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Actual and ideal role perceptions of instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia

Richardson, Sandra Clark, Ed.D.

East Tennessee State University, 1987

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ACTUAL AND IDEAL ROLE PERCEPTIONS

OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF VIRGINIA

———————————

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A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department

of Supervision and Administration

East Tennessee State University

———————————

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

———————————

by

Sandra Clark Richardson

August, 1987

APPROVAL

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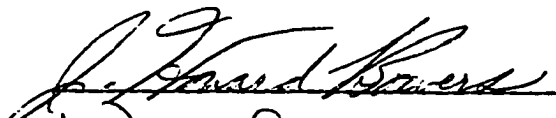
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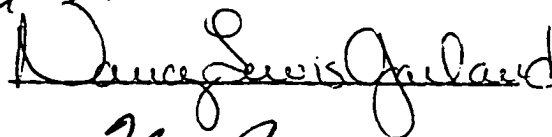
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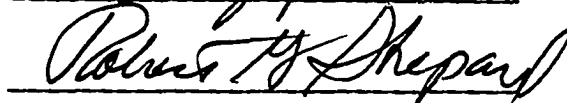
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ABSTRACT

ACTUAL AND IDEAL ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL

SUPERVISORS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF VIRGINIA

by

Sandra Clark Richardson

The problem of this study was to determine if differences existed in the perceptions of selected public school instructional supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for identified supervisory roles. The study was conducted during the 1986-87 school year in Virginia.

A questionnaire, developed by the researcher, was field tested through a six-week pilot study with 100 instructional supervisors in Virginia. Upon validation of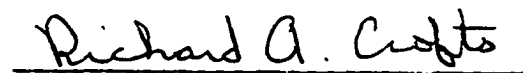 the instrument, it was mailed to a randomly selected sample of 363 instructional supervisors in Virginia. A total of 220 respondents (60.6%) returned the questionnaire.

Significant differences were found in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for curriculum development, staff development, program evaluation, providing resources, disseminating information, instructional leadership, and performing administrative duties. Significant differences were also found between supervisory titles and allocation of actual and ideal time for program evaluation and performing administrative duties. In addition, significant differences were found between the perceptions of males and females regarding the amount of actual and ideal time they allocated for program evaluation.

Conclusions were based on the findings in this study. It was concluded that instructional supervisors in Virginia are not spending as much time on the selected supervisory roles as they would like. They are spending too much time performing administrative duties.

It was also concluded that younger supervisors (30-39) spend more time for staff development, providing resources, and providing instructional leadership than older supervisors. In addition, instructional supervisors with doctorates spend more time for curriculum development, staff development, disseminating information, and instructional leadership than supervisors with other degrees. Furthermore, female supervisors spend more time for curriculum development, staff development, program evaluation, and instructional leadership than male supervisors. Yet, a graduate degree in supervision and a supervisor's gender did not have much influence on the

allocation of actual and ideal time for some supervisory
roles. Other conclusions relating to the demographic data
variables and the allocation of actual and ideal time for
the seven identified supervisory roles were drawn.

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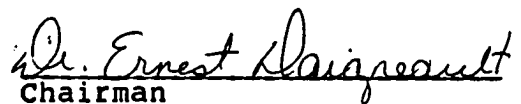
This is to certify that the following study has been filed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University.

PROJECT TITLE:  Actual and Ideal Role Perceptions of Institutional Supervisors in the Public Schools of Virginia

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DEPARTMENT:  Supervision and Administration

DATE SUBMITTED:  April 4, 1987

<u>Dr. Ernest Alaisreault</u>
Chairman

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Dedicated to

my husband, William,

for his continuous love and encouragement

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Success in the doctoral program was enhanced by the high expectations and constant encouragement of Mr. Bobby Hammond, principal of E. B. Stanley Elementary School. I am very grateful to the faculty and staff, parents, and children of E. B. Stanley Elementary School for believing in me.

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I thank Glenna Holmes for typing my dissertation. She went far beyond the call of duty in helping me prepare this paper.

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# CHAPTER 1

## Introduction

Literature describes ideal instructional supervisory roles and responsibilities. However, in practice, there is often a gulf between ideal and actual roles and responsibilities. The inconsistency between job descriptions and actual supervisory roles needs to be acknowledged and eliminated (Sullivan, 1982).

Supervisory training is based on the ideal roles and responsibilities presented in literature. Often the actual roles of instructional supervisors are not congruent with prior supervisory training. The review of literature revealed that the ultimate goal of instructional supervisors is to improve instruction. The ideal supervisory tasks include: "Developing Curriculum, Organizing for Instruction, Providing Materials, Arranging for In-service Education, Evaluating Instruction, Disseminating Information" (Johns, 1984, p. 3). Thus, ideally supervisors should work with teachers to improve the teaching-learning process. Supervisors should plan, organize, analyze, and evaluate the instructional programs. The review of literature indicated that in reality, the main role of many instructional supervisors was to maintain day-to-day functions of the school system through administrative or managerial functions. If the ultimate goal of supervisors,

1

improving instruction, is to be actualized, "the system rather than the training for the individual must be changed" (Sullivan, 1982, p. 450).

"Current practice in supervision of instruction is at best vaguely understood in the absence of research in either depth or scope" (Harris, 1975, p. 3). According to Glickman (1985), other areas in education such as instruction, curriculum, and administration have been researched in more depth than supervision.

Perrine (1984) reported that there is a significant need to clarify the job description and the limitations under which instructional supervisors operate. Perrine stated that the roles of instructional supervisors must be clearly defined. Burch (1980) also called for revisions in job descriptions for instructional supervisors. Burch concluded that, in practice, instructional supervisors spend too much time on clerical functions. Furthermore, Burch (1980) implied that instructional supervisors were moving from the ideal supervisory role to becoming "jacks-of-all-trades"(p. 637). Thus, the review of literature revealed that instructional supervisors should spend less time on management roles and more time on instructional leadership roles (Burch, 1980).

<u>The Problem</u>

## <u>Statement of the Problem</u>

The problem of this study was to determine if differences existed in the perceptions of selected public school instructional supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for identified supervisory roles.

## <u>Purpose of the Study</u>

The purpose of this study was to determine the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors.

## <u>Significance of the Study</u>

The ideal roles of instructional supervisors presented in the review of literature were very similar among various researchers. According to related literature, improving instruction was the ultimate goal of instructional supervisors. Glickman (1985) emphasized that "effective schools do not happen by accident. Supervision is the force that shapes the organization into a productive unit" (p. 20).

According to Johns (1984), Harris (1985), Lucio and McNeil (1969), Wiles and Lovell (1975), and Evans (1976), supervisors must spend more time performing certain ideal supervisory tasks for improvements of instruction to occur within the school system. These authors identified the

following as ideal supervisory tasks: developing curriculum, organizing for instruction, providing materials, arranging for in-service education, evaluating instruction, disseminating information, and providing instructional leadership (Johns, 1984; Harris, 1985; Lucio and McNeil, 1969; Wiles and Lovell, 1975; Evans, 1976). Thus, the review of literature suggested that many supervisors were trained to perform these tasks, and most job descriptions for instructional supervisors included these ideal tasks. However, the review of literature indicated that, in practice, supervisors are often expected to perform many administrative or managerial duties. As a result, supervisors' priorities have shifted due to lack of time. The review of literature suggested that because of added duties, the instructional leadership role of supervisors was frequently neglected. Many supervisors were just maintaining the status quo and were not improving instruction. According to Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975), "change is more likely to occur if there is a recognized role--responsibility for initiating and directing change in the system" (p. 194).

Thus, research to determine if differences existed between actual and preferred time spent on selected supervisory roles as perceived by instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia could help to clarify the

actual roles of instructional supervisors. Future training
of instructional supervisors, job descriptions, and role
expectations depend on such research.

## Limitations

The study had the following limitations:

1.  The study was limited to selected K-12
    instructional supervisors in the public schools of
    Virginia.

2.  The questionnaire included seven selected
    supervisory roles.

3.  The demographic sheet included six selected
    personal data.

4.  The study was conducted during the 1986-87
    school year.

## Assumptions

The following assumptions were made regarding this
study:

1.  Participants responded honestly to the
    questionnaire and the personal data sheet.

2.  Statistical procedures used were valid for
    analyzing the data.

3.  The instrument used was valid for the purpose
    of the study.

4. Presumptions of current supervisory assignments
were valid as indicated by these supervisors.

## Definitions of Terms

1. <u>Actual Role</u> - The actual role was determined by the amount of time that instructional supervisors spent performing selected tasks.

2. <u>Change</u> - Change refers to altering or redesigning conditions or processes to improve instruction. Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) defined change as "the realization of valued outcomes by students" (p. 309).

3. <u>Clinical Supervision</u> - Glatthorn (1984) defined clinical supervision as "an intensive process designed to improve instruction by conferring with the teacher on lesson planning, observing the lesson, analyzing the observational data, and giving the teacher feedback about the observation" (p. 7). The founder of clinical supervision, Cogan (1973), explained that the ultimate goal of clinical supervision is to improve the teacher's performance in the classroom.

4. <u>Curriculum</u> - According to Marks, E. Stoops, and J. Stoops (1971), the curriculum consists of all experiences that the student encounters under the school's care.

5.  <u>Dynamic Supervision</u> - According to Harris (1985), dynamic supervision changes instructional practices. "The emphasis is on discontinuity, the disruption of existing practices and the substitution of others" (p. 21).

6.  <u>Educational Administration</u> - Harris (1975) defined educational administration as a special set of functions whose main goals are to insure efficient and effective educational services, implement legislative policies, and provide leadership.

7.  <u>Educational Leadership</u> - Marks et al. (1971) defined educational leadership as behavior exhibited by individuals or groups which caused a move toward educational goals that are increasingly acceptable by all individuals within the organization.

8.  <u>General Supervision</u> - Cogan (1973) explained that general supervision included many supervisory operations that occurred outside the classroom. General supervision included such tasks as (a) writing or revising curriculum, (b) preparing units, (c) reporting to parents, and (d) evaluating the total program.

9.  <u>Ideal Role</u> - The ideal role was selected tasks that literature revealed as essential for effective supervision. The ideal role included performing

supervisory tasks in the area of (a) curriculum,
(b) development, (c) staff development, (d) program
evaluation, (e) providing resources; (f) disseminating
information; and (g) instructional leadership (Johns,
1984; Harris, 1985).

10. Instructional Supervision - Harris (1985) defined
    instructional supervision as highly instruction-related
    and remotely pupil-related endeavors that are important
    dimensions for analyzing the operation of the school.

11. Role - Biddle and Thomas (1966) defined role as "a
    behavioral repertoire characteristic of a person or a
    position" (p. 11).

12. Role Conflict - Role conflict was defined by Biddle and
    Thomas (1966) as inconsistent expectations held for an
    individual.

13. Role Expectation - Role expectation was defined by
    Biddle and Thomas (1966) as a set of standards or norms
    held for the behaviors of a person or a position.

14. Staff Development - Staff development provides guidance
    for the professional and classified staff. According
    to Marks (1971), "Staff development, then, is a
    comprehensive, school-wide program that provides for
    improvement in organization and communication
    structures, in instructional programs and processes,
    and in human interrelationships and personal attitudes"
    (p. 4).

15. <u>Supervision</u> - Glickman (1985) defined supervision as the function which improves instruction through direct aid to teachers, curriculum development, in-service education, and group development. Harris (1985) defined supervision as a "major function of the school operation, not a task or a specific job or a set of techniques" (p. 10).

16. <u>Supervision of Instruction</u> - According to Harris (1985), "Supervision of instruction is what school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching processes employed to promote pupil learning" (p. 10).

17. <u>Supervisory Personnel</u> - Harris (1975) defined supervisory personnel as persons responsible for providing supervisory endeavors. Thus, supervisory personnel could include superintendents, supervisors, principals, team leaders, department heads, and other administrators.

18. <u>Tractive Supervision</u> - Harris (1985) defined tractive supervision as supervisory endeavors geared to continuity. Tractive supervision maintains the status quo and resists change.

## Hypotheses

These hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

2. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

3. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

4. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

5. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

6. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

7. There will be a significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

8. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

9. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

10. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

11. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

12. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

13. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

14. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

15. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

16. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

17. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

18. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (b) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

19. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

20. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

21. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49. (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

22. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different

educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

23. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

24. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

25. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

26. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

27. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

28. There will be significant differences in
    perceptions between supervisors with different
    educational levels regarding the amount of actual
    and ideal time allocated for performing
    administrative duties.

29. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
    graduate degree in educational supervision and
    those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
    and ideal time allocated for curriculum
    development.

30. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
    graduate degree in educational supervision and
    those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
    and ideal time allocated for staff development.

31. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
    graduate degree in educational supervision and
    those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
    and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

32. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
    graduate degree in educational supervision and

those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

33. There will be a significant difference in
perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
graduate degree in educational supervision and
those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
and ideal time allocated for disseminating
information.

34. There will be a significant difference in
perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
graduate degree in educational supervision and
those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
and ideal time allocated for providing
instructional leadership.

35. There will be a significant difference in
perceptions between supervisors who have earned a
graduate degree in educational supervision and
those who have not, regarding the amount of actual
and ideal time allocated for performing
administrative duties.

36. There will be significant differences in
perceptions between supervisors whose titles are
(a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist,
(c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount

of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

37. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

38. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

39. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

40. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist,

(c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

41. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing intructional leadership.

42. There will be significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

43. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

44. There will be a significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

45. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between male and female supervisors
    regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
    allocated for program evaluation.

46. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between male and female supervisors
    regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
    allocated for providing resources.

47. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between male and female supervisors
    regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
    allocated for disseminating information.

48. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between male and female supervisors
    regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
    allocated for providing instructional leadership.

49. There will be a significant difference in
    perceptions between male and female supervisors
    regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
    allocated for performing administrative duties.

## Procedures of the Study

The procedures of the study were as follows:

1. A review of related literature was conducted at the Sherrod Library at East Tennessee State University. A manual search revealed related books, documents, and periodicals. An ERIC computer search also identified valuable sources. Inter-library loans were used to obtain dissertations and documents from other institutions.

2. Approval of the study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board at East Tennessee State University.

3. A questionnaire and personal data sheet were constructed to obtain data from instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia.

4. Validity of the instrument was obtained through a pilot study. One hundred instructional supervisors were used in the pilot study. A simple random sample drawn from the identified population was used to obtain two groups of 50 supervisors. A phi coefficient showed the instrument was valid for further use.

5. A random sample was drawn from all elementary and secondary instructional supervisors in Virginia.

6. An explanatory letter, an information sheet from the Institutional Review Board, a coded questionnaire, a personal data sheet, and a self-addressed stamped envelope were mailed to each instructional supervisor who was selected for the study.

7. Each participant was insured that individual names and school systems would not be used.

8. After four weeks, the data were statistically analyzed at the East Tennessee State University Computer Center. The SPSS-X (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used. The statistical tests used to analyze the data were the Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test, Somers' d, and Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA.

## Organization of the Study

This study contains five chapters. Chapter 1 contains the introduction to the study, the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, assumptions, definitions of terms, hypotheses, procedures, and organizations of the study.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the related literature. Chapter 3 explains the procedures and methodology of data

analyses and reports the results. Chapter 4 presents the data and analyses of the findings. Chapter 5 includes the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

# CHAPTER 2

## Review of the Related Literature

### Introduction

Chapter 2 consists of a review of literature relating to the development of the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors. The chapter is divided into three sections: (a) The History of Instructional Supervision, (b) The Roles of Instructional Supervisors, and (c) The Leadership Role of Instructional Supervisors.

The first section, The History of Instructional Supervision, describes the development of supervisional principles from colonial times to present day. Selected theories and strategies of instructional supervision are included in this section.

The second section, The Roles of Instructional Supervisors, defines the actual and ideal roles, ideal role expectations, and role conflicts of instructional supervisors. Selected studies of supervisory roles are reviewed in this section.

The third section, The Leadership Role of Instructional Supervisors, defines leadership and change as related to the supervisory role. Selected theories and studies of leadership and change are discussed in relation to the instructional supervisory role.

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## History of Instructional Supervision

To understand the perceptions of the actual and ideal role of instructional supervisors, it is necessary to know the history of educational supervision. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to review information relating to the development of educational supervision from colonial times to present day. Theoretical frames of reference for effective supervision are included in this section.

In the colonial period (1600s through 1900s) educational supervision was done by laymen, ministers, school wardens, and citizen's committees. The approach to supervision was inspection for the sake of control (Marks, E. Stoops, and J. Stoops, 1971). The theory of supervision during the colonial period was authoritarian (Alfonso, Firth, and Neville, 1975). Because of this type of educational supervision, Eye and Netzer (1965) reported that Lucio and McNeil refer to the period between 1642 and 1875 as the 'Period of Administrative Inspection' (p. 4).

Education became a very public matter in 1647 when the Massachusetts General Court passed a law requiring towns of 50 or more families to establish a school. The towns of 100 or more families had to establish a Latin grammar school. This law gave the government the right to establish and control schools (Marks et al., 1971).

As a result of this law, elementary schools were established to teach the children to read and write. The

elementary schools were mostly attended by lower class children. Whereas, the upper class children attended Latin grammar schools and colleges. Their curriculum dealt with reading, writing, and religion. In the latter 18th Century, private "English Schools" and academies were established (Marks et al., 1971).

Since Massachusetts had passed a law demanding that schools be established, the problem was to find good teachers for these schools. Thus, this was the beginning of educational supervision. In 1654, the General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colonies passed a law that required "the elders of a town, as well as the overseers of Harvard University, to insure that no teachers were hired who were unsound in faith or scandalous in their lives" (Marks et al., 1971, p. 8). Teachers were also expected to sign an oath of allegiance to the states.

By 1709, the Commission of the City of Boston directed lay inspectors to notify school masters before visiting schools. The inspectors were then instructed to consult and advise the school master in regard to the progress of the teaching and learning that was observed (Eye and Netzer, 1975). The lay inspectors and official committees became familiar with methods of teaching, and school masters were examined for proficiency. These inspectors were "less interested in improving a deficient teacher than in dismissing him" (Lucio and McNeil, 1969, p. 4).

Nevertheless, such was supervisional theory during the colonial period. The committees of laymen continued to inspect teachers, courses of study, and classroom instructional techniques.

The development of educational supervision continued during the 1800s with both laymen and school inspectors. The ultimate power to supervise was vested in the local superintendent (Gwynn, 1969). The supervisory approach consisted of following rules and maintaining standards (Marks et al., 1971). The emphasis was on managing the school. The lay inspectors were concerned with teachers meeting the requirements of the prescribed curriculum. They were not concerned with improvement of instructional procedures (Eye and Netzer, 1969). The inspectors placed great emphasis on maintaining the physical plant, pupil control, and teaching process.

The period of 1876-1936 was called "Efficiency Orientation" (Eye and Netzer, 1965, p.6). Efficiency-oriented experts placed pressurized influence upon teaching procedures. The impact of business practices and ethics was observed on the educational scene. Administrators became very concerned with the business management approach to running a school. Relationships improved between teachers and inspectors. The inspectors began to have conferences with teachers. They talked about improvement, construction, and growth in educational

programs. The superintendents were given more control over supervision. In fact, Lucio and McNeil (1969) reported, "By 1870, there were 29 superintendents of schools serving as executive officers, with the supervision of instruction as one of their duties in which the improvement of the weak teacher's deficiency was sought more than his rejection" (p. 4).

The approach to supervision began to change during this period. The superintendents felt that principals should assist teachers. With urbanization rampant, schools grew more rapidly. The state, county, and local superintendents gained more supervisory responsibilities. The aim was to improve teachers and give authoritarian leadership for educational improvement. Teachers were looked upon as tools of the school organization. The teachers were considered passive, thus they were told what to do.

Supervisory responsibilities were placed upon the principals very slowly because of the principal's own teaching and clerical duties. In 1857, some principals in Boston were released from some of their duties to assist teachers. The innovation was slow to spread (Lucio and McNeil, 1969). Aside from the teaching and clerical duties, the principal was slow to receive supervisory responsibilities because most superintendents did not want to give up any of their gained power. Furthermore, superintendents did not want to share any power with others.

Thus, definite role conflict occurred. There was "no clear statement of who had the responsibility and authority for supervision" (Marks et al., 1971, p. 8). There was much confusion about these responsibilities. The aim of supervision was not to improve education. Once again, the main goal was the discipline of students. There was still a stern relationship between the supervisors and the supervised (Eye and Netzer, 1965).

Even though supervision actually developed from the school superintendency and the principalship of the secondary school, "its most successful application took place in the elementary school" (Gwynn, 1969, p.4). Supervision began as an adjunct of school administration. Supervision had "no independent thought of its own" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 14).

From the early 1800s until the turn of the 20th Century, supervision was conducted by superintendents and principal teachers. The approach to supervision during this time remained mainly inspectional and authoritarian (Alfonso et al., 1975).

By 1900, the influence of industry and business had a great impact on educational supervision. The period from 1900-1920 was called the Scientific Management Era. The ideas of Frederick Taylor, Cubberly and Max Weber became very relevant to educational leaders. "The industrial revolution was a dominant factor in American life and the

method of science was the major approach used by industry"
(Wiles and Lovell, 1975, p. 33).

Science soon became the major approach used in
education. Taylor applied methods of science to achieve the
greatest possible efficiency. Cubberly brought Taylor's
ideas to the public schools. Cubberly sought to use
Taylor's model to produce a standard product (student) with
the most efficient methods. Furthermore, it was believed by
many educational leaders that concepts of
departmentalization in organizations had good implications
for educational organizations. Therefore, Max Weber's ideal
model for formal organizations, bureaucracy, caught on
quickly in the educational organization. Weber called for
hierarchy of authority, impersonalization of management, and
line and staff officers. Weber advocated that tasks be done
through fixed positions and general rules (Wiles and Lovell,
1975).

The emphasis during the Scientific Management Era was
to achieve output, efficiency, and job specialization. The
status of workers became that of machines. The human
element was neglected. Money was the only reward for hard
work.

During the Scientific Management Era, supervision of
rural schools was delegated to the county superintendent.
Supervisors were usually appointed by the superintendents to
improve administration as well as instruction. However,

supervisors tended to regard schools as "goal-oriented factories engaged in processing human materials" (Goodlad, 1983, p. 9). Teachers were seen as instruments that had to be "closely supervised to ensure that they mechanically carried out the methods of procedure determined by administrators and special supervisors" (Lucio and McNeil, 1969, p. 3).

The goals of supervision during this period were to apply the organizational principles to school supervision, find the best teaching methods, and define qualifications of the teacher. The role of supervisors was to assure that all teachers met the standards. Supervisors were to provide teachers with detailed instructions along with the materials to be used. The supervisors tried to stimulate desired effort in teachers by giving them incentives to work harder (Lucio and McNeil, 1969).

During the Scientific Management Era, there was no time for supervisors to direct and supervise needed research and measurement. Supervisors spent most of their time determining proper teaching methods.

> The burden of finding the best method was too great and too complex to be laid on the shoulders of teachers. The teacher was the specialist in the practice that would produce the product. The supervisor was to specialize in the science relating to the process. (Lucio and McNeil, 1969, p. 9)

Supervisors were concerned whether or not the best teaching methods were being used. Therefore, superiors promised that instruments would be developed to measure outcomes and also to set standards. Gradually, measuring scales for arithmetic ability were developed with norms (Lucio and McNeil, 1969).

The Scientific Management Era brought about a change in supervision. Supervision dealt with improving teaching practice. Emphasis, however, was still placed upon the teacher's out-of-school behavior. There were rules of conduct for teachers as late as 1915. For example, teachers were not to marry while under contract. Teachers were to be home between 8:00 p.m. and 6:00 a.m. (Doll, 1983). Supervisors tried to enforce those rules.

The supervisors were given many responsibilities during 1900-1920. The duties varied from enforcing policy to maintaining the environments. Lucio and McNeil (1969) reported that in L. S. Hanifan's book, <u>The Supervision of Rural Schools</u>, the typical supervisory duties in 1913 included the following:

1. Installing individual drinking cups in several schools

2. Encouraging picture studies in all schools

3. Securing analysis of drinking water

4. Having window boards installed

5. Placing a copy of Dr. Allen's Health Rules in every school

6. Distributing supplementary readers

7. Enforcing the state courses of study

8. Securing and keeping good teachers

9. Giving lectures at public meetings

10. Having a district exhibition fair

11. Guiding students' plans for vocational work during the summer

12. Having medical inspection of students

By 1917, supervision was being described as sweetness and light. The supervisor's role was to offer a genial influence over the school functions. They were charged with seeing that people were happy while learning (Eye and Netzer, 1975). The supervisors were still expected to check up on the teachers, because many teachers were not trained to teach school. Some persons started teaching immediately after being high school educated. The teachers were given little pre-service educational training. Therefore, the administrative responsibility of rating teachers was also a major role of the supervisors (Gwynn, 1969).

Scientific supervision exhibited strong qualities. It emphasized empirical research and administrative efficiency. The goal of scientific supervision was to bring economy, order, and stability to the educational organization (Mosher and Purpel, 1972). However, scientific supervision had two

major problems:  "(a) Most supervisors and teachers were not
trained to use the method, and (b) the human factors that
operate in teaching cannot all be measured scientifically"
(Gwynn, 1969, p. 14).

