant discourse of teacher effectiveness, since it caused a rupture in the system that supported methods of measuring teacher effectiveness.

Spring 2020

In March of 2020, the federal Department of Education released two documents outlining the power of the U.S. government to provide waivers for states struggling to meet accountability requirements due to COVID-19 closures (United States Department of Education, 2020a, 2020b). Within these documents, Secretary of Education Betsy DeVos detailed the invitation for states to request waivers for the 2019-2020 school year, made available through her authority under section 8401(b) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (United States Department of Education, 2020b). The waiver offered to states in March 2020 allowed for the removal of "assessment requirements in section 1111(b)(2) of the ESEA, the accountability and school identification requirements in section 1111(c)(4) and 1111(d)(2)(C)-(D), and certain reporting requirements related to assessments and accountability in section 1111(h)" (United

States Department of Education, 2020b, p. 1). In other words, states were provided the option to cancel state mandated testing and press pause on the teacher evaluation processes normally required for the 2019-2020 school year. Additionally, school districts and states were exempted from providing student and district growth data often provided to the public through state and local report cards.

In Georgia, the state superintendent and state board of education applied for the testing waiver offered by the United States Department of Education. Additionally, Georgia chose to halt evaluation requirements measuring teacher effectiveness for the 2019-2020 school year. COVID-19 acted as a catalyst for change in teacher preparation assessments as well, prompting the Georgia Professional Standards Commission to propose a withdrawal from the edTPA program established in 2015 (Arthur, 2020). Georgia State Superintendent, Richard Woods, stated "The COVID crisis has made clearer ...measuring a teacher's preparation and skill is more complicated than a high-stakes assessment tool can capture" (2020c, p. 1).

Fall 2020

Entering the 2020-2021 school year proved to offer less flexibility to states contemplating how to navigate mandated accountability and assessment protocols. Many states, including Georgia, applied for accountability waivers for the 2020-2021 academic year, urging the United States Department of Education to consider the challenges that would emerge from the continued pandemic. State governments envisioned a year plagued with attendance fluctuations, irregular school year start plans, and interrupted calendars. Additionally, states urged the federal government to consider the gap in learning that occurred when many schools across the country unexpectedly transitioned to ill-equipped digital learning plans in the spring of 2020. Citing the need to "use data to guide our decision-making," Secretary DeVos (2020) denied the requests

from states to provide waivers for the 2020-2021 school year (p. 1). Further, DeVos (2020) stated "it is now our expectation that states will, in the interest of students, administer summative assessments during the 2020-2021 school year, consistent with the requirements of the law and following the guidance of local health officials. As a result, you should *not* anticipate such waivers being granted again" (p. 1). The letter, a warning to states like Georgia that applied for a 2020-2021 waiver, acted as the first indicator that states would be forced back into the "normal" system of accountability. DeVos (2020) warned, "Make no mistake. If we fail to assess students, it will have a lasting effect for years to come" (p. 1). Despite the denial of flexibility, states like Georgia continued to respond adequately to the uncertainty surrounding the pandemic.

Georgia's Response. Richard Woods, Georgia's State Superintendent, announced a plan to follow federal guidelines, but reduce the impact of mandated testing for the 2020-2021 school year. For high school students in Georgia, state End of Course (EOC) testing typically counts for 20% of a students' grade; however, Superintendent Woods proposed that the state reduce that impact to 0.01% (essentially zero) for the 2020-2021 school year (Frick, 2020). While met with praise from parents and teachers, the Georgia Board of Education initially voted in an 8-4 decision to deny the superintendent's request. Superintendent Woods (2020a) noted that he strongly disagreed with the board's decision and encouraged stakeholders to "provide feedback through the public-comment process and let their voices be heard" (p. 1). During the public comment portion of this debate, Superintendent Woods encouraged Georgians to envision a new norm for public education in the state. After ample feedback from teachers, parents, and students, the Georgia Board of Education reversed their decision and opted for a testing impact reduction to 0.01% for the 2020-2021 school year.

Superintendent Woods, along with other educational leaders, have urged for a reimagining of public education in the time of COVID-19 and beyond. In a public release, Superintendent Woods (2020b) encouraged others to resist the "norm" of accountability measures set forth by the state and federal government to this point: "but there is a 'normal' we should not and cannot go back to - a 'normal' of data points determining destiny, scores oversimplifying a student's worth, and blame and shame serving as the drivers of educational reform" (p. 2). Additionally, he stated, "we cannot return to the status quo of over-testing and hyper-accountability" (Woods, 2020b, p. 2). Woods (2020b) vocalized his support for a whole child approach to education, including a focus on fine arts, recess, and play. He also advocated for a reduction in high-stakes testing requirements and student-level, rather than grade-level, instruction.

Proposed Change

Echoing a desire for change, Sarah Jenkins, the Director of Policy Research and Strategic Initiatives at KnowledgeWorks, (2020) urged for the pandemic to act as a catalyst for envisioning public education across the United States. Jenkins (2020) advocated for flexible learning options, such as "competency-based approaches" that focus on mastery of skills and knowledge instead of knowledge levels determined by seat time requirements (p. 1). Similar to Woods' approach, Jenkins (2020) voiced the benefits of transitioning to a model of education where students progress "based on evidence of mastery or competency," and made readers aware of the obstacles of current policy that run counter to that approach. Finally, Jenkins (2020) highlighted states, such as Utah, which have implemented change in recent years to turn focus away from the accountability measures that have become normalized. In 2019, Utah developed a "portrait of a graduate" which outlined 13 ideal characteristics of a Utah graduate upon

completion of K-12 education: academic mastery; wellness, civic, financial, and economic literacy; digital literacy; communication; critical thinking and problem solving; creativity and innovation; collaboration and teamwork; honesty, integrity, and responsibility; hard work and resilience; lifelong learning and personal growth (Utah State Board of Education, 2019, p. 1-2).

Unraveling Norms

While Woods and Jenkins mentioned above urge for the COVID-19 pandemic to act as a catalyst for change in the discourse of teacher effectiveness, the discontinuity of the pandemic is actively unraveling some norms that were thought to be untouchable. Normalized accountability measures that support teacher effectiveness measures are being challenged in real time as parents disenroll students from public schools.

Schooling Alternatives. According to Camera (2020), a survey of 8,000 parents across the nation revealed that "nearly 40% of parents reported disenrolling their children from the K-12 school they were originally set to attend this year" (p. 4). Among those who have disenrolled their children, "pandemic pods" or "microschools" have emerged as a schooling option for those parents who have not felt safe sending their children back to traditional public school (Moyer, 2020, p. 1; National Education Association, 2020, p. 1). Pandemic pods have the potential to disrupt current accountability models for teacher effectiveness. Financial means are necessary to have access to pandemic pods or micro-schooling options, therefore more affluent students are moving out of traditional classrooms to participate in pods. This financial barrier leaves those lower-income families to rely on traditional schooling, effectively skewing the public-school funding options and the student growth percentage models for teachers (National Education Association, 2020). In many states, like Georgia, public school funding is determined by the number of students enrolled. In Georgia, student enrollment is determined by Full-Time

Equivalent (FTE) counts taken in October and March of each academic year (Georgia Department of Education, 2020b). In addition to depending on the full-time enrollment of students, FTE counts require that students "must have attended class for at least one of the prior ten days before the FTE count day" (Georgia Department of Education, 2020b, p. 9). A reduced number of full-time enrolled students, or an increased number of student absences due to COVID-19 would reduce state and local funding for that school district.

The financial barrier preventing lower income families from participating in educational pods, as well as the lack of access to educational opportunities produced through school closures and absences will impact student growth measures in future years (United Nations, 2020). Within the United States, teacher effectiveness is determined by percentages of student growth from year to year. The United Nations (2020) report speculated that without remediation, "the loss of learning by one-third (equivalent to a three-month school closure) during Grade 3 might result in 72 per cent of students falling so far behind that by Grade 10 they will have dropped out or will not be able to learn anything in school" (p. 9). Additionally, past research by Allensworth & Evans (2016) warned of the impacts of chronic absenteeism, noting that for each week of absences a high school freshman has, his/her chances of graduation decrease by 20 percent. The loss of instructional support during mass school closures in spring 2020, paired with delayed openings and excessive absences in fall 2020 put students and teachers in a situation where growth measures will be largely inaccurate in future years.

Evaluation Alternatives. In addition to amending teacher evaluation models for the 2019-2020 school year, many states adjusted their teacher evaluation protocols for the 2020-2021 school year. The Department of Education in Georgia announced that summative evaluations, determined through student growth measures, professional growth measures, and

observations would be altered for the 2020-2021 academic year at the state level, but gave local school districts the option to proceed with the process (Broce, 2020; Georgia Department of Education, 2020c). Since a testing waiver was in place for all Georgia state-mandated tests in the spring, student growth measures were omitted from the summative evaluation process. New Jersey, on the other hand, moved away from teacher effectiveness measures through assessment growth and opted for a portfolio-based option for the 2020-2021 school year. In order to demonstrate growth and effectiveness, teachers have several weeks to produce a portfolio that will allow educators to "showcase their professional practice with a set of artifacts, stretched out over a window of time" (Mooney, 2020, p. 1). The portfolio process may include "student work, a video of a lesson, or any other evidence" that would give evaluators a true picture of the teacher's instructional skill (Mooney, 2020, p. 1).