Thus, most educational leaders were not thoroughly
satisfied with the Scientific Management Era of supervision.
A big change occurred between 1920-1940.  This period was
called the Human Relations Era.  Supervision had been
authoritarian; however, it completely reversed during this
period.  The main goal of supervision became guidance
instead of inspection.  The practice of human relations
"viewed teachers with feelings and motives but often gave
less attention to their properties as reasoning beings"
(Lucio and McNeil, 1969, p. 31).

Nonetheless, the human aspect became the main concern
during the Human Relations Era.  Relationships within formal
and informal organizations were studied during this period.
It was concluded that people belonging to organizations have
goals, values, emotions, and needs which affect the way they
behave in an organization.  The Hawthorn studies were
conducted in 1933 by Elton Mayo.  Mayo concluded that
"relationships between workers and supervisors could be a
more potent factor in production than a variety of
environment conditions" (Wiles and Lovell, 1975, p. 36).
Studies were also done concerning formal and informal social
systems and leadership behavior.

During the 1930s, supervisors were challenged to improve the products of learning (Eye and Netzer, 1975). Supervisors enforced written courses of study. The curriculum contained study units. There were more testing and ability grouping in the elementary and secondary schools. There were still only a few courses in supervision and curriculum offered in the colleges (Doll, 1983).

During the Human Relations Period, teachers were usually seen by supervisors as efficient and competent in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement. Standards for teaching came from higher levels. Thus, following classroom visitations, supervisors gave commendations or condemnations. The supervisors usually looked at the view of the learner, the use of the materials, and patted the teachers on their backs. There was much praise given during this period. The supervisors were usually very positive. They were trying to get away from the inspector image of the Scientific Management Era. Thus, they were establishing a new image as resource people. The title of supervisor was used less, and the titles of coordinator and counselor were used more often (Lucio and McNeil, 1969).

As resource people, supervisors during 1930-1940 assumed that their goal was to help teachers improve their teaching while in service. Furthermore, "every facility and device that can make each individual into a master teacher

must be available to them" (Gwynn, 1969, p. 14). There was a definite shift from scientific supervision to creative supervision. The shift included (a) supervisors as main creative individual to the teacher as a person, (b) creativity as learning to discovery as learning, and (c) a certain teaching method which must be used by every teacher to the idea that different individuals use different methods effectively (Gwynn, 1969).

Researchers have mixed emotions about creative or democratic supervision. Most researchers reported creative supervision emphasized the dignity of the individual teacher. This type of supervision stressed warmth, friendliness, and shared leadership responsibilities (Gwynn, 1969; Lucio and McNeil, 1969; Mosher and Purpel, 1972). However, Wiles and Lovell (1975) saw democratic supervision as a type of manipulation. Wiles and Lovell (1975) reported that "teachers were treated kindly and maneuvered into doing what supervisors wanted" (p. 3).

Nevertheless, the supervisory aim between 1920-1937 was to improve instruction through classroom observation and demonstration. The focus was on teaching weaknesses (Marks et al., 1971). However, the supervisors always took into account the teacher's personality and the relationship to the child.

Shipp (1971) developed a theory of educational supervision based on assumptions of humanistic psychology.

Shipp researched the works of Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, and Arthur Combs. Briefly, Rogers developed a theory of interpersonal relationships. Maslow studied personal growth and motivation; Combs studied the self and perceptual psychology. He viewed the teacher as a person. He stressed the teacher's self and self-actualization, the attitude of the supervisor, and the element of time in perceiving. As a result of research, Shipp developed a specific model for developing a theory.

The Human Relations Era had a great impact on education supervision. A person's theory of supervision depends on the view of the nature of human beings (Doll, 1983). The Human Relations Era gave appropriate direction to the processes, roles, strategies, and conceptual tools for supervision through open supervision (Shingleton, 1975).

Educational supervision had made a complete turn around from 1600 to 1940. In the period from 1940 until the present, educational leaders combined the best of the Scientific Management Era and the Human Relations Era. "No matter what the theoretical emphasis, the success of supervision seems to depend more on the element of good human relations than on any other single factor" (Marks et al., 1971, p.10). Thus, the new era in supervision came to be known as the Behavorial Era.

There were major changes in educational supervision from 1900-1940. Three factors gave rise to several concepts

of value to supervision: "(a) changes in the ideas of how children learn, (b) major advances in methods of teaching, and (c) tremendous growth in amount and variety of textbooks and teaching materials" (Gwynn, 1969, p.9).

Even though the concept of supervision had advanced tremendously since the Scientific Management Era, the Human Relations Era was not the total answer. "Roles, responsibility, and authority were unclear in many situations and contributed to poor communication and working relationships between central office supervisors and local school principals" (Wiles and Lovell, 1975, p.38). Furthermore, there were changes in the public's perceived role of supervisors.

From 1937-1959, Cooperative Group Effort constituted both means and ends in the change process of educational supervision (Eye and Netzer, 1965). The key elements during this period included (a) coordinating, (b) integrative, (c) creativity, (d) stimulation, and (e) democratic relationships.

School systems were growing. There was a shortage of well-trained teachers. Administrators had many tasks to perform. They were concerned with district consolidations, high enrollments, and added pupil services. Thus, there was an increase in the need for supervisors (Eye and Netzer, 1965).

Since fine arts, physical education, and extra-curricular activities had been added to the curriculum, special area supervisors were needed. The areas of foreign language, mathematics, science, and guidance were also being emphasized and were in need of special supervisory assistance. Thus, cooperation and coordination became essential for general and special supervisors.

Wagner (1973) undertook a study to identify the functional roles of general and subject supervisors between 1945-1970. The supervisory tasks for both groups were given various administrative assignments. They were also assigned tasks to coordinate instruction and curriculum development. By 1962, all secondary supervisors in Montgomery County, Maryland, were responsible for subject areas. They operated under direction of curriculum and supervision officers.

During the 1940s, the cooperative enterprise sought to have all people in the school system supervise each other. Teachers were encouraged to help each other. The Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development emerged as a very powerful organization for supervisors during this period. The organization taught supervisors group process and democratic leadership (Wiles and Lovell, 1975).

Supervision has been performed by principals, special supervisors, coordinators, curriculum directors,

consultants, teachers, and others since 1937. The approach
to supervision has been cooperative enterprise such as
curriculum development and in-service education programs
aimed at improving instruction. There was much emphasis put
on in-service education during the 1950s because of the
great community pressure put on the whole educational system
due to Russia's launching of Sputnik. As a result, math and
science programs gained more support, many evaluation
instruments were assessed, and teacher's unions and
associations became very involved in education (Doll, 1983).

As the curriculum changed, supervision also went
through a transition. Emphasis was placed on the
organizations and the individuals in the organizations. A
great amount of research was done that applied to
educational supervision. The research included studies by
McGregor, Haplin and Croft, Maslow, Herzberg, Getzell and
Guba, and Cogan, just to name a few.

From McGregor's research in the 1950s, it was concluded
that motivation was built into each individual in an
organization. Each individual had needs to satisfy.
Furthermore, the view of leadership that supervisors took
affected the way they interacted with others within the
organization (Doll, 1983).

During the 1960s, Halpin and Croft studied climates of
organizations and their relationships with leadership
behavior. They developed the Organization Climate

Description Questionnaire. The questionnaire classified climates of organizations as open, paternal, familiar, controlled, autonomous, or closed. The leadership behaviors were classified as consideration, thrust, production emphasis, aloofness, intimacy, esprit, hindrance, or disengagement (Wiles and Lovell, 1975).

Maslow also conducted research on individuals in organizations during the Behavorial Era. Maslow reported that individuals had physiological and psychological needs. These needs formed a hierarchy from safety, belongingness, love, and esteem to self-actualization (Doll, 1983).

During this era, Herzberg set out to name job satisfiers and job dissatisfiers. Herzberg discovered that job satisfiers were very different from job dissatisfiers. Job satisfiers included achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Herzberg labeled these job satisfiers as motivators. Job dissatisfiers included organizational policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions. Herzberg labeled these job dissatisfiers and hygiene factors (Doll, 1983).

In 1979, Lawrence tried to determine the relevancy of the Herzberg Motivation-Hygiene Theory in a sample of elementary supervisors from Virginia. Lawrence concluded that the Hertzberg motivators--achievement and recognition--were statistically significant satisfiers.

However, none of the Herzberg hygienes identified as a dissatisfier were statistically significant.

Another study on factors leading to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of public school instructional supervisors was conducted by Crews (1978). The sample in this study consisted of instructional supervisors and supervisors in Louisiana during the 1976-77 school year. The conclusions were as follows:

1. Instructional supervisors perceived Herzberg's motivations to be the primary sources of job satisfaction.

2. Herzberg's hygiene factors were perceived by instructional supervisors to be primary sources of dissatisfaction.

3. Achievement and recognition are perceived by supervisors and superiors as major job satisfiers.

4. Interpersonal relations, school policy and administration were sources of job dissatisfiers for instructional supervisors.

5. Superiors of instructional supervisors were aware of good feelings supervisors have of their jobs.

6. Superiors of instructional supervisors were aware of bad feelings supervisors have of their jobs. (p. 5150-5151A)

Other studies were conducted during the Behavioral Era concerning leadership and social behavior by Getzels and

Guba. Getzels and Guba developed a model of social behavior
which was used in a study conducted by Esposito (1971).
Esposito concluded that open-minded supervisors maintained
more curriculum development than closed-minded supervisors.
Open-minded supervisors preferred to work in curriculum
development and evaluation; whereas, closed-minded
supervisors performed staff development and public relations
development more than open-minded supervisors.
Closed-minded supervisors preferred to organize for
instruction.

The role of supervisors in the 1950s was to set a
relaxed atmosphere within the organization and obtain wide
participation. The goal of the supervisors was to improve
the entire staff. Leadership was shared by all of the
individuals in the organization. Supervision was a
democratic function. All individuals were encouraged to
help in policy making (Lucio and McNeil, 1969). Supervision
took the human factor into consideration (Marks et al.,
1971). The supervisors stimulated the growth of teachers
and students. Eye (1975) proclaimed, "Supervision would
result in the improvement of society and the world in which
it lives" (p. 15).

During the middle 1950s, Morris Cogan and his
associates made great progress in the field of supervision.
While working with Harvard's Masters of Arts in Teaching
program, they developed clinical supervision. The system

was called clinical supervision because the clinic is the
"classroom and depends on direct observation of manifest
behavior" (Cogan, 1973, p. ix).

In clinical supervision there was a partnership between
supervisor and teacher. Clinical supervision had no place
for superior-subordinate relationships. Furthermore,
clinical supervision rejected the notion of supervisor
teaching the teacher.

Cogan (1973) established eight phases in the cycle of
clinical supervision:

1. Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship

2. Planning with the teacher (lessons and units)

3. Planning the strategy of observation with the
   teacher

4. Observing instruction (in person or recordings)

5. Analyzing the teaching-learning process

6. Planning the strategy of the conference

7. The conference

8. Renewed planning--The teacher and supervisor
   decided on the kinds of changes to be made in the
   teacher's classroom behavior. The teacher
   attempted to make these changes, and the cycle
   starts over. (pp. 10-12)

By 1958, Cogan was providing in-service training for
clinical supervisors. Cogan pointed out, that since his
model called for one-to-one, in-class observations, clinical

supervision was expensive. It took a sizable group of supervisors to help one system. Furthermore, collateral specialists were needed. However, Cogan (1973) insisted clinical supervision was "cheaper than poor teaching and failure to change" (p. ix). Cogan saw the lack of clinical supervision to be the main reason for failure of many useful instructional innovations. Many teachers stay with familiar modes of teaching because of major or minor failures while trying instructional innovations.

Many studies have been conducted relating to Cogan's model of clinical supervision. The studies showed disagreement among teachers, principals, and supervisors as to the degree of clinical supervision that was taking place. Protti (1980) conducted research to find out about the perceptions of teachers, principals, and supervisors relative to classroom observation and conferences. Protti found differences existed between perceptions relative to the supervisory practices of observation and conferences.

Another study of classroom observation and conferences was conducted in Tennessee. The purpose of this study, conducted by Hendrix (1976), was to develop a definitive description of supervisory practices with specific reference to observation and conferences. The perceptions of teachers, supervisors, and principals differed on the extent to which observation and conferences were being effectively completed in Tennessee. There were also significant

differences in their perceptions of

1.  The nature of the planning for the observations

2.  The purpose and helpfulness of the observations

3.  Nature of the planning for the conference

4.  The extent to which teachers were involved in the
    supervisory support service which related to
    classroom observations and conferences.