The National Council on Teacher Quality worked to compile information from all 50 states on evaluation processes planned for the 2020-2021 school year. As of October 2020, only 24 states had released guidelines for measuring teacher effectiveness during the COVID-19 pandemic (Holston, 2020). Of the 24 states with an advertised evaluation plan in place, 21 states are still required to provide summative evaluations for all teachers, with Illinois, Mississippi, and New Mexico being the only exceptions (Holston, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic caused a disruption to the normalized means of measuring teacher effectiveness in the United States, causing many states to alter their definitions of student growth. In Connecticut, student growth measures were adjusted for "student learning indicators," which focus on "social and emotional learning, student engagement, and family engagement" (National Council on Teacher Quality (NCTQ), 2020, policy tracker, p. 1). Similarly, in Oregon, student growth goals were altered to

"emphasize engagement and social, emotional, and behavioral health rather than purely academic" (NCTQ, 2020, policy tracker, p. 1).

In addition to altered definitions of student growth, many states changed their summative evaluation procedures for the 2020-2021 school year. Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, 33 states required teacher effectiveness to be measured, at least in part, by a demonstration of student growth (NCTQ, 2020). As of October 2020, many states have reduced the impact of student growth scores on teachers' evaluation measures or removed the student growth component altogether. In Indiana, summative evaluations will be determined by professional practices, such as classroom test scores, classroom observations, and observable student-teacher interactions. Similarly, in Oklahoma and Colorado, summative evaluations for teacher effectiveness will be determined solely on observations of professional practice (NCTQ, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic revealed the instability of the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness. The disruption of the pandemic forced changes within the structure of schooling and evaluation that were "previously considered immobile" only months prior (Foucault, 1984/1971, p. 82). Discontinuities "suspend the continuous accumulation of knowledge" and create openings for change and new ways of being (Foucault, 1969/1972, p. 4).

Conclusion

A traditional historian views discontinuity as moments that must be erased, or reduced, from the narrative of history (Foucault, 1969/1972). Discontinuities, by their very nature, are disruptive and contribute to the messiness of history. Burr (1995/2003) noted, "prevailing discourses are always under implicit threat from alternatives, which can dislodge them from their position of truth" (p. 80). The goal of this chapter was to draw attention to some of the moments of disruption where alternatives emerged, and to expose the messiness of the discourse of teacher

effectiveness. In chapter six, I explore the concept of teacher effectiveness in direct relation to the field of art education.

CHAPTER SIX

> We speak policy and at the same time policy speaks us; it creates positions from which we are able to act and think. Accountability policies in particular produce new and sometimes distorted possibilities for action and identity and self-worth. (Ball, 2015b, p. 467)

Introduction

The discourse of teacher effectiveness policy impacts the field of art education. As art education is a profession marked with isolation, we often feel as if educational policy mandates and trends of accountability in education do not apply to us or will not impact us (Taylor, 2018). Hanawalt (2018) concurred that art teachers operate "under the perception that art as a subject has remained largely outside the purview of accountability mandates" (p. 93). Hanawalt (2018) cautioned, "this (mis) perception may in fact be allowing the effects of the current audit culture to go largely unnoticed" (p. 93). This chapter explores the connections between the discourse of teacher effectiveness and the field of art education.

Impact on the Field of Art Education

Educational policies, adopted as regimes of truth, shape us as art educators and inform the teaching subjects we become. Ball and Olmedo (2013) explained the subject as "the result of endless processes of construction of identities that are to a greater or lesser extent, but never completely, constrained by the contingencies of the particular historical moment in which they are inscribed" (p. 87). Ball and Olmedo's (2013) explanation allows us to think of subjectivity as "processes of becoming that focus on what we do rather than on who we are" (p. 87). The

educational policies that surround us as art educators inform what we do as art educators and the types of teachers we are becoming. Teacher effectiveness policy impacts the ways in which art educators are monitored, are trained, and are permitted to practice in the field of art education.

Discursive Impact of Policy on Art Education Literature

My interest in educational policy and the impact of teacher effectiveness policy stemmed from an observation of my classroom. In 2011, I was teaching elementary art and attending TKES training throughout the year. As part of Georgia's Race to the Top grant, teachers were required to attend an initial TKES orientation, followed by "familiarization" training in subsequent years (Georgia Department of Education, 2019, p. 10). The juxtaposition of the thematic, big idea projects that I planned with my students and the narrow, jargon-filled meetings I was attending struck me as odd. I noticed a shift in my teaching and the language I used when administrators entered the classroom for observations. I began to explain myself constantly and attempt to train my evaluators — this is what differentiation looks like in kindergarten art; this is what assessment looks like in 3rd grade art; this *is* my data, even though it is not numerical. As I attended art education conferences and searched practitioner journals, I found the support for these changes in education lacking.

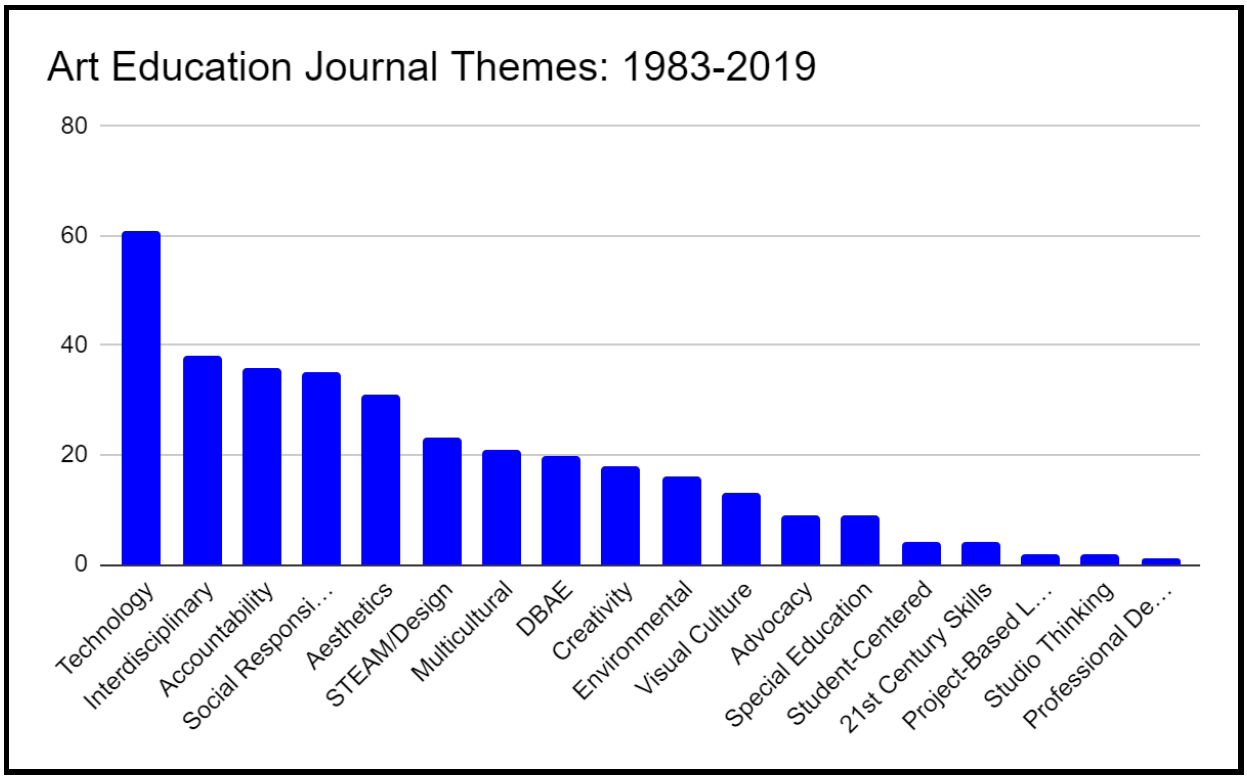
As I collected documents on the enabling conditions that allowed the discourse of teacher effectiveness to emerge, I simultaneously searched through art education documents to determine overlap. I narrowed my search dates from May 1983-May 2019 to align with the parameters I placed on my historical investigation. I focused on *Art Education*; a practitioner journal published through the National Art Education Association (NAEA). I also focused on the NAEA's position papers published on their online platform. I opted to exclude NAEA's *Studies in Art Education* and *Arts Education Policy Review*, as these journals are aimed primarily toward

researchers rather than practitioners. Within both *Art Education* and the NAEA position statements, I chose to narrow my focus to articles pertaining to K-12 art education, excluding articles focused on museum education or post-secondary education.