    (p. 2536A)

Another study was conducted in Tennessee relating to
clinical supervision. This study was organized by Eaker
(1973). The purposes were to develop a clinical supervision
model and determine if teachers and administrators agree or
disagree with its components and procedures. Eaker found
that most teachers and administrators agreed with the basic
assumption of supervision. Teachers agreed more strongly
with the assumptions than with the procedures.
Administrators agreed more strongly with the assumptions and
procedures of clinical supervision than teachers.

Reavis (1977) investigated the differences in verbal
exchange between supervisors and teachers, contrasting
clinical supervision and traditional supervision. Reavis
used Blumberg's "A System for Analyzing Supervisor-Teacher
Interaction" based on Flanders' Interaction Analysis.
Reavis reported significant differences in the verbal
exchange between teachers and supervisors. The conclusions
favored clinical supervision. However, Reavis reported that

both supervisors and teachers seemed to be role playing instead of behaving as individuals concerned with problems.

Another study by Thompson (1978) investigated perceptions of classroom visitation and decision making. Thompson found that principals' perceptions differed from perceptions of supervisors and teachers on classroom visitation. Principals' and teachers' perceptions of decision making differed from those of supervisors.

Gordon (1972) investigated behaviors that supervisors thought were most effective in working with teachers in the one-to-one conference setting. "Five critical behavior categories were chosen: (a) listening, (b) diagnosing, (c) advising and informing, (d) supporting, and (e) information gathering" (p. 4836A). From the data, nine reasons for conferences were classified: "(a) curriculum planning, (b) gathering relevant data, (c) personal problems, (d) classroom performance, (e) staffing, (f) evaluation, (g) lesson planning, and (h) classroom observation" (p. 4836A). Gordon classified the effective behaviors into five categories and reported the perceived effectiveness: "(a) advising and informing--41%, (b) supporting--28%, (c) listening--13%, (d) diagnosing--11%, and (e) information gathering--7%" (p. 4836A).

Gordon (1972) concluded from this research that supervisors continued to dominate in their relationship with teachers. This study also revealed that supervisors with

`less experience placed more emphasis on listening and information gathering than experienced supervisors.

Moritz (1980) conducted research in Ohio concerning the individualized clinical supervisional approach. The split-screen concept was implemented where the teachers evaluated their own teaching on tape. The screen was split so the teacher was shown on the other side. This was used as an alternative to traditional teacher evaluation. Moritz reported that a combination of microteaching, interaction analysis, and video taping modified and changed behaviors in both pre-service and in-service teachers. Teachers, administrators, and supervisors were trained together; thus, Moritz obtained favorable results.

Even though clinical supervision was favored by many researchers, it is not everything to all people. The search has continued through the years to find the perfect model for instructional supervision.

Glickman (1985) proposed peer observation as an alternative to clinical supervision. He supported peer observation and conferences with teachers so that teachers could find out how others taught and received feedback from other teachers. Peer observation could not prove that it increased instructional improvement, but there was a better feeling toward supervision (Freeman, 1980). However, other reseachers such as Alfonso said, "Peer supervision was no substitute for formal supervision" (Alfonso et al., 1977,

p. 594). Alfonso et al., declared there was too much emphasis placed on evaluation and not enough emphasis on the main goal of supervision—improving instruction.

By the late 1950s to early 1960s, some researchers advocated supervision by objectives. Lucio and McNeil (1969) reported the following:

> The school will be forced to analyze and operationally state the aims from which all teachers receive their mandate . . . A school district will have to allocate a larger share of its budget to evaluation of instruction in terms of pupil gain." (p. 146)

According to supervision by objectives, the teachers and supervisors decided on objectives to improve instruction. The teachers geared tests to instructional objective. This did not mean actually teaching the test. Yet, the teachers were rated satisfactory or unsatisfactory in terms of a particular class.

During the 1960s, Research Orientation became an important part of instructional supervision. The goal of Research Orientation was to mold "personal relationships and research attacks on the solution of teaching-learning problems" (Eye and Netzer, 1965, p. 9). Research Orientation came about because of the technological advancements and the space competition with foreign nations. Research Orientation was concerned with the total process in the school organization. It included (a) role perceptions,

(b) situational factors, (c) data collection,

(d) experimentation, (e) empirical study, and

(f) hypothesizing. Research Orientation "introduced a base of research on performance of supervisory functions" (Eye and Netzer, 1975, p. 15).

With research an important part of supervision, an attempt was made to update subject matter and upgrade schools. There were many curriculum projects at that time. Therefore, supervisors were finally being recognized as change agents (Alfonso et al., 1975).

The 1970s brought problems to instructional supervision. The population was down. Schools were low on money. Teacher competencies and accountability were the thoughts of the day. The educational scene was also faced with more problems from state-wide testing, mainstreaming, to open schools (Doll, 1983).

Research was still emphasized. However, the opportunities for both teachers and pupils were actualized. "Adjustments were necessary in a changing society" (Eye and Netzer, 1975, p. 15). Supervision was a cooperative enterprise with additional community participation.

There was a mixture of strategies of supervision during the 1970s. Some of the strategies were (a) self-appraisal by teachers, (b) clinical supervision, (c) curriculum study and planning, and (d) human resources supervision. All of these strategies of supervision were time comsuming. They

required advance planning and careful scheduling (Doll, 1983).

Harris (1985) reported that there were several theoretical frames of reference for the late 1970s and 1980s. The theoretical frames of reference included (a) social-psychological theory, (b) social systems theory, (c) communication theory, and (d) organizational theory.

Management-by-objectives resurfaced in the 1980s for personnel development. According to Harris (1985), Redfern advocated using management-by-objectives "to guide highly personalized programs of staff development" (p. 101). Management-by-objectives was a participative management style. Knezevich (1984) compared it to democratic school administration. However, Gray (1979) concluded that management-by-objectives worked in industry, but it was unrealistic in education. Gray said it worked better in industry because the worker-supervisor ratio was six to one. The ratio was much higher in educational organizations.

Harris (1985) designed a highly structured version of a developmental evaluation strategy--Harris-Hill Development Teacher Evaluation Kit. This strategy was implemented through the use of a kit of materials. There was an ongoing objective diagnostic evaluation process that led to individual growth planning. Teachers, administrators, and supervisors work together in all phases of the program to help improve the classroom practices.

Many strategies of supervision have been tried over the years. The trend of the 1970s and 1980s has been to go back to some of the older models, rename them, and use them again. Differentiated supervision was designed to give experienced teachers some options other than clinical supervision. These options included cooperative professional development (peer observation), self-directed development (self-analysis), and administrative monitoring (brief drop-in visits and conferences). The first three options have already been discussed earlier in this chapter. With administrative monitoring, the administrator visited classrooms without prior notice to the teachers. The teachers received informal feedback about each visit (Glatthorn, 1984). Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) also supported drop-in monitoring. Monitoring was seen as part of the principal's leadership role.

Another strategy that resurfaced from the late 1940s and 1950s was action research. According to Glickman (1985), Lewin and Corey explained in the late 40s and early 50s that action research allowed teachers to meet to identify common instructional problems. The teachers determined what changes needed to be made. They implemented the changes and judged the success of their endeavors. Action research has been resurrected under various names--Quality Circles, organization development, and problem solving groups. Harris (1985) defined Quality

Circles as "a group of people with related jobs who met together regularly using a structured format to identify, analyze, and solve problems in their area of job responsibility" (p. 104). The circle consisted of 4 to 10 voluntary members plus a supervisory or administrative leader who has been trained in quality circle techniques.

Many theories and strategies have been implemented in supervision. Yet, supervision has not been thought of positively by some researchers. Mosher and Purpel (1972) remarked that in the "review of literature there was virtually no research suggesting that supervision of teaching, however defined or undertaken, made any difference" (p. 50). The problem was that supervision has no measurable effect. Supervision has no independent thought of its own. From the beginning, supervision has been linked with administration. Moshler and Purpel (1972) reported that the widespread public attitude about supervision was as follows: "Supervision is at best ineffectual and at worst a harmful form of interference with the work of the teacher" (p. 21).

Supervision as inspection has a negative carryover even today. Fears and insecurities of teachers are still reported on the "hire-fire system of snoopervisors" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 18).

Miller (1979) did a study to determine if there were common administrative concepts in the important theories of

the Scientific Management Era, Human Relations Era, and Behavioral Era. Miller reported that the administrative concepts found in all three eras were concern for productive efficiency and concern for workers as humans. "To read about supervision in 1920 was to read about supervision in 1970" (Mosher and Purpel, 1972, p. 14). The improvement of instruction was recognized as the main goal in supervision by 1920 (Gwynn, 1961).

On the defense of supervision, Glickman (1985) stated, "There is no best way to supervise" (p. xiii). The needs of the teacher and needs of the supervisor must be considered so that the classroom teaching-learning process can be successful. A uniform supervisory practice would inhibit the thought process of supervisors, teachers, and students. Thus, the main goal of supervision, improving instruction, could not be fulfilled.

Traditional school supervision was poorly planned. The leadership style was authoritarian. The role of the supervisor was that of inspecting teachers. However, "modern school supervision is based on research and analysis of total teaching. Modern supervision deals with the total learning environment. It is objective, systematic, democratic, creative, growth-centered, and productive" (Marks et al., 1971, p. 10). Modern supervision emphasizes experimentation and continuous evaluation. However, the role of instructional supervisors is cloudy even today.

Sergiovanni and Starrat (1983) summed up the problems in the history and future of supervision quite well:

What is needed is some firm footing in principle. Some have called our often unexpressed constellation of principles a platform. Just as a political party is supposed to base its decisions and actions on a party platform upon which it seeks election, so, too, supervisory personnel need a platform upon which, and in the light of which, they can carry on their work. With a clearly defined platform, they can begin to take a position relative to educational practices, looking beyond the surface behavior to probe for the real consequences of a variety of school practices. (pp. 226-227)

## The Roles of Instructional Supervisors

The purpose of this section was to define the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors; to identify ideal role expectations of instructional supervisors; and to show reasons for role conflict as experienced by instructional supervisors.

Research studies were included in this section to demonstrate the need that instruction supervisors have for role clarification. The review of literature showed that the ideal role presented through the years for instructional

supervisors is not the actual role that instructional supervisors have today.

Role was defined by Beck, Essie, and Comp (1981) as "the individual's action in formal organizations . . . Actions of individuals are organized around positions. Each position in a group has an organized system of role perception or expectation by other individuals" (p. 4).

Biddle and Thomas (1966) claimed that role performance was determined by social norms, demands, and rules of the organization. Furthermore, role performance of other individuals within the organization and the individual's capabilities and personality affected role performance.

According to Lipham, Ranklin, and Hoeh (1985), Rose pointed out that the values of society as well as an individual's values affected role relationships and individual behavior. The values had a direct impact on expectations for the organizations and the individuals within the organizations. In effective organizations, individual needs are satisfied through global organizational goals (Glickman, 1985).

The role of the instructional supervisor became increasingly confused during the 1970s. Most instructional supervisors felt they had a specific task to perform. Some instructional supervisors saw themselves as change agents. Other instructional supervisors sought to help

professional people improve instruction (Wiles and Lovell, 1975).

Hart (1980) reported that instructional supervision had been criticized for ambiguity. The purpose of supervision was unclear to many individuals. Hart concluded that the philosophical base for supervision was progressivism. Progressivism was the appropriate base because it advocated change, and change was an important goal of supervision.

According to Alfonso et al. (1975) supervision is a process and a role. Alfonso et al. stated, "The process concept includes the flow and combination of purpose, philosophy, and component subsystem that comprise supervision. The role concept involves the discrete tasks, the combination of activities, and responsibilities that together represent the job of supervisor" (p. 3).

New questions were raised about the role of instructional supervisors. The role in decision making shifted from routine housekeeping decisions to purpose-setting decisions. The expectations of instructional supervisors were amplified during the 1970s (Alfonso et al., 1975).

Lucio and McNeil (1969) described the school organization as a miniature society. The administrators, supervisors, teachers, and pupils had certain rights in each position. Lucio and McNeil concluded that role was linked with positions not with individuals.

The review of literature revealed that within the school organization, effective instructional supervisors did their jobs well and exhibited effective supervisory behavior. A study was conducted by Carman (1971) to determine effective supervisory behavior as perceived by local schools. The findings revealed that the following were characterized as effective supervisory behaviors: (a) sincerity, (b) consideration of teacher's problems, (c) willingness to help, (d) being unobtrusive during class visitations, (e) inspiring teachers to improve performance, and (f) support teacher-made decisions.

Another study for ideal supervisory qualities was conducted by Young (1975). Young surveyed teachers and concluded that the main characteristics of effective supervisors were perceived by teachers to be honesty, human compassion, and concern for children. Furthermore, the most important link between teachers and supervisors was communication (Young, 1975).

Barber (1973) also did a study about the most effective helping behavior of instructional supervisors. The most effective helping behaviors included empathetic, competent, nonfatalistic, not overly self-concerned, and positive self-image.

A similar study was done by Ferguson (1976) in Louisiana. Ferguson asked supervisors of instruction, principals, and teachers to rank ideal characteristics of

instructional supervisors. According to this study, the ideal characteristics of instructional supervisors were knowledgeable, helpful, friendly, consistent, empathetic, and flexible. Ferguson's study further revealed that the most important characteristic was friendliness. The least important characteristic was flexibility.

Many studies stressed that instructional supervisors should meet the needs of teachers. However, Marks et al. (1971) concluded that instructional supervisors also had personal needs on and off of the job. Off-the-job needs included a good standard of living, family, social life, recreation, sexual fulfillment, financial security, community recognition, and reputation. On-the-job needs included egotistic accomplishment, feeling important, feeling whole, skill, program completion, autonomy, security, and job advancement. There were on-the-job social needs which included friendship, identification, and teamwork. Thus, needs of instructional supervisors affected role performance within the formal organization.

Regardless of the individual needs of instructional supervisors, universal goals within the organization must be met. According to Purkey and Smith (1982), "An academically effective school is distinguished by its culture: a structure, process, and climate of values and norms that channel staff and students in the direction of successful teaching and learning" (p. 69).

The 1970s-1980s made accountability prominent in the literature of instructional supervisors. The functions of instructional supervisors included (a) gaining information about how well the organization was operating, (b) assuring some uniformity of practice, and (c) improving teaching and learning (Eye and Netzer, 1975).

Another aim of instructional supervisors, according to Glickman (1985), was to develop teachers' abilities to think about what they should do. The role of the instructional supervisors was to help teachers become reflective and autonomous.

Doll (1983) reported that the work of instructional supervisors was more effective when it was centered in problem solving that was experimental. Furthermore, cooperative, task-oriented, and educative work gave lasting results. Doll presented a set of principles to guide the work of instructional supervisors:

1. Work with people, not over them.

2. Show that you too desire to improve.

3. Help the people with whom you work know you and know each other.

4. Help teachers enjoy a variety of in-service experiences

5. Work with both individuals and groups, balancing your time between individual conferences and group work.

6. Recognize that some people improve more slowly than others, both in a general sense and in specific activities.

7. Use problem solving as a means to improvement.

8. Help teachers feel free to improve.

9. Keep channels of communication open.

10. Use status with great care--you can be a threat or impediment.

11. Be sensible and modest in expectations, doing well that which you undertake. (pp. 125-126)

According to Young (1975), Johnson stressed the need for effective instructional supervisors. Johnson gave three purposes for supervision: (a) to protect children from incompetent teaching, (b) to administer curriculum, and (c) to assist each teacher to attain and maintain the maximum effectiveness in instruction (p. 10).

Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) supported Johnson's purposes of supervision. Leithwood and Montgomery contended that student learning was influenced indirectly by teacher growth, and the role of instructional supervisors was to facilitate necessary teacher growth.

Lucio and McNeil (1969) concluded that instructional supervisors must be statesmen, "able to give direction beyond merely ministering to the ogranization's equilibrium" (p. vi). Ideal instructional supervisors met numerous role expectations of other individuals within the organization.

Role expectations included successful performance in activities such as (a) organizing abstract material, (b) checking results of innovations, (c) defining needs of learners, (d) working with community groups, and (e) developing good personal qualities. These activities and many others were performed by instructional supervisors to help teachers develop effective behavior which reflected the goals of the organizations. The main tasks of instructional supervisors were to define the school's aims and to convert neutral personnel into those with concern for the school's total goals. These goals were obtained through coordination and communication by the instructional supervisors (Lucio and McNeil, 1969).

Harris (1985) presented 10 tasks of instructional supervisors, which he placed in three categories. The three categories consisted of (a) preliminary tasks, (b) operational tasks, and (c) developmental tasks. The tasks of supervisors in the preliminary category included (a) developing curriculum, (b) providing facilities, and (c) providing staff. The tasks of supervisors in the operational category included (a) organizing for instruction, (b) orienting staff members, (c) providing materials, (d) relating special pupil services, and (e) developing public relations. The tasks of supervisors in the developmental category included (a) arranging for in-service education and (b) evaluating for instruction.

Harris concluded that the core elements for ideal role performance of instructional supervisors included (a) evaluation of instruction, (b) curriculum development, (c) in-service education, (d) materials development, and (e) staffing.

Lovell and Phelps (1977) stated that instructional supervisors influenced teaching behavior in the following ways: (a) goal development, (b) program development, (c) control and coordination, (d) motivation, (e) problem solving, (f) professional development, and (g) evaluation of educational outcomes (p. 8).

Wiles and Lovell (1975) emphasized that the role of instructional supervisors was that of facilitators or resource people. When instructional supervisors were perceived as having no authority in the organization, a facilitating climate was created and the needs of teachers could be met.

Mosher and Purpel (1972) declared that defining the role of instructional supervisors was very hard. Instructional supervisors were expected to teach, to work with beginning teachers, to evaluate experienced teachers, to supervise many subject areas, to direct curriculum development, and to complete administrative and clerical tasks. However, Mosher and Purpel concluded that the major role of instructional supervisors was to provide professional leadership in the improvements of public

education. Curricular and instructional leadership was needed in the educational organizations.

Most researchers stated that the main goal of supervision was to improve instruction. According to Cawetti (1980), four major instructional improvement processes used to provide instruction were curriculum development, clinical supervision, staff development, and teacher evaluation.

Ritz (1980) reported that to achieve the ultimate goals of the organization, instructional supervisors performed formal and nonformal tasks. The formal tasks included curriculum development, inservice planning and observation of classrooms. The nonformal tasks included helping teachers with personal problems, facilitating interpersonal relationships among staff, and protecting staff from unwelcomed criticism. Like Ritz, Gwynn (1969) advocated that instructional supervisors consider interpersonal relationships within the organizations. Gwynn emphasized that the mental health of teachers needed to be considered before instructional supervisors tried to attain a desirable teaching and learning situation for pupils.

Marks et al. (1971) also related human relations, effective communication, and team work to the implementation of effective school supervision. Marks stated that ideal instructional supervisors spend time attending educational meetings, discussing educational philosophy, establishing

objectives, developing new techniques for instruction, holding group conferences to discuss common problems, making classroom visits, and serving as a resource person. Furthermore, Marks suggested that effective instructional supervisors devote a great deal of time to planning, evaluating, programming, budgeting, and reporting for the improvement of instruction. Hence, Marks concluded that the main issues of supervision were (a) staff development, (b) decision making, (c) selecting supervisory personnel, (d) instructional development, (e) coordinated instructional systems, (f) individualized instruction, and (g) development in instruction media and technology.

Eye and Netzer (1965) summarized the identified or inferred role of instructional supervisors from many textbooks in supervision. The summarized role included such verbs as stimulate, originate, coordinate, analyze, evaluate, and synthesize. Eye and Netzer concluded that the major function of supervision was that of "influencing situations, persons, and relationships for the purpose of stimulating change that may be evaluated as improvement" (p. 39).

Perrine (1984) stated that there were many components identified in literature for supervisory effectiveness. However, the main two factors were provision of technical expertise and humanistic interaction with teachers.

Cooperative effort was necessary to improve curriculum and instruction.

According to Ritz (1980), the humanistic interaction between instructional supervisors and teachers was also stressed by Blumberg. Blumberg called for a balance between performing tasks and developing healthy relationships among individuals working on the tasks. Blumberg inferred that evaluation of teachers often hampered good relationships between instructional supervisors and teachers.

Another researcher, Guild (1985), stressed the importance of good human relations. Guild stated, "Education is a people business" (p. 5). Guild suggested that role of instructional supervisors was to identify common goals and work productively with other individuals within the organizations. Guild emphasized that excellence in learning and teaching was established through open communication, high morale, and positive climate. Guild also noted the importance of gaining commitment from the community and parents in achieving total organizational goals.

Glickman (1985) also suggested that the role of instructional supervisors was to develop good human relations. Glickman encouraged instructional supervisors to build the whole staff into a team; through this team approach, effective instructional superiors improved the teaching-learning process. Instructional supervisors

created more effective schools by:

1. Enhancing teacher belief in a cause beyond oneself and the four walls

2. Promoting teacher's sense of efficiency

3. Making teachers aware of how they complement each other in striving for common goals

4. Stimulating teachers to plan common purpose and actions

5. Challenging teachers to think abstractly about their work. (p. 21)

Thus, Glickman's definition of the role of instructional supervisors changed throughout the years of the Behavioral Era. Glickman strongly supported clinical supervision in earlier writings; however, further research changed Glickman's views. In 1985, Glickman confessed that clinical supervision was not the total answer for educational improvement. Glickman stated the main role of instructional supervisors was to increase teachers' professional thought. Four tasks of instructional supervisors increased teacher professional thought--direct assistance, curriculum development, inservice education and action research. Therefore, Glickman described supervision as developmental. Effective instructional supervisors responded to teacher performance and encouraged more involvement by teachers in the supervisory process.

Many studies in the review of literature revealed task and behavior expectations for instructional supervisors. Research on these topics was reported by Evans (1976), Holder (1978), Ferguson (1976), Smith (1971), Valentine et al. (1980), Copeland (1980), Stewart (1969), Lovell and Phelps (1977), and Carman (1971).

Evans (1976) examined the task expectations for the elementary supervisors' role as perceived by elementary teachers and supervisors in Virginia. Evans used the following tasks in the study: (a) curriculum development, (b) organizing for instruction, (c) providing staff, (d) providing facilities, (e) providing materials, (f) arranging for in-service education, (g) orienting new staff, (h) relating special pupil services, (i) developing public relations, and (j) evaluating instruction. Evans reported that there were significant differences expressed by teachers and supervisors as to task expectations for the elementary supervisors' role. Supervisors gave great emphasis to organizing for instruction and evaluating instructional tasks and little emphasis to curriculum development and providing materials. Whereas, teachers gave great emphasis to curriculum development and providing materials and little emphasis to organizing and evaluating instruction. Evans reported that as perceived by supervisors, there was no significant difference in expectations of the elementary supervisors' role: (a) by

general and special area supervisors, (b) regardless of academic preparation of supervisors, or (c) with or without administrative experience. Furthermore, as perceived by teachers, there was no significant difference in expectations of the elementary supervisors' role: (a) regardless of academic preparation of teachers, or (b) by primary and intermediate teachers.

Holder (1978) conducted a study in Georgia to determine a task analysis of instructional supervisors. Holder concluded:

1. Instructional supervisors continued to have major responsibilities in program planning, instruction, resources, and evaluation.

2. Instructional supervisors were not involving teachers in staff development.

3. Instructional supervisors performed too many administrative duties.

4. There was little emphasis on demonstration and research.

5. There was little interest in developing school-community relations.

6. There was little emphasis on supervisors attending conferences and professional meetings.

Holder inferred that part of the problem in Georgia was the increased number of supervisory duties and the lack of personnel.

Ferguson (1975) conducted a study in Louisiana relating to the practices of elementary supervisors of instruction as perceived by supervisors of instructions, principals, and teachers. Ferguson found that more supervisors who were certified in supervision and administration agreed on role perceptions of instructional supervisors and own-role assignment than supervisors certified in other areas. The majority of supervisors (95%) agreed that principals should assume major roles in classroom visitations. Supervisors also agreed on the relative importance of future roles of instructional supervisors. They perceived these future roles to include "long-range planning, directing teacher in-service, assisting teachers, evaluating programs, evaluating teachers, monitoring programs, and directing pilot programs" (p. 3292A). Supervisors felt that evaluating programs was the most important role of instructional supervisors. The least important role for instructional supervisors was directing pilot programs. Ferguson's research also revealed that in Louisiana:

1. Ninety percent of instructional supervisors were required to observe non-tenured teachers.

2. Fifty percent of instructional supervisors were required to observe tenured teachers.

3. Fifty percent of instructional supervisors spent 3 to 10 days each month in the central office performing administrative duties.

4. Seventy-five percent of principals rated supervisory service as adequate or above.

5. Fifty-four percent of teachers rated supervisory service as adequate or above.

6. Sixty-eight percent of instructional supervisors had grade level responsibilities from primary through one or more high school grades.

7. Eighty percent of instructional supervisors held a master's degree plus 30 additional graduate hours.

8. Fifty-five percent of instructional supervisors were at least 46 years old.

9. Instructional supervisors considered task performance higher than teachers.

10. There was more consensus between the supervisors and principals than between supervisors and teachers on the practices of elementary supervisors of instruction.