As I searched through each journal issue, I divided articles into categories and cross-referenced those issues with shifts occurring in national educational policy at the time. I observed a lack of correlation between shifts in educational policy and published discussions in the field of art education, with a few exceptions. The most notable exceptions were articles addressing the impacts of the standardization trends in general education to the development of Discipline-Based Art Education (DBAE), the impacts of No Child Left Behind (NCLB), and the field's embrace of STEAM education, discussed in the following sections. The figure below (Figure 8) depicts a visualization of the trends observed over the time frame analyzed.

Figure 8

Art Education Journal Themes, 1983-2019



DBAE

Discipline-based art education (DBAE) emerged in the 1980's amid the wave of school reform movements occurring after *A Nation at Risk*. The Getty Center for Education in the Arts developed a "comprehensive approach" to art education, focusing on four areas of instruction: art production, art history, art criticism, and aesthetics (Dobbs, 1992, p. 7). From 1987-1995, DBAE was a significant topic of interest in *Art Education* publications. The field of art education recognized, and debated, the need for a paradigm shift in the field fueled by national educational reform. Kern (1987) explored the antecedents to DBAE through a historical investigation of 110 years of art education documents. Kern (1987) found that art production and art history were present in the art education curriculum for much of the time frame analyzed, while art criticism was present only in the 15-20 years prior to the study. Conversely, aesthetics was left out of the state curriculum designs for the 110 years prior to the 1987 report. This information provided insight into the magnitude of journal entries focused on aesthetic education from 1983-2012 in *Art Education*.

NCLB

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was implemented in schools around the nation in 2002 and had a measurable impact on the arts. While specific mention of NCLB in *Art Education* articles was sparse, the reverberations of the policy could be felt in discussions on assessment and interdisciplinary art writings. While NCLB reiterated the Goals 2000: Educate America Act's claim of fine arts as a core content area, the importance of art education was diminished in schools as NCLB emphasized mathematics, language arts, and science scores to maintain federal funding. While Chapman (2004, 2005, 2007) and Sabol (2013) wrote extensively about the impact of NCLB on art education funding and instructional time, my exploration of *Art*

Education articles revealed an increased focus on interdisciplinary art instruction during the reign of NCLB.

Analyzing *Art Education* articles from 2001-2015, I noted 21 publications related to interdisciplinary art education or integrating art into other disciplines. Beveridge (2010) explored the implications of the narrowed curricular focus in schools due to NCLB; she found that art teachers across the country were "encouraged — and sometimes required — to incorporate tested subjects into their curricula" (p. 5). Within my own teaching experience at the elementary level, I was asked to support the ELA and science standards regularly (Figure 9).

Figure 9

Personal Note

Personal note

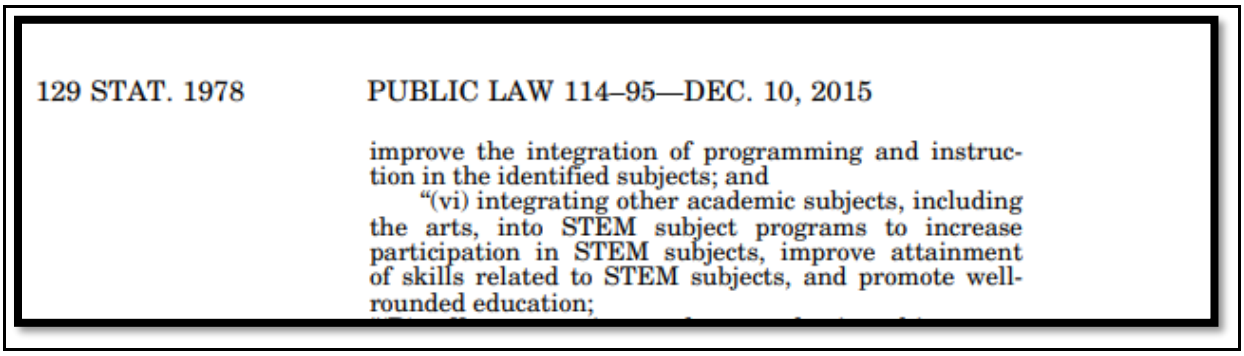
While teaching elementary art, a portion of my annual evaluation was determined by my "data team" growth. My district implemented data teams as a way to document and track student growth throughout the school year, prior to taking their annual assessments. Because I was a non-tested subject, I was asked to join an English and language arts data team. I met monthly with this team of ELA teachers, often helping grade pre- and post- tests taken in their ELA classrooms. I was tasked, by my principal, with finding ways to support the ELA learning objectives through the art room. I found myself studying the 4th grade ELA standards and reading best practice articles geared toward ELA teachers, because I knew that my evaluation score would be partly determined by my students' ELA growth scores.

STEAM

Science, technology, mathematics, and engineering (STEM) programs in education emerged in the early 2000's after the National Science Foundation approved the acronym in 2001. STEM education quickly took hold as an interdisciplinary approach to education that would aid the nation's failing school systems. The perception of public education failure discussed in chapter four, along with the focus on policy illuminating the importance of math and science aided in the popularity of STEM education. With the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), federal policy legitimized the inclusion of arts into STEM education (Figure 10). This inclusion led to the emergence of STEAM (science, technology, engineering, art, and mathematics) as a popular trend in art education.

Figure 10

Every Student Succeeds Act Excerpt



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improve the integration of programming and instruction in the identified subjects; and

"(vi) integrating other academic subjects, including the arts, into STEM subject programs to increase participation in STEM subjects, improve attainment of skills related to STEM subjects, and promote well-rounded education;

Since 2014, STEAM education has taken hold in the field of art education, from special issues of *Art Education* dedicated to STEAM instruction (July 2016; November 2016) to full conferences dedicated to the trend (National Art Education Association (NAEA) conference, 2018). While STEAM education has gained traction in the field, the NAEA position statement on STEAM education cautioned: "STEAM education should be among several approaches to arts learning and should not be considered a replacement for standards-based visual art education or

instruction" (NAEA, 2017, p. 1). Understanding the emergence of STEAM education as a byproduct of teacher effectiveness discourse allows art educators to further understand how policy shapes their curricular choices and possibilities.

Another Observation

While examining the documents collected from *Art Education*, juxtaposed with federal policy documents, an interesting realization emerged. The most prevalent topic of discussion from 1983-2019 was the concept of technology. I found it interesting that technology was the only consistent theme throughout all of the policies and all of the art education documents analyzed. At first glance, I attributed this emphasis on technology to the time-period observed. The last 40 years has marked the launch of the personal computer, the invention of the World Wide Web, the introduction of the JPEG, and the development of the iPhone, therefore new technology remained a relevant topic of conversation (Fischer-Baum, 2017). In 1984, only 8% of households had a personal computer, whereas in 2016, 89% of households had a computer (Ryan, 2017). While the ever-changing nature of technology could be the only explanation needed, the other potential reasoning for the prevalence of technology in art education texts is educational policy. There is the possibility that the inclusion of technology in *Art Education* publications could be a response to the continuous calls for technological innovation in classrooms throughout federal policy. For instance, in the Improving America's Schools Act (1994) stated, technology "can produce far greater opportunities for all students to learn to high standards, promote efficiency and effectiveness in education, and help propel our Nation's school systems into very immediate and dramatic reform" (Section 3111). Similarly, NCLB (2001) and ESSA (2015) emphasized access to technology and classroom use of technology as

markers of effectiveness in education. With such a strong emphasis put on the inclusion of technology through policy, it makes sense that art education literature would follow that trend.

The Management of Bodies

Educational policies produce dominant discourses, like the discourse of teacher effectiveness, that impact the thoughts and actions of educators. It is the body that "bears and manifests the effects of regulating discourses;" the body of the teacher that is produced, over time, by the "tiny influences" of discourse (Prado, 2000, p. 36). As art teachers, we are not immune to the normalized discourses surrounding us; in fact, they are typically so ingrained in the day-to-day practices that we are oblivious to them. The docility of our bodies allows us to be "subjected, used, transformed" as educators, even without our knowledge (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 139). The following section illuminates how the discourse of teacher effectiveness permeates our classrooms, induction programs, and professional development opportunities.

Surveillance

While art educators may feel disconnected from the impacts of teacher effectiveness discourse, evaluative actions place art educators within the performative system of the normalized discourse whether it is realized or not. Surveillance is one principle of Foucault's theory of disciplinary power, which is used to maintain adherence to the normalized discourses educators encounter. Disciplinary power, unlike power applied by force, is "exercised through its invisibility" and requires "compulsory visibility" from its subjects (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 187). Education has become part of what anthropologists Shore and Wright (2015) refer to as "audit culture" (p. 421). Shore and Wright (2015) describe audit culture as "contexts where auditing has become a central organizing principle of society" (p. 422). Similarly, researchers have expressed the impact of audit culture on the field of education, specifically focusing on the

impacts that audit culture has on teacher evaluation (Hanawalt, 2018; Rinehart, 2016; Thompson & Cook, 2013).

In an audit culture, "words such as 'efficiency,' 'effectiveness,' 'transparency,' 'accountability,' and 'performance' now dominate the conceptualization of 'good' schools and 'good' teaching" (Thompson & Cook, 2013, p. 245). The discourse of teacher effectiveness fits perfectly within the conversation of audit culture, as teachers are assessed and ranked through the evaluation models supported by policy. Teacher evaluation models are enacted through visual observation and student growth models, acting as "a normalizing gaze" which makes it possible "to qualify, to classify, and to punish" educators (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 184). Kim (2010) referred to the concept as "panoptic accountability," described as "activities or realities supervising, classifying, controlling, and evaluating schools and professionals through surveillance and normalization (p. 73). Teacher evaluation systems act as tools to control art educators and force them into compliance with a system that normalizes numerical success above all else.

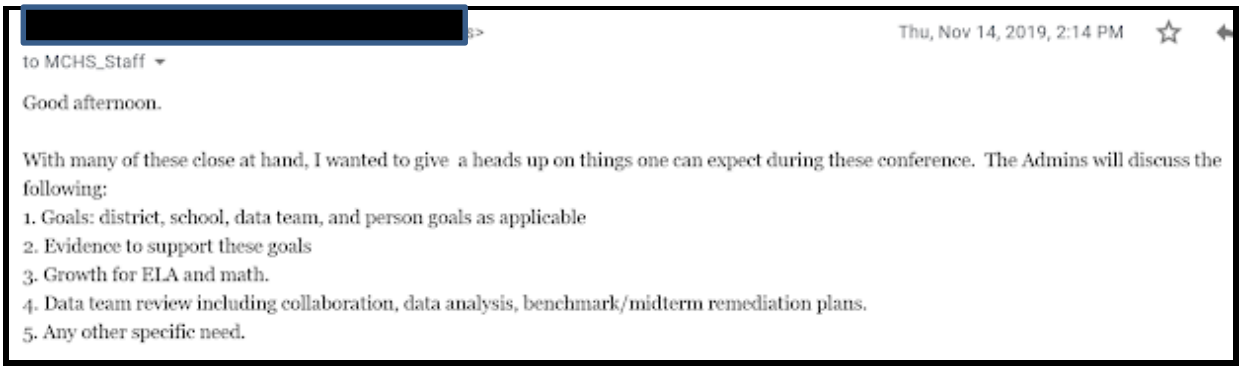
In Georgia, the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES) was developed to meet the needs of Race to the Top. TKES consists of three components that come together to determine an overall Teacher Effectiveness Measure (TEM) score. Fifty percent of a teacher's TEM score is determined by administrative observation of 10 performance standards, another 30% is determined by student growth scores, and the final 20% is determined by the teacher's professional growth plan (Georgia Department of Education, 2019).

This system of teacher effectiveness policy can become difficult for teachers of non-tested subjects (also called non-SGP subjects or non-Student Growth Percentile subjects), such as art, to navigate. For instance, 30% of teacher evaluations for Student Growth Percentile

(SGP) subjects comes from the percentage of student growth on state mandated exams. For non-SGP subjects, administrators have the option to use locally developed pre- and post- tests or to use the "School or District Mean Growth Percentile" to determine a teacher's score (Georgia Department of Education, 2019, pp. 19-20). In other words, schools can opt to determine the art teacher's growth percentage based off the overall growth percentage of students at the school level or district level. Within this model, non-tested subjects are rated based upon the percentage of growth in ELA, math, social studies, and science state mandated tests. The idea of using non-art subjects to evaluate art instruction is not unique to Georgia (Chapman, 2013; Aguilar & Richerme, 2014; Palumbo, 2014; Shaw, 2016; Hanawalt, 2018). In a study with novice art teachers, Hanawalt (2018) noted "art teachers' evaluations were partially based on building-level data that included test scores across subject areas" (p. 96). In my district, as an art teacher, 30% of my evaluation is determined by the school and district's overall growth percentile score for English language arts and mathematics (Figure 11, email communication from principal).

Figure 11

Email Communication


[redacted] Thu, Nov 14, 2019, 2:14 PM

to MCHS_Staff

Good afternoon.

With many of these close at hand, I wanted to give a heads up on things one can expect during these conference. The Admins will discuss the following:

1. Goals: district, school, data team, and person goals as applicable
2. Evidence to support these goals
3. Growth for ELA and math.
4. Data team review including collaboration, data analysis, benchmark/midterm remediation plans.
5. Any other specific need.

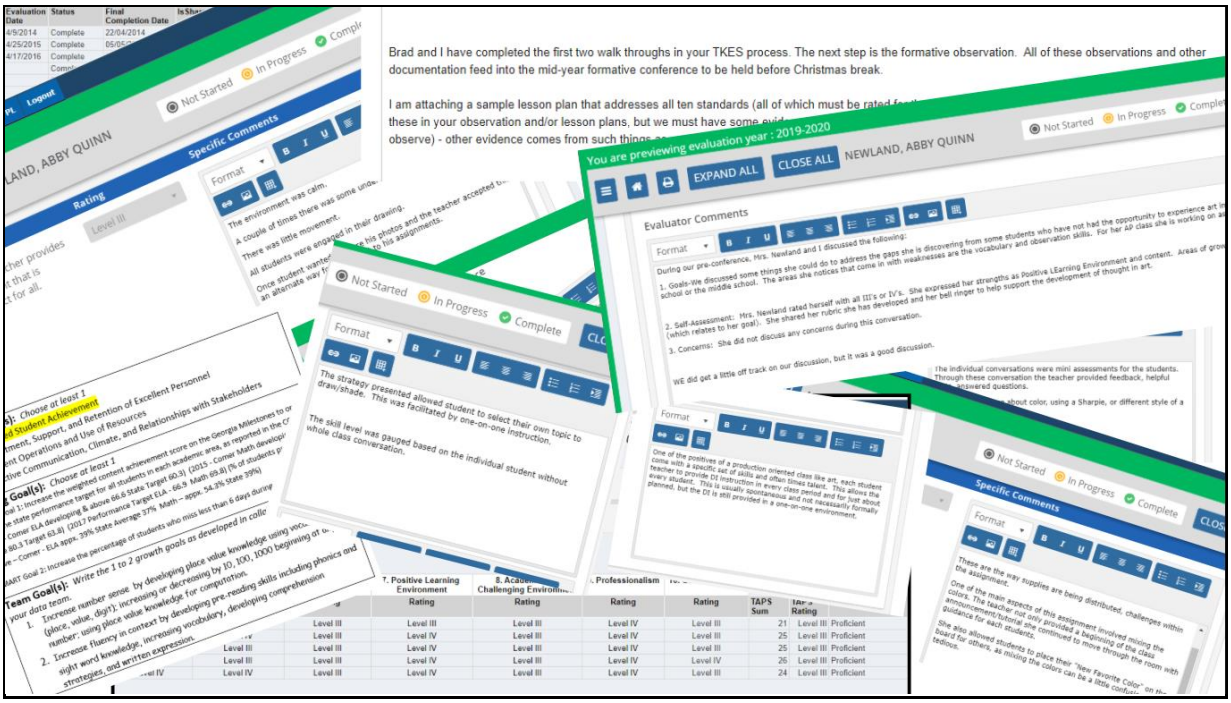
Additional challenges arise when considering administrator observations as an art educator. The evaluation system in Georgia demands teachers be observed and ranked by administrators in 10 areas: professional knowledge, instructional planning, instructional

strategies, differentiated instruction, assessment strategies, assessment uses, positive learning environment, academically challenging environment, and communication (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). While these are all noble goals, the problem arises when many administrators have no training in what these acts "look like" in an art classroom. According to Palumbo's (2014) survey of art teachers, "the dilemma for art educators arises when the evaluator does not have a background or appreciation of visual art" (p. 38). Additionally, Palumbo (2013) found that 63.8% of art educators surveyed in Virginia felt that the person in charge of their evaluations 'infrequently' or 'never' understood the arts (p. 31). In a similar study conducted across multiple disciplines, state teachers of the year revealed that 71% disagreed that their direct evaluator had the requisite experience to observe his/her content area (Goe, et al., 2017).

Within this model, art educators are placed into a mold designed to fit Student Growth Percentile (SGP) content areas and are assessed by administrators that often do not have the training to understand how these categories transfer to non-SGP subjects. In addition to impacting the validity of evaluation ratings among art teachers, this form of surveillance places educators into "a network of writing; it engages them in a whole mass of documents that capture and fix them" (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 189). The "documentary accumulation" accompanying the surveillance of teachers further normalizes the discourse of teacher effectiveness and silently forces teachers into compliance with the system (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 189) [Table 4].

Table 4

Document Accumulation



Document accumulation…

I started compiling the images of my observations and ratings from the last couple of years. I enjoyed stacking them and overlapping them because that's how they feel in my brain. I hate going on the TKES platform… typically everything said by my evaluator is positive, but it is so demoralizing. My entire year, my entire worth, reduced into a few sentences based off of a few moments in my space. Two to three times a year I pile on another document, another sentence or two about each facet of my teaching that I'm doing well at or need to improve on. My evaluator does not even know my students' names… how can he know if I'm serving them effectively?