Another study on the duties and responsibilities of school supervisors was conducted by Smith (1971) in West Virginia. Smith determined and evaluated the normal duties of school supervisors through a questionnaire. Smith concluded that 68% of school supervisors in the study considered program planning, instruction, resources, and evaluation to be the main duties. The majority of the school supervisors in Smith's study recommended the role of school supervisors be more clearly defined. Smith noted

that only two school districts used in the study had written job descriptions for school supervisors.

Valentine et al. (1980) also studied the tasks and responsibilities of supervisors. However, Valentine determined the tasks and responsibilities of local vocational directors at secondary school districts' levels in Colorado. Valentine et al. determined the perceptions of local directors of secondary school districts and their immediate supervisors regarding the administrative tasks and responsibilities that the local director should hold.

Through a questionnaire, Valentine et al. concluded there was strong agreement between vocational directors at secondary school districts' levels and their immediate supervisors concerning administrative tasks that a local vocational director should perform. Thus, a position guide was developed from the data analyzed by Valentine.

Copeland (1980) reported that the role of instructional supervisors tended to be either directive or nondirective. Directive supervisors influenced teachers by giving personal opinions and suggestions. Whereas, nondirective supervisors reflected the teachers' ideas and offered new information only if asked. Nondirective supervisors encouraged teachers to take responsibility for making and evaluating instructional decisions. Copeland conducted a study in California where student teachers viewed both types of supervisors. Copeland concluded that the student teachers

favored directive supervision. Thus, Copeland inferred that new or beginning teachers preferred more direction from instruction supervisors than competent, experienced teachers would.

The relationship among the perceptions of supervisory behavior as observed by teachers, supervisors, and principals, was the topic of a dissertation by Stewart (1969). Stewart replicated a 1965 study done in Maryland. Thus, Stewart compared data between elementary teachers, supervisors, and principals in Maryland in 1965 and 1968. Stewart determined that perceptions held by Maryland teachers, supervisors, and principals had not changed significantly between 1965-1968. However, different views on line-staff relationships as related to the supervisory role between teachers and supervisors was reported.

Lovell and Phelps (1977) conducted research in Tennessee to determine the perceptions of teachers, principals, and supervisors concerning the instructional support system. Lovell and Phelps used representative samples for teachers and principals and the total population of supervisors. A questionnaire developed by Margaret Phelps was used. Lovell and Phelps noted that 82% or more of the supervisors said they usually provided the following services when needed:

1. Providing instructional materials

2. Involving teachers in district-wide instructional programs

3. Planning in-service activities

4. Consulting with teachers on instructional problems

5. Dispensing information

6. Serving as a two-way communications link with the central office.

7. Helping describe and analyze instructional process

8. Helping define instructional objectives

9. Helping select appropriate instructional activities

10. Informing teachers of professional growth activities available

11. Aiding in development of curricula

12. Facilitating good human relations within school and community

13. Providing psychological support

14. Suggesting new ideas and approaches for instruction. (pp. 11, 12)

In most support services for teachers, supervisors reported heavy involvement. Supervisors noted little involvement in demonstrations, discipline of students, or students' evaluations. Supervisors were not participating in research activities. However, supervisors implied a desire to increase all supervisory support services. Even

though supervisors indicated heavy involvement in most support services for teachers, teachers declared that instructional supervisory support services were not provided when needed. Teachers, too, wanted an increase in supervisory support services. Furthermore, principals also desired an increase in supervisory support services.

Lovell and Phelps' (1977) study showed that even though teachers, principals, and supervisors agreed that an increase in supervisory support services was needed, there were differences in perceptions as to the degree of supervisory support services provided at that time. In fact, supervisors reported that while being heavily committed to providing support for teachers and evaluating and hiring teachers, observation of teaching with pre-observation and post-observation conferences received only moderate commitment. Therefore, Lovell and Phelps concluded that principals in Tennessee conducted the supervisory tasks of observing teachers and scheduling conferences. Furthermore, the purpose of observations was for the evaluation of teachers, not for instructional improvement. Thus, Lovell and Phelps declared that teachers received inadequate supervisory support services. Lovell and Phelps' research revealed that conferences were unplanned and haphazard.

Even though teachers received inadequate supervisory support services in some areas, Lovell and Phelps (1977)

emphasized that supervisory support services were adequate in other supervisory areas such as providing instructional materials, informing of professional growth activities, and evaluation for personnel decisions. As a result of this study, Lovell recommended that teachers, principals, and supervisors work together to improve instruction, develop curricula, and decrease the number of supervisory support services such as evaluation of teachers.

In 1971, Carman synthesized available research from 1955-1969 on the perceived roles and responsibilities of general supervisors and directors of instruction. Carman concluded that the main goal of supervisors was to coordinate efforts to improve instruction. This goal included the provision of educational leadership, good instructional environments, curriculum development, and in-service education.

In this study, Carman (1971) revealed the main responsibilities of general supervisors included coordinating in-service education, improving human relations, and giving consultative help and instructional services. The study revealed that the main responsibilities of directors of instruction included giving consultative help and instructional services and coordinating all instructional matters and in-service education.

Thus, Carman (1971) concluded that there was a high degree of consensus among perceptions of supervisors and

other individuals in the educational organization regarding the actual and ideal roles of supervisors. However, some of the literature since 1970 did not support Carman's findings. Some research pointed to many discrepancies in the perceptions of supervisors, teachers, and principals regarding the actual and ideal role of supervisors.

Research showed that supervisory roles were not clear. For example, Norman (1978) conducted a study to document the amount of agreement or disagreement that existed among Atlanta Public School administrators, with various personnel ranks, regarding the main responsibilities of the central and the area administrators in issues of personnel administration, curriculum development, and instructional supervision. Norman reported that there was disagreement among the administrators of their roles. Because decisions were not made to clarify the issue of proper delegation of primary responsibilities to central or area levels, joint responsibilities were held by the administrators at both levels. Norman emphasized the need for role clarification and fixation of responsibilities for specific activities at either the central or area level. Thus, Norman inferred that joint responsibility was not good for the organization. Joint responsibility created additional problems for administrators and supervisors in Atlanta.

The review of literature emphasized that supervisory roles should be clarified so that the main supervisory goal,

improvement of instruction, could be met. According to
Ritz, (New York, 1980), there were four factors that
teachers and supervisors identified as influencing
supervisory effectiveness. The factors were instructional
development, interpersonal supervisors, supportive
management, and sociable supervisors. However, teachers'
and supervisors' perceptions differed on the degree that
these factors were included in New York supervisory
programs. Teachers ranked supervisors higher in supportive
management and socializing than in instructional development
and being interpersonal. However, the perceptions of
supervisors were the opposite of teachers.

Madrazo and Motz (1982) reported that the role of
support personnel was under close observation by the public,
because public support for schools was low. The public
demanded accountability. Therefore, school systems hired
curriculum generalists instead of specialists because of
inflation and declining public support. The hiring of
curriculum generalists created additional problems for the
educational organizations in subject areas such as science.
Teachers with minors in science were assigned to teach in
this area; therefore, assistance was needed from specialists
(Beck et al., 1981 and Madrazo and Motz, 1982).

The National Science Teachers Association's Supervision
Committee used this background information as the basis for
a study on the perceived roles of science supervisors by 62

teachers (K-12), 24 administrators, and 30 other professionals. The participants ranked the roles of the science supervisors in the order that would be most beneficial. The perceived roles in order of preference were as follows: (a) instruction, (b) curriculum, (c) staff development, (d) implementation, (e) management, (f) assessment and assignment, (g) transfer, and (h) load.

Another study of teachers' perceptions of supervisory roles was conducted by Young (1975). Young's study revealed that 82% of the teachers sampled perceived a need for supervision and evaluation in schools. However, 70% of the teachers perceived supervisors as potentially dangerous. Therefore, 87% of the teachers wanted to be a participant in the evaluation process used to diagnose teaching performance.

As a result of this study, Young (1975) proclaimed that teachers viewed supervisors as evaluators rather than facilitators. Only 2% of the teachers viewed the main role of supervisors as that of an instructional leader. Thus, supervisors were seen as administrators managing the educational organization.

Walker and Hamm (1981) also investigated the role of curriculum workers as perceived by all public school superintendents in Indiana. This was a follow-up study to one done in 1968. The study provided data on the kind of curriculum workers in Indiana. The study revealed four

categories of elementary and secondary curriculum workers in Indiana: (a) general supervisor, (b) subject-matter supervisor, (c) special services supervisor, and (d) instructional media supervisor.

Several dissertations were completed during the 1970s-1980s on the role of the instructional supervisor. The studies included research done by Barber (1973), VanWinkle (1974), Lentini (1975), Douglass (1980), Besculides (1980), Spears (1980), Tuning (1980), Legrone (1982), and Glazer (1985).

Barber (1973) concluded that instructional supervisors were required to complete many tasks. Supervisors faced many unique situations where judgment had to be made. Supervisors could not rely upon a set of responses. Therefore, Barber inferred that if a situation took too much time or money it was easier for instructional supervisors to turn away and decide help was not needed. Supervisors were faced with fulfilling many roles.

VanWinkle (1974) determined the role perception of instructional supervisors in school districts within Florida with professional negotiations as compared to districts without professional negotiations. VanWinkle's sample consisted of 80 supervisors from each group. Perceptions of the role of instructional supervisors differed between the two groups. Supervisors in districts with professional negotiations placed less emphasis on curriculum and

instruction than supervisors in districts without professional negotiations. Furthermore, supervisors in districts with professional negotiations were less involved in supervisory activities, spent less time on activities to improve instruction, and identified more with administrators than supervisors in districts without professional negotiations. In addition, supervisors in districts with professional negotiations were more negative about the future of supervision than the other group.

Lentini's (1975) research had two purposes. First, Lentini determined what Georgia public school supervisors perceived as the critical behaviors of supervision. Then, Lentini determined what critical requirements were derived from perceived behavior responses of the supervisors.

Lentini (1975) included all Georgia public school supervisors in the study. From the demographic data, Lentini concluded that (a) 68% were female, (b) 65% were between the ages of 36 and 54, (c) 35% had two to five years supervisory experience, (d) 88% held at least a master's degree, (e) 66% were general supervisors, and (f) 90% were special subject supervisors.

From the data, Lentini (1975) grouped the critical requirements of supervision into five areas: (a) administration, (b) resources, (c) leadership, (d) professional growth opportunities, (e) curriculum development, and (f) improvement. Leadership ranked first

in requirements for supervision. After analyzing the data, Lentini concluded that Georgia's public school supervisors were perceived to be effective in most behaviors reported.

Douglass (1980) conducted research to determine Alabama superintendents and instructional supervisors' perceptions of the purposes of supervision and to clarify the role of the instructional supervisor. Douglass found that the main purpose of supervision for superintendents and instructional supervisors was perceived to be improvement of instruction. Superintendents and instructional supervisors' perceptions of the frequency with which supervisors performed and should perform supervisory activities related to curriculum development, provision of assistance, and coordination of effort differed significantly. Douglass inferred that role diffusion was a significant problem for instructional supervisors.

Douglass (1980) generalized that "instructional supervisors holding a doctorate were more likely to perform a variety of supervisory activities" (p. 5414A). Nevertheless, there was confusion between superintendents and instructional supervisors' perceptions on what instructional supervisors actually do and should do. Role expectations varied among superintendents and instructional supervisors.

Besculides (1981) investigated the relationship of role, personality, and integrative complexity as they

related to problem perception and decisions made by New York administrators and supervisors. Besculides' review of literature revealed that an individual's perception of situations was influenced by role (position) and personality. However, Besculides' data showed no significant relationship between the role (position) of an administrator or supervisor and the decisions made in routine matters. However, on matters requiring much thought, supervisors and administrators made very different decisions. Yet, supervisors and administrators who perceived problems in the same way made similar decisions.

Spears (1981) determined the agreement and disagreement held for the role of instructional supervisors, secondary principals, and secondary teachers in Louisiana. Spears concluded that there was no significant difference in the observed and the ideal role of supervisors as perceived by supervisors, principals, and teachers. However, supervisors, principals, and teachers indicated that the observed role did not constitute the ideal role of instructional supervision.

Tuning (1980) studied the role of the public school special education supervisor as defined by Public Law 94-142. Tuning also determined the perceptions of Virginia special education supervisors, special education teachers, and regular teachers of the handicapped concerning actual and ideal supervisory performance. Tuning noted

discrepancies between perceptions of special education supervisors regarding actual and ideal frequency of performance. There were discrepancies in 25 of 30 selected supervisory tasks. Supervisors performed 16 out of 30 tasks frequently and preferred to perform 18 of the tasks frequently. Special education teachers reported that supervisors only performed 6 of the 30 tasks frequently. Special education teachers preferred that supervisors perform 20 of the 30 tasks frequently. Regular teachers of the handicapped stated that supervisors frequently performed 8 of the 30 tasks. However, these teachers preferred that supervisors frequently perform 27 of the 30 tasks.

Tuning (1980) inferred that some of the discrepancies in perceptions of special education supervisors, special education teachers, and regular teachers of handicapped children on the role of public school special education supervisors was caused by lack of supervisors' time, inadequate supervisory staff, and policies and practices of superintendents. Therefore, Tuning reported that the role of special education supervisors needed to be restructured. Tuning indicated that Public Law 94-142 provided a basis for redesigning the special education administrative structure.

Legrone (1982) compared elementary teachers' perceptions of the supervisory role between four groups:
(a) non-tenured teachers with B certification,
(b) non-tenured teachers with advanced certification,

(c) tenured teachers with B certification, and (d) tenured teachers with advanced certification. Legrone drew the sample from Alabama. After analyzing the data, Legrone concluded there were no significant differences in teachers' perceptions of the supervisory role based on teaching experience or advanced training.

Glazer (1985) examined the perceptions of staff developers and their immediate superiors on the role of staff developers. Glazer found there was a significant difference in perceptions of staff developers and their immediate superiors regarding the degree of importance that adult learning theory had in the design of staff development learning activities. However, there was agreement in perceptions regarding communications. Both groups perceived internal communications to be the staff developer's role. Glazer inferred that further role clarification was necessary.

Additional dissertations were completed during the 1970s-1980s on the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors. Research was conducted by Carlton (1970), Esposito (1972), Rice (1974), Beach (1977), Anderson (1979), Afifi (1980), Barrick and Warmbrod (1981), Thomas (1981), Petska (1982), and Perrine (1984).

Carlton (1970) determined the ideal and actual role of instructional supervisor as perceived by elementary teachers and principals in Florida. Carlton also noted the

perceptions of teachers and principals regarding the purposes of supervision.

According to Carlton (1970), teachers and principals agreed that the purposes of supervision were to provide assistance, develop good human relations and communication and provide leadership. Principals added instructional improvement and coordination of efforts as other purposes of supervision.

Teachers and principals perceived significant differences in the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors. According to teachers and principals, actual responsibilities of instructional supervisors included (a) assisting in federal funded programs, (b) performing administrative duties, (c) forming policy, (d) developing in-service education programs, and (e) helping textbook selection committees. Whereas, teachers and principals felt the ideal responsibilities of instructional supervisors included (a) arranging in-service visitations, (b) locating, selecting, and interpreting materials for teachers, (c) orienting new and beginning teachers, (d) coordinating instructional programs, and (e) visiting classroms.

As a result of this study, Carlton (1970) recommended that the role of instructional supervisors be clearly defined and the purpose of supervision be explained to members of the educational organization. Furthermore,

Carlton recommended that role descriptions needed to match role expectation.

Esposito (1972) compared performed (actual) and preferred (ideal) supervisory tasks as perceived by all county general instructional supervisors in Florida and 15 experts from Florida's State Department of Education. Instructional supervisors ranked 10 supervisory tasks in terms of tasks supervisors performed and preferred to perform. Supervision experts ranked the 10 supervisory tasks in terms of each task's contribution to change in the instructional program. After analyzing the data, Esposito reported that there was no significant difference between the:

1. rankings of the actual tasks supervisors perform and rankings of the ideal tasks supervisors prefer to perform.

2. actual tasks supervisors perform and the tasks experts believe are most important in terms of their contribution to change in the instructional program.

3. ideal tasks supervisors prefer to perform and tasks which experts believe are most important in terms of their contribution to change in the instruction program. (pp. 4870-4871A)

Rice (1974) developed an instrument to collect data pertinent to the way general supervisors spent time and how

they preferred to spend time. Rice concluded that variables
such as age, sex, and degrees in supervision influenced
supervisors' perceptions regarding supervisors as change
agents. Rice also reported that general county supervisors
in North Carolina viewed many actual supervisory tasks to be
unimportant. General county supervisors wanted to spend
more time observing classrooms, conferring with teachers and
students, being change agents, and improving the
teaching-learning environment.

Beach (1977) conducted a study in Tennessee to
determine the supervisory needs of teachers and the degree
to which supervisory services filled those needs. Beach
asked 13 state leaders in instructional supervision to
provide the ideal instructional supervisory support
programs. Beach compared teachers, principals, and
supervisors' perceptions of the actual supervisory support
programs with the ideal program.

Beach's (1977) data revealed that teacher responses
were very different from supervisors, principals, and the
expert panel. Principal responses were closer to those of
the expert panel than to those of supervisors. Supervisor
responses were very similar to those of the expert panel.

Beach (1977) concluded that the supervisory support
system had failed the teachers in Tennessee. Modification

was needed, because data showed that improvement of instruction was not the highest priority with principals and supervisors. Furthermore, Beach inferred that teachers did not perceive observation and conferences as necessary in resolving instructional problems. Instructional planning was done with teachers instead of supervisors. Therefore, Beach concluded that "Tennessee supervisors had a role identification problem, in that they placed a higher priority on their administrative role than on their instructional role" (p. 5467A).

Anderson (1979) examined the status, actual and ideal duty perceptions, and problems of Mississippi public school instructional supervisors. Anderson reported that there was a significant difference between actual and ideal duties. Supervisors perceived that ideally duties should be performed more than they actually were performed. Therefore, Anderson recommended that educational leaders decrease the constraints to the supervisory process.

Afifi (1980) investigated the differences between the actual and ideal role perceptions of instructional county supervisors in Tennessee. Afifi reported that Tennessee instructional county supervisors were dissatisfied with their role in the overall improving teaching and learning process. Differences in actual and ideal role perceptions were found in regard to recommending staff, developing public relations, planning buildings with administrators,

planning innovative programs, and changing old programs. However, Tennessee instructional county supervisors viewed actual and ideal role performance to be similar in arranging in-service training, providing materials and facilities, attending professional meetings, and assisting the superintendent.

After analyzing the data, Afifi (1980) emphasized the role dissatisfaction of Tennessee instructional county supervisors. Thus, Afifi recommended that priorities for instructional supervisors be examined. Furthermore, Afifi saw the need for convergence of objectives, goals, and expectations for the role of instructional supervisors.

Barrick and Warmbrod (1981) compared the current role and expected role of state supervisors of vocational agriculture as expressed by secondary teachers and state supervisors of vocational agriculture. Barrick and Warmbrod found that state supervisors and secondary teachers had similar perceptions of the current and expected role of state supervisors of vocational agriculture. However, Barrick and Warmbrod recommended that the actual duties performed by state supervisors be determined.

Thomas (1981) determined the perceptions of Louisiana instructional supervisors concerning actual and ideal supervisory tasks. Out of 370 identified instructional supervisors, 288 participated in Thomas' study. From the demographic data, Thomas reported that the typical

instructional supervisor in Louisiana was white, married, male, and about 47 years old. The typical instructional supervisor had 14 years teaching experience. Furthermore, the typical instructional supervisor was a general supervisor with a master's degree plus additional hours.

Thomas' (1981) questionnaire revealed that there was a significant difference between actual and ideal tasks concerning 43 combined supervisory duties. Supervisors inferred that many supervisory tasks should be performed more frequently than they actually are performed.

Petska (1982) identified role perceptions and expectations for the state level supervisor of special education as indicated by special education directors, principals, district administrators, and special education teachers. Eleven role functions were identified for the state level supervisor of special education. Of these 11 functions, 6 were determined to be congruent between role perception and expectation; however, 5 functions were incongruent between role perception and expectation.

Perrine (1984) examined perceptions of elementary teachers and elementary science supervisors in New Jersey regarding the ideal process of supervision. From the review of literature, Perrine found 200 statements that identified the expected responsibilities of supervisors. Perrine categorized the statements and developed a questionnaire

with about 50 items. Perrine's demographic data included 15 variables.

Perrine (1984) concluded that teachers and supervisors disagreed more on ideal role expectations of supervision than on the actual supervisory practices; teachers expected more from supervisors than supervisors expected of themselves. Both groups agreed that science supervisors' leadership behavior was less than the ideal behavior.

Different perceptions of actual and ideal roles for instruction supervisors were reported by many researchers. Mosher and Purpel (1972) noted that "supervision in schools is most accurately defined as what the particular supervisor does or says he does" (p. 3). According to Perrine (1984), Harris remarked that even though supervision was one of the oldest forms of leadership in education, the role of instructional supervisors was very controversial.

The history of supervision revealed that the role of instruction supervisors had ranged from that of monitoring to that of directing (Eye and Netzer, 1975). During the Behavioral Era, most researchers agreed that the ideal role of instructional supervisors was to improve instruction. However, the review of literature implied that many instructional supervisors spend too much time on administrative tasks rather than supervisory tasks that improve instruction. Because perceptions by supervisors, principals, teachers, and superintendents on the role of

instruction supervisors differed, objectives and expectations also differed. Therefore, the result was role conflict.

Lucio supported the contention that for the objectives of the educational organization to be accepted, roles within the organization needed to complement each other (Lucio and McNeil, 1969). Every individual in the organization needed an understanding of expected behavior for the different roles within the organization (Biddle, 1966).

Wiles and Lovell (1975) suggested that perceptions regarding supervision differed greatly among teachers because of the different ways supervisors and teachers interpreted the role of instructional supervisors. However, when teachers and supervisors agreed on the ideal role of instructional supervisors, the performance of supervisors was often hampered by budget limitations, principals' philosophy or superintendents' philosophy (Perrine, 1984). Furthermore, instructional supervisors were faced with other problems such as the quality of teachers, teacher resistance, and unaccredited expertise (Mosher and Purpel, 1972).

The internal role conflict in educational organizations strengthened the contention of researchers that the role of instructional supervisors was not as literature said it should be. Sullivan (1982) reported Mitzberg's findings as follows: 98% of instructional supervisors' time was devoted

to managing the educational organization. Instructional supervisors spend at least 61% of the time in verbal communication, two thirds of this communication occurred face-to-face with one or two individuals. Instructional supervisors communicated verbally with subordinates 9% of the time and 14% of the time with teachers. Supervisors initiated 62% of the contracts. Technical work such as classroom observation and in-service education only accounted for 7% of supervisors' time. Whereas, 10% of instructional suspervisors' time was used in traveling. Mitzberg emphasized that instructional supervisors' work time was highly fragmented. Instructional supervisors were seldom able to finish a task during one work session.

Sullivan (1982) reported that the actual role of instructional supervisors was quite a contrast to the ideal role portrayed in literature. Supervisors were engaged in routine administrative duties rather than developing long-range plans and decision making. Furthermore, in-service education and instructional evaluation were not the center of the actual duties of instructional supervisors. The small amount of public relations that took place was not with the community, but internal to the educational organization.

According to Ritz (1980), Blumberg also wrote on the role conflict between instructional supervisors and teachers. Blumberg concluded that teachers disagreed with

supervisors regarding the high value of supervisory support services.

After completing research in Tennessee on the role of instructional supervisors, Burch (1980) proposed that a redefinition of instruction supervisors' job expectations was needed. Burch reported that 59% of instructional supervisors' time was spent on roles to improve instruction. The study revealed 10 roles that took all of supervisors' time. Five roles were directly related to teachers and the instructional program. Those roles included (a) information and dissemination, (b) resource allocation, (c) training and developing, (d) observation and evaluation, and (e) motivation. However, five supervisory roles were named as important to the school function but limited in improving instruction. Those roles included (a) host ceremonial, (b) formal communications, (c) external contracts, (d) crisis management, and (e) maintenance. Therefore, supervisors implied that 20% more time needed to be spent in the five roles that helped improve instruction. Supervisors listed reasons why actual supervisory tasks differed from the ideal tasks. The list included "(a) too much paper work, (b) insufficient personnel, (c) externally imposed regulations, (d) inadequately prepared and uncooperative staff, (e) unclear job expectations, (f) limited resources, and (g) unexpected demands" (p. 637).

Mayo's (1983) dissertation examined supervisors' perceptions of role conflict and organizational climate. Mayo used these eight variables from Likert's Profile of Organization Characteristics to describe the organizational climate: "leadership process, communication making process, interaction system, goal setting and ordering process, control process, and performance goals and training process" (p 3173A).

After analyzing the data, Mayo (1983) reported that there was a significant difference between supervisors' perceptions of climate and role conflict. Mayo stated that role conflict was caused mainly by the communication process and goal setting process. Furthermore, organizational efficiency increased in a participatory climate. Thus, Mayo concluded that role conflict was best reduced through the communication process.