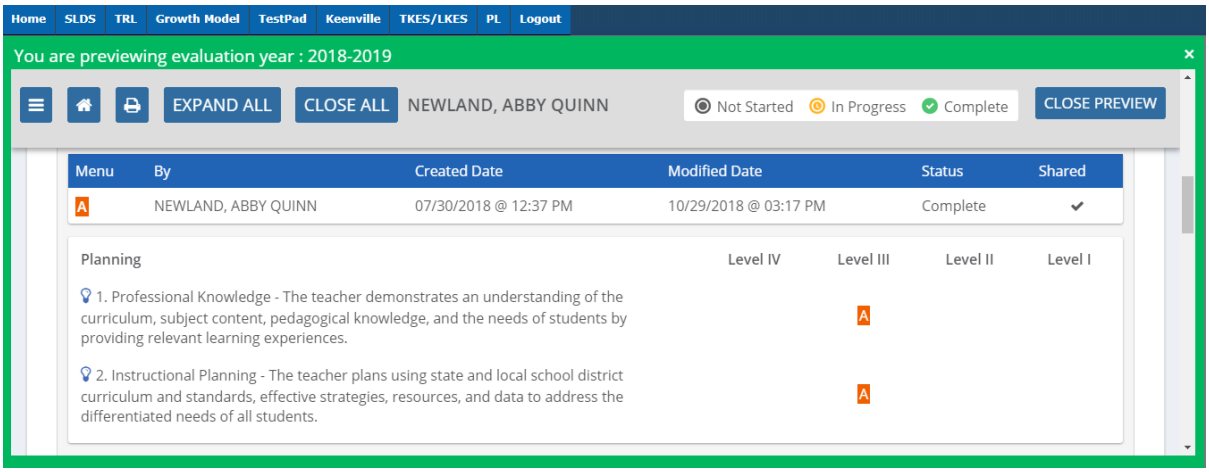
Self-Surveillance

The discourse of teacher effectiveness is maintained through norms: effective teachers demonstrate student growth equal to one grade level (Race to the Top, 2009), effective teachers rank at a level III or above on professional standards (Teacher Keys Effectiveness System, 2019), and effective teachers participate in effective professional development (Race to the Top, 2009; Every Student Succeeds Act, 2015). In order to maintain those norms, the "watchful gaze" of disciplinary power must be maintained (Oksala, 2007, p. 57). The beauty of the efficiency of disciplinary power is that, through being constantly observed and evaluated, the disciplined individual maintains his/her own subjection (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 187). The act of continual surveillance, of continually being "described, judged, measured," encourages teaching subjects to self-monitor and fall in line with the normalized discourses (Foucault, 1975/1979, p.191). Ailwood (2004) described the act of self-surveillance as the "conduct of conduct," both the "obvious and overt ways in which the state governs" (p. 21). This idea of self-surveillance and self-conduct aligns with Foucault's concept of governmentality.

In Georgia, teachers are required to perform an annual self-evaluation, rating and ranking themselves against the 10 performance standards. In addition to daily self-surveillance, annual documentation of self-surveillance adds another layer for teachers to be judged and analyzed against (Table 5). The dominant discourses influence the ways in which teachers perform in their space, and eventually how they are produced into subjects within their space.

Table 5

Self-Assessment



Self-Assessment

Every year, in the first couple of weeks of school, I am asked to reduce myself to a number. I perform the mental dance of modesty - rate myself too well and they will think that I think too highly of myself; rate myself too low and they will think I am faking modesty. I am asked to rate my professional knowledge, only to later find out if I guessed right by someone who knows nothing about my content area.

Mentoring

Teacher mentoring, a common form of new teacher induction support, can be particularly challenging for art educators. Ingersoll (2012) noted that many induction programs include being partnered with a mentor teacher and regular check-ins with an administrator. Additionally, Ingersoll (2012) noted some induction programs may include an orientation with new teachers, shared planning time with similar content area teachers, and a reduced workload. The concept of mentoring programs for new teachers was supported by No Child Left Behind in 2001, but was

explicitly suggested as best practice by the Race to the Top Grant of 2009 and the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. As of 2019, 31 states require teacher induction and mentoring programs for novice teachers with under three years of experience (Education Commission of the States, 2019).

Teacher mentoring programs are another system that perpetuates and supports the normalization of effective teaching. Devos (2010) cautioned, "new teacher mentoring risks narrowing the conceptions of good teaching within a normative framework," thus forcing new art teachers to assimilate to the established norms of effective teaching (p. 1219). Since art educators typically operate as the solo visual art instructor in the school building, mentorships for art teachers are typically reduced to a "buddy-system" approach (Goldrick, 2016, p. 7). Similarly, in a study by Hanawalt (2016), novice art teachers' induction programs were more focused on maintaining evaluative expectations and school norms than guiding novice teachers through their first year of instruction. The prevalence of mentoring programs is a direct result of educational policy and impacts the development of those working in the field of art education. While mentoring programs in K-12 settings typically are not a good fit for art educators, there are options to create more meaningful mentor relationships. Hanawalt and Hofsess (2020a), seasoned art educators themselves, partnered with novice art teachers to establish a mentor/mentee relationship. This partnership supplemented the lack of content-specific training the new teachers received from their respective schools. For novice art educators to be successful in their mentoring experiences, seasoned art teachers must seek out novice teachers and "approach the co-creation of mentoring as a relational work of art" (Hanawalt & Hofsess, 2020a, p. 42). One way to encourage the support of novice art educators is to play to the teacher effectiveness system already in place. In Georgia, TKES professional

standard 10 notes that "level IV" teachers "continually seek ways to serve as role models or teacher leaders" (Georgia Department of Education, 2019, p. 35). Seasoned art educators who choose to step into the role of mentor would not only strengthen the field by supporting a fellow educator's growth but would help themselves in the process.

Professional Development

Within Georgia's TKES program, 20% of an educator's evaluation is linked to professional growth, which may include the teacher's professional goals (self-assigned or assigned based on areas of need determined by administration), school improvement goals, and district improvement goals (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). While NCLB downplayed the relevance of single-day, expert-led professional development opportunities, RTTT and the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) solidified the demand for "ongoing," "job-embedded," and "data-informed" professional development and dismissed the validity of "stand-alone, 1-day, or short term workshops" (United States Department of Education, 2009, p. 9; Every Student Succeeds Act, P.L. 114-95, 2015, p. 296). Much of the problem with the shift in focus to local, job-embedded professional development is the lack of content-specific professional development offerings for teachers. Hourigan (2011) noted many art teachers "find themselves learning to teach reading, math, science, and English in district professional development workshops" (p. 62). Art education networks, such as the National Art Education Association (NAEA), provide opportunities for content-specific professional growth for art educators at both the state and national level, yet these offerings are dismissed as ineffective through current teacher effectiveness policy definitions of effective professional development (Conway, et al., 2005; Gates, 2010).

Several art educators have recognized the problem of inadequate professional development options for art educators and are doing substantial work to create change (Lind, 2007; Gates, 2010; Allison, 2013; Willcox, 2017; Taylor, 2018; Hanawalt & Hofsess, 2020a; Hanawalt & Hofsess, 2020b). According to Willcox (2017), "The lack of appropriate, content-specific, professional development opportunities for art teachers contributes to lack of renewal and to teacher burnout" (p. 25). Willcox (2017) developed the concept of "Ritualized Professional Development" which consists of "teacher inquiry communities to socially reinforce, aesthetic experience to arouse awareness, and artistic inquiry to transition into the unknown" (p. 28). Within this approach, the concepts of ongoing, job-embedded professional development are supported by the development of professional networks of local art educators. Similarly, Hanawalt & Hofsess (2020a; 2020b) worked within the established system of ongoing professional development and created partnerships between art education professors and practicing K-12 art educators. Hanawalt & Hofsess (2020a) challenged the federal and state established concept of effective professional development by taking their work outside of the school environment: "our work as higher educators positioned outside of K-12 school systems sought to question the norms and status quo of school cultures as well as persistent myths of teaching" (p. 33). These examples from Hanawalt & Hofsess (2020a) and Willcox (2017) act as "points of resistance" to the accepted truth of 'effective' professional development (Foucault, 1984/1985, p. 95).

In an online post for Critical Legal Thinking, Simon Thorpe (2012) expanded on Foucault's concepts of power and resistance; Thorpe asked, "what forms of power do we want to live with and which forms do we wish to limit or prevent?" (p. 1). Within this vein, Foucault (1976/1978) noted, "there is no single locus of great Refusal," but only "a plurality of

resistances" (p. 95-96). The dominant discourse of teacher effectiveness has produced certain truths in education related to how art teachers' bodies are surveilled and managed, but the ever-moving nature of power welcomes resistance. As art teachers, we can look at the structure in place and determine what forms of power we can tolerate and which we want to resist.

The Management of Curriculum and Pedagogy

The normalized discourses that influence the conduct of teachers throughout the school day also impact the curricular choices teachers can make. The discourse of teacher effectiveness operates through "invisibility" to afford certain norms to be maintained (Foucault, 1975/1979, p. 187). Bain, et al. (2010), noted new art teachers are "quickly asked to assimilate into the school culture and maintain the procedures and content that contributes to the status quo" (p. 243). Similarly, the normalization of discourses of teacher effectiveness and discourses produced by educational policy afford only certain possibilities for art educators new and old. The norms of the school building create an art educator that is "*produced* by precisely those techniques that supposedly only shape it" (Prado, 2000, p. 57).

School Art Style

In 1976, Arthur Efland described a "school art style" as a specific style of art existing solely in K-12 settings (p. 37). According to Efland (1976), school art was designed to be "conventional, ritualistic, and rule-governed," recognized by predictable results (p. 38). At the time of his writing, Efland (1976) lamented that the school art style had "remained essentially the same for the last forty-five to fifty years" (p. 43). Since Efland's declaration, other researchers in the field have raised concerns about the static nature of K-12 art (Anderson & Milbrandt, 1998; Freedman & Stuhr (2004); Bain et al., 2010; Gude, 2013; Hanawalt, 2018). Despite concerns, and attempts from the field to offer alternatives, "rote and repeated" art projects are

still the predominant form of demonstrating 'good' art teaching in public schools (Freedman & Stuhr, 2004, p. 821).

According to Hanawalt (2018), the curricular choices art educators make in the classroom cannot "be understood apart from forces of accountability at work in their school cultures" (p. 98). While university programs in recent years have trained preservice teachers on art curriculums guided by student choice, social justice, and big ideas, the discourses dominating public school culture are often not accounted for in teacher training (Bain, et al., 2010). Additionally, La Porte, Speirs, & Young (2008) noted that despite university training, "educators tend to teach what they have been taught as students" (p. 359). The tendency to revert to the traditional teachings of your youth, paired with the influence of teacher effectiveness discourses creates a challenging environment for art educators who want to break free of the ritualized patterns of school art.

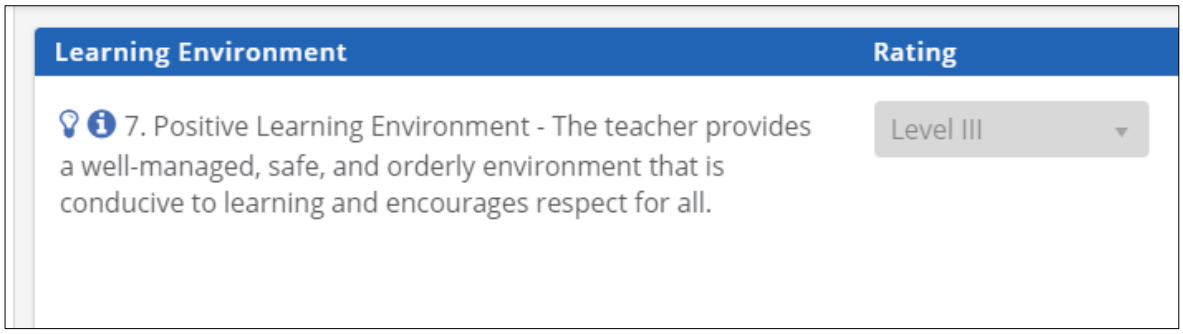
According to Efland (1979), the school art style is a product of the "school life-style" existing in the school context (p. 39). As discussed earlier in this chapter, teacher effectiveness policy impacts the ways in which art teachers are surveilled, judged, and trained. Despite the common existence of art educators as the sole art teacher in the building, the invisible discourses of teacher effectiveness policy still impact their day-to-day functions and create their own "school life-style." When evaluated by non-art administrators, the ability to demonstrate success may depend on easily recognizable products. Lambert, et al. (2015) discussed the impact of policy on fine arts teaching, noting that "teaching to the test" was now preferred as it produces measurable results through "similarity and repetition" (p. 471). Building on Lambert, et al. (2015), I believe curricular choices made in the art classroom are often *teaching to the evaluation*. The ever-present nature of surveillance culture leads teachers to feel as if they are

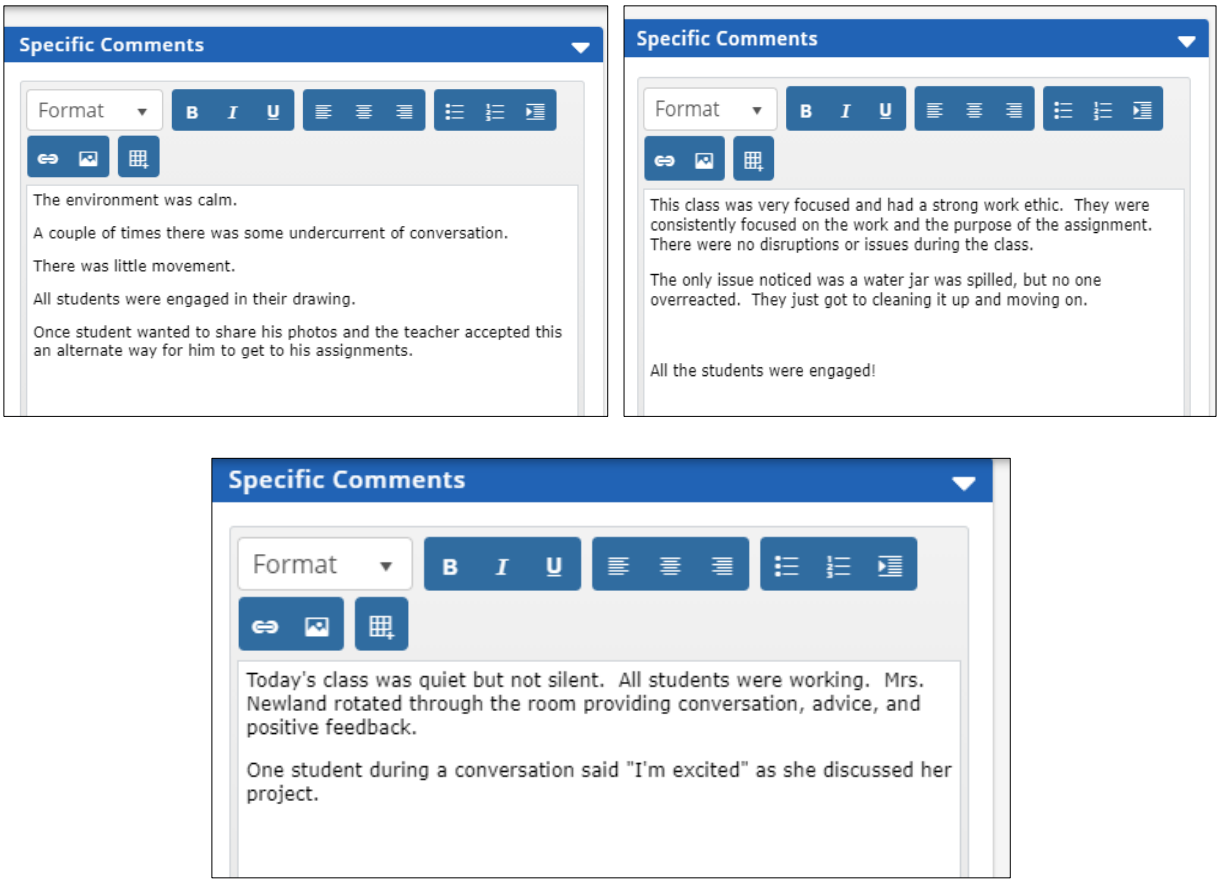
constantly being observed or evaluated. A few years ago, I recall an administrator warning teachers as observations were approaching: *Remember, I am looking for performance standard #3…make sure you are using technology*. Instead of taking the initiative to teach my administrator that our brushes and classroom tools *are* our technology, I fell in line and showed my students a Brainpop video (an approved instructional technology site) on my Smartboard (a fancy technological tool) during the lesson. I remember feeling like a puppet dancing for my observation – the throw away technology piece was not on my lesson plan and it was not what my students needed, but it was what I felt I needed to achieve an acceptable rating and play the role of a good teacher.

Hanawalt (2018, March) explained, "by performing the roles of 'good art teacher,' the participants became visible as 'successful' subjects within the audit culture within their schools" (conference presentation). Projects that fall within the school art style (color wheels, holiday projects, directed drawings) produce pieces that can easily be assessed and evaluated by those outside of the art classroom. Additionally, the accumulation of evaluative documents produced about the teacher can eventually shape the choices he/she makes within the classroom (Table 6).

Table 6

The Apparent Importance of Quiet





The Apparent Importance of Quiet

I have always been self-conscious about the noise level of my classroom. In my mind, a loud, rambunctious classroom is often a sign of a well-loved classroom. I despise the control of bodies that happens in school buildings - sit here, stand there, talk now, raise your hand. Movement, noise, and lots of music are welcome in my classroom… until someone walks by. That is when I internally panic. I know that students are learning and working, but an administrator walking by might not see the same thing. My internal panics are often confirmed as I read the documents produced about me…the annual evaluation notes. "Today's class was quiet...there was an undercurrent of conversation… a little movement… no disruptions…." These comments only confirm that my preferred style of teaching is

undesirable. See, my students are used to being constantly watched and evaluated as well… when you walked in, conversations halted, Sam jumped off the counter where she was working, Sean raised his hand instead of yelling my name, Sarah turned off the movie she was watching while she worked… we have all been trained.

As mentioned in Table 6, the constant state of observation and surveillance produces "compliant subjects" (Prado, 2000, p. 53). Sam knew to sit in her assigned seat, Sean knew to raise his hand and remain quiet, and Sarah knew that to play the role of attentive student meant that she needed to remove the distraction of her phone. Boyne (1990) described the school as a place of "constant examination" which allows "true statements, corroborated by 'evidence' to be made" about its teachers and students (p. 113-114). According to my principal's comments, I was a good teacher because my classroom was quiet and still. In previous years, I was identified as a good teacher because I incorporated technology into my lessons. As art educators, we are constantly performing roles determined by the educational policy discourse that surrounds us.

Final Reflections

As a K-12 art teacher, I became interested in the impact educational policy had on my classroom and the choices I made. I felt there was an invisible force influencing my decisions and I wanted to know more about it. The discourse of teacher effectiveness struck me as particularly impactful on my teaching… maybe because I started teaching in 2010, just as NCLB was nearing its end. I began teaching just as Georgia applied for and was accepted for the Race to the Top grant. I saw firsthand how the decisions made from that policy impacted my classroom. At the time, I did not realize the discourse of teacher effectiveness was influencing me, only that the information obtained in faculty meetings and from administrative

communication was impacting my actions with my students. I decided that, in order to learn more about the influence of teacher effectiveness, I needed to look historically at how the term 'effective teacher' was even thinkable. When I began reading Foucault a few years ago, I found his historical approach appealing. Foucault (1981/1988) approached historical analysis with an optimism I found refreshing - "things have been made, they can be unmade, as long as we know how it was that they were made" (p. 37). Understanding how teacher effectiveness became normalized provides space for resistance and change, once we know how it was made.

To look historically at the emergence of teacher effectiveness, I collected documents related to federal educational policy, Georgia educational policy, social events, and art education trends from 1983-2019. I traced rabbit holes and citation trails to pinpoint some of the enabling conditions that afforded the emergence of teacher effectiveness, while also noting any divergent trends that sought to disrupt the prevalence of teacher effectiveness. Lastly, I looked specifically at the field of art education for the impacts of teacher effectiveness on teacher performance, teacher training, and art curriculum.

The enabling conditions for the emergence of teacher effectiveness policy were vast, making clear that the concept of an 'effective teacher' was a constructed concept. National reports and test scores contributed to the perception of the United States educational system as failing. Similarly, business models from the private sector claimed to be the cure for educational failure. The reconstruction of a new type of educator, an 'effective' educator, became one of the potential remedies for the state of education. The language of teacher effectiveness "constructs the individual's subjectivity in ways that are historically and locally specific," producing a very specific type of teaching subject (Richardson, 2000, p. 8). Understanding the construction of the discourse of teacher effectiveness allows teachers to understand the role of discourse in their

production: “we appreciate that ‘the subject’ is what we say it is” (Prado, 2000, p. 58). Once we understand the impacts of the normalized discourse of teacher effectiveness on our construction as educators, we can then begin to “dislodge them from their position of truth” (Burr, 1995/2003, p. 80).

Call to the Field

While art educators typically appear to operate outside of the “panoptic accountability” established by current discourses of teacher effectiveness, the reality is that the discourses shape art educator’s roles within the school and their curricular possibilities (Kim, 2010 p. 73). Understanding the discourses which impact our teaching practice provides openings for local points of resistance (Foucault, 1976/1978). There are two areas of art education related to teacher effectiveness policy I would love to see explored further.

Within the field of art education, there are ways to better prepare our novice art teachers as they navigate their first years of teaching. Several scholars in the field of art education have explored possibilities for re-thinking teacher development within the discourse of teacher effectiveness (Hanawalt, 2018; Hanawalt & Hofsess, 2020a, 2020b; Taylor, 2018; Willcox, 2017). Hanawalt & Hofsess (2020a, 2020b) advocated for the continuation of university support beyond student teaching through maintaining a mentoring connection with novice teachers. This form of support may allow new art educators to transition into their own teaching practice and navigate the waters of accountability practices with support from those shaping the field. Taylor (2018) and Willcox (2017) expanded on the concept of professional learning communities for the field of art education. According to educational policy, effective professional development should be “ongoing,” “local,” and “job-embedded;” these two scholars built on that definition by developing learning communities of artists to support professional growth (United States

Department of Education, 2009, p. 10). According to Foucault (1976/1978), power and resistance exist together and are in continuous movement; there are "points of resistance" everywhere and available to everyone (p. 95). The scholars mentioned above have found opportunities to resist the dominant discourse of teacher effectiveness from inside the system. Within the field of art education, we can build upon the work of the scholars mentioned above to create opportunities for local resistance.

Additionally, the field of art education would benefit from a community resource developed to train and educate administrators (and others) responsible for the evaluation of art teachers. As mentioned previously, both Palumbo (2014) and Goe, et al. (2017) revealed educators in the arts felt frequently misunderstood by evaluators with minimal training in the arts. A resource for administrators, detailing what assessment, differentiation, and other observables may look like in the art classroom could help aid in this disconnect. Additionally, if art educators were confident that evaluators had a greater understanding of their content, they may feel confident to move beyond the recognizable "School Art Style" mentioned earlier.

Foucauldian genealogy provides a space to think differently. Within this dissertation, I explored the historical emergence of the concept of teacher effectiveness and the impact of that discourse on the field of art education. Understanding the past provides opportunities to influence change and resist current ways of being and doing. This dissertation has provided me with an opportunity to think about my teaching and my place in the world of education differently. Foucault's theories have empowered me to understand that I have agency within the normalized discourses around me and the ability to influence local change. After all, Foucault (1981/1988) noted, "as soon as one can no longer think things as one formerly thought them, transformation becomes both very urgent, very difficult, and quite possible" (p. 155).

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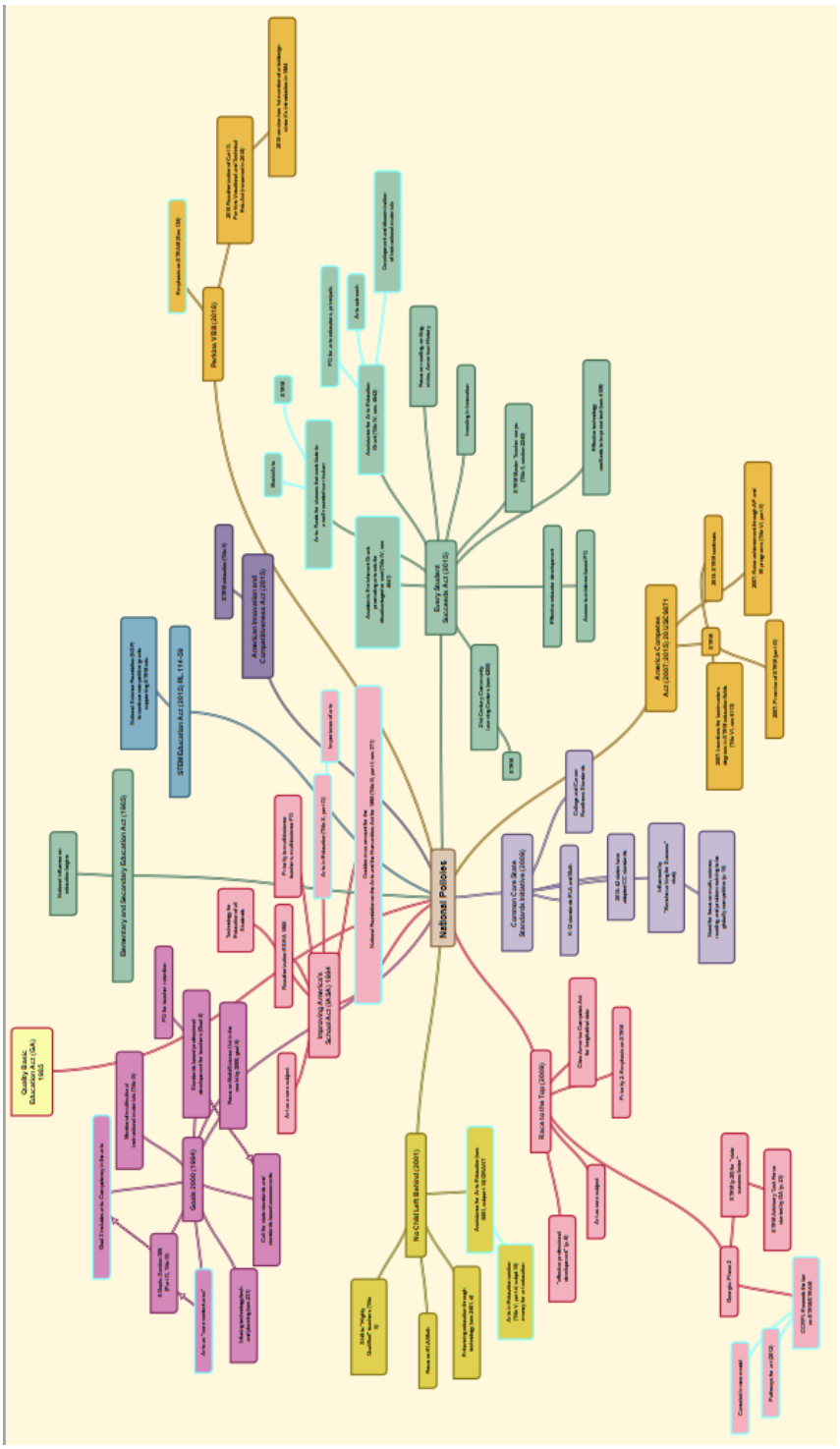
APPENDIX



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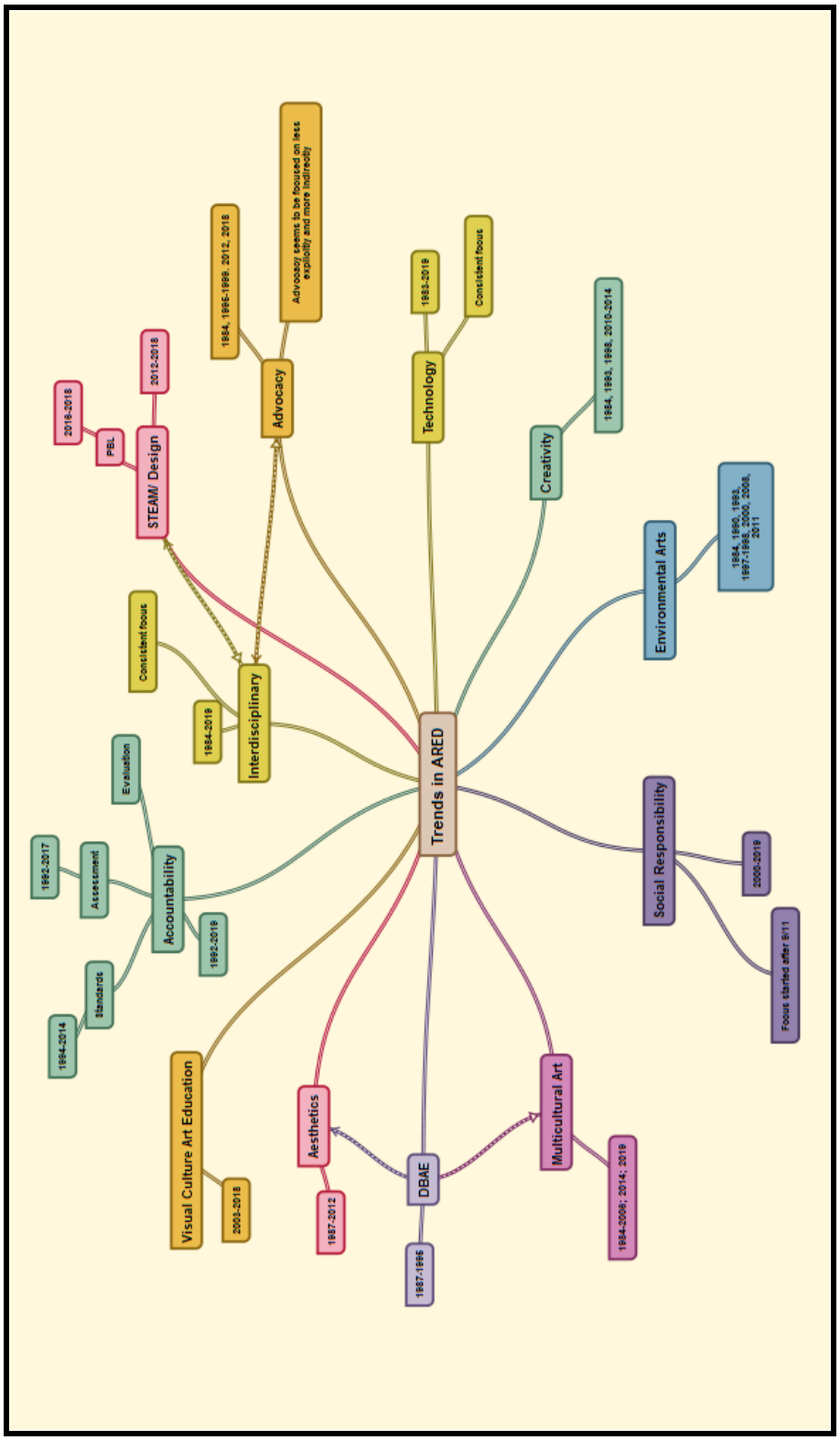

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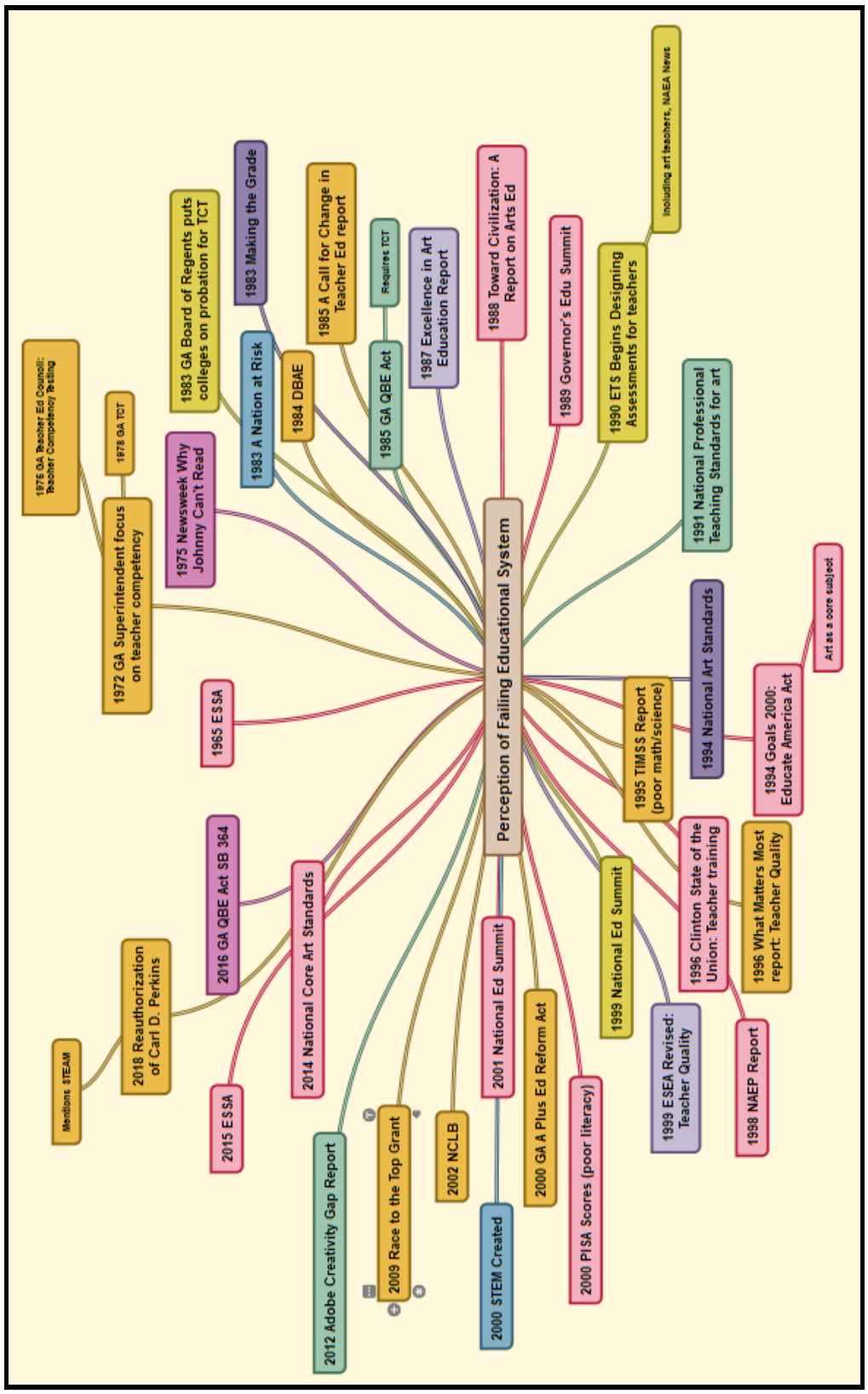

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