Gantt (1978) also studied role conflict. Gantt identified the causes of inter-role and person-role conflict among principals and supervisors in the public schools of Georgia. Gantt named 11 organizational conditions and nine personal characteristics as causes positively related to inter-role conflict. The Organizational Conditions were:

> Territoriality, Communication, Obstacles, Bargaining
> Approach, Frustrating Task Conditions, Line-Staff
> Relationship, Goal Incompatibility, Faculty Linkages,
> Role Ambiguity, Procedural Incompatibility,

Organizational Differentiation, and Asymmetrical

Interdependence. (p. 6431A)

The Personal Characteristics were:

Lack of Professional Trust, Lack of Personal Trust,

Lack of Openness, Flexibility vs. Rigidity, Democratic

vs. Authoritarian Behavior, Difference in Moral Values,

Difference in Reaction to Stress, Achievement vs.

Security Orientation, and Introversion  vs.

Extroversion.  (p. 6431A)

Gantt (1978) also revealed three organizational

conditions as causes positively related to person-role

conflict.  Those organizational conditions were

Incompatibility, Differences in Performance Criteria, and

Role Ambiguity.  In addition to the organizational

conditions, Gantt proclaimed that seven personal

characteristics positively related to person-role conflict.

Gantt identified those personal characteristics as Moral

Values, Differences in Religious Persuasion,

Professionalism, Job Dissatisfaction, Achievement vs.

Security Orientation, Democratic vs. Authoritarian, and

Flexibility vs. Rigidity.

In light of the data, Gantt (1978) named organizational

conditions and personal characteristics that positively

affected inter-role and person-role conflicts.  Gantt

recommended that clearer job descriptions be written for

principals and supervisors.

The review of literature revealed that a major cause of role conflict came from the abundance of undefined supervisory titles and positions. The following is according to Harris (1975):

Most of the literature on supervision of instruction makes the assumption that supervisory services will be provided by an individual, either a central office supervisor (with one of many titles) or a school principal (with many jobs but only one title) . . . A variety of titles can only add to the confusion about supervisor responsibilities when used without clearly differentiating one from another in functional terms. (pp. 104, 105)

Harris (1985) also contended that positions were shaped by individuals not by titles. That is the reason authors defined the role of supervisors in general terms such as supporting and assisting rather than directing. Harris explained that supervision as an administrative duty was a controlling and coordinating device.

According to Glickman (1985), supervision was not an isolated task or person; it was a function carried on by many individuals within the educational organization. Titles of supervisors included consultant, coordinator, specialist, and director. Often, titles of supervisor and administrator were used interchangeably in educational organizations. Glickman noted that individuals with the

title of supervisors might spend time keeping records instead of working to improve instruction; whereas, other individuals with administrative titles, such as principals, might be directly involved with supervisory tasks of improving teaching and curriculum development.

Burch (1980) also wrote about the role confusion caused by supervisory and administrative titles. Burch described many supervisors as administrative aides and recommended that state agencies look into the actual duties of central office supervisors.

Several researchers noted the overlapping areas in the categorization of administration and supervision. Eye and Netzer (1965) explained that since 1876 and the Efficiency Orientation, the relationship of supervision and administration has changed and functions have expanded. Eye and Netzer stated that the relationship of supervision and administration was as follows:

1. Supervision is a phase of administration.

2. Supervision is that phase of administration which has particular pertinence for the expectations (products) of teaching and learning activities.

3. Supervision is concerned with the selectivity of instructional expectations. (p. 13)

According to Eye and Netzer (1965), Campbell and Gregg classified administrative functions as decision making, planning, organizing, communicating, influencing,

coordinating, and evaluating. Like Eye, Campbell and Gregg defined supervision as one phase in the total area of administration. Campbell and Gregg concluded that supervision had a rightful place in each of the administrative functions; however, the amount of supervisory involvement varied from function to function.

Regardless of titles, line and staff relations designated the two areas of position and function of administrators and supervisors. According to Lucio and McNeil (1969),

> The functions of school supervision have been patterned after those in industry and the military which make a distinction between staff functions and line functions. Line officers are those who have the right to make decisions, to take action in order to get things done, and to exercise necessary control over others assigned to them. Staff officers are those whose main job is helping the line officers decide what to do as well as coordinating the efforts of all and supplying necessary services. (p. 26)

Thus, instructional supervisors are staff officers. Supervisors are not administrators, but administrators are supervisors to a certain degree (Gwynn, 1969).

Research revealed that the existence of many supervisory titles was the result of social necessities and the increasing complexity of the educational organization.

Therefore, the title supervisor referred to all individuals who gave supervisory services--supervising principals, assistant principals, department heads, deans, specialists, consultants, coordinators, master teachers, and others (Lucio and McNeil, 1969; Marks et al., 1971; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Eye and Netzer, 1975; Glickman, 1985).

Ferguson (1976) studied the role of elementary instructional supervisors (K-8) in Louisiana as perceived by instructional supervisors, principals, and teachers. Ferguson found that individuals in supervisory capacities who held other titles than supervisor scheduled classroom observations more frequently than either general or specific area supervisors. Ferguson also concluded that general supervisors made unscheduled classroom observations more often than specific area supervisors or others.

Beach (1977) concluded that many individuals with the title of supervisor had a role identification problem. Beach reported that the role identification problem was obvious, because many supervisors placed higher priority on administrative tasks than on instructional tasks.

Capps (1977) conducted a study in North Carolina designed to determine if gender influenced an individual's ability to obtain a higher title in the educational organization. Capps reported the following:

1. North Carolina male supervisors and assistant superintendents tended to have higher degrees and higher levels of certification than female supervisors.

2. Men concentrated in administrative areas for master's degrees. Women concentrated in supervision and specific subject areas.

3. Male supervisors and assistant superintendents had more experience as administrators than female supervisors.

4. Female supervisors had more years in the classroom than male supervisors and assistant superintendents.

5. Women missed more work than males.

6. Men entered the profession to obtain an administrative position. Whereas, three fourths of the women entered profession with teaching as the goal.

7. Women were less geographically mobile relative to job advancement.

8. Males had applied for jobs with greater frequency than had female supervisors.

9. Males were assigned administratively oriented job responsibilities more frequently than women. (p. 1140A)

Capps (1977) concluded that there was little evidence to indicate that gender influenced an individual's ability to obtain a higher title in the educational organization in North Carolina. However, Capps added that "one is not justified in concluding that there is no evidence of discrimination (of females) on the basis of sex" (p. 1140A).

Thus, research emphasized that supervisors, regardless of gender, were required to be knowledgeable and have inter-personal and techinical skills (Glickman, 1985). Marks et al. (1971) declared the following:

> Today's supervisor faces a task--a challenge--that demands that he or she be both creative in the approach and competent in the knowledge of the skills and techniques employed by successful colleagues in their practice of the art and science of supervision.
> (p. xv)

According to Alfonso et al. (1975), Mann stated that supervisors needed to develop competence in three general areas: technical, human, and administrative. Mann identified this as the "skill-mix" which was comparable to Katz' trifold definition of administration that included human, technical, and conceptual skills (p. 8).

The need for skill-mix presented another cause of role conflict. Some instructional supervisors were not trained for supervisory work. Therefore, those supervisors took the "cookbook approach" to supervision (Wynne, 1981, p.377). As

a result, teachers did not receive the supervisory support services that were needed to improve the teaching-learning process.

"Supervision requires a super vision--a superior perspective attained by special preparation and position" (Lucio and McNeil, 1969, p. vi). However, many supervisors did not receive the special preparation or evaluation needed to perform the supervisory role satisfactorily or to decrease role conflict within the educational organization.

Several studies investigated the preparation and evaluation programs for supervisors. Research on these topics was conducted by Crowder (1973), Barber (1973), Reimer (1974), Street (1975), Ferguson (1976), and educational leaders who met in South Korea (1980).

Crowder (1973) investigated the appraisal systems of administrators and supervisors in the public schools of Virginia. Crowder found that only 20% of the school divisions actually evaluated administrators and supervisors. Only 56% of the divisions had written policies on the evaluation of administrators and supervisors. Most administrators and supervisors were evaluated by immediate supervisors. The evaluators identified areas in which improvement was needed and assessed the evaluatee's performance in regard to prescribed standards. Crowder recommended that multiple appraisers be used to evaluate

administrators and supervisors. Crowder also emphasized the need for performance goals.

Another study in 1973, conducted by Barber, revealed that competency in certain areas made instructional supervisors more willing to assist teachers in situations requiring those talents. Barber also implied that instructional supervisors were more willing to help individuals who were similar to themselves.

Reimer (1974) described a two-phase training design for teaching dyadic supervisory interaction skills. Phase One was a fifteen-hour weekend laboratory session. The goal of Phase One was to increase self-awareness and self-acceptance. Phase Two included five weekly sessions to develop attending behavior skills. Reimer concluded that participants were exposed to the training enough to accept the relevance of new behaviors. However, the exposure was not enough for internalization.

Street (1975) conducted research on school administration and supervisory preparation programs. Street recommended that more funds should be used from local, state, and federal levels for preparation programs. Street also recommended that more research be done to identify better methods of preparing administrators and supervisors for roles in the educational organization.

Ferguson (1976) insisted that professional services of supervisors were not being evaluated. Ferguson (1976)

reported that 31% of the supervisors in Louisiana reported never being formally evaluated.

In 1980, 11 countries (Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, South Korea, Sri Lanka, and Thailand) sent educational leaders to South Korea to discuss methods of training educational administrators and supervisors to be supportive of innovations in education. The leaders suggested that better pre-service and in-service training of administrators and supervisors were necessary. Thus, the leaders recommended establishing national administrative institutes of education and advanced level workshops (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1981).

Thus, the review of literature revealed that many factors influenced the actual role performance of instructional supervisors. Therefore, the actual role of instructional supervisors was not always congruent with the ideal role set forth in the literature for effective supervision.

The review of literature also revealed that supervisory activities were conducted by many individuals holding various titles within the organization. Glickman (1985) emphasized, "The secret of successful schools is not in finding the supervisor, but instead finding if supervision is functioning" (p. 2).

## The Leadership Role of Instructional Supervisors

The review of literature showed that a major function was neglected in the actual role of instructional supervisors. The neglected function was effective leadership. Therefore, the purpose of this section was to (a) define leadership in terms of supervisory effectiveness; (b) address the characteristics of educational change; and (c) summarize selected theories and studies of leadership and change as related to the supervisory role.

The importance of leadership in supervision was stressed by many researchers. Leadership was viewed as a corequisite of effective supervision. The requisites for good leadership included understanding ones place and function in the organization (Marks et al., 1971).

According to Eye (1975) the main purpose of leadership was to influence people. Furthermore, leadership resulted from actions not positions.

Wiles and Lovell (1975) agreed with Eye (1975) in that a status position did not guarantee leadership ability. Wiles and Lovell saw leadership as a group role. Leadership was exerted through effective participation in groups. Leadership was widespread and diffused in effective organizations. Thus, Wiles and Lovell described leadership qualities and followership as interchangeable. Wiles and Lovell also contended that leadership shifts in organizations from situation to situation.

According to Doll (1972) leadership was defined by Hemphill and Lipham as "the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives" (p. 14). Doll quoted a similar definition of leadership by Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer as "action of behavior among individuals and groups which assists them in moving toward goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable" (p. 14).

Peters and Austin (1985) compared management to leadership. Peters and Austin defined management as controlling, arranging, demeaning, and reducing. Whereas, leadership was defined as unleashing energy, building, freeing, and growing. Furthermore, effective leaders took pride in the organization and showed enthusiasm for its work.

Doll (1972) defined supervisory leadership as a function which helped a school achieve changing purposes. Some changes were oriented toward productivity, while others were oriented toward interpersonal relationships.

Mackenzie (1983) credited good leadership for school effectiveness. Effective instructional supervisors had high and positive expectations for the educational organization.

Promoting change and maintaining the status quo are the two functions of effective leadership. Harris (1985) stated that effective supervisors maintained and improved the

teaching-learning process. However, Harris added, "Current practice as a guide to better practice has more than enough deficiencies to caution the reader against prolonged study of the status quo. Still, to know where we are is helpful in charting a new and better course" (p. 104). Therefore, Harris recommended that supervisors promote both continuity and change.

Harris (1985) named two types of supervision--dynamic and tractive. Harris viewed dynamic supervision as directed toward change. Dynamic supervision upgraded, restructured, and redesigned instructional practices. Whereas, tractive suspervision maintained the status quo. Tractive supervision resisted, enforced, and codified instructional practices. Harris did not recommend one type of supervision over the other. Instead, Harris argued that both types of supervision are necessary for effective leadership in the educational organization.

Alfonso et al. (1975) commented on Lewin's theory of change. According to Lewis, change was difficult for many individuals because of driving forces that impelled one to change and restraining forces of equal strength that inhibited change. Lewin described these inter-feelings in the 'Quasi-Stationary Equilibrium Theory' (p. 162).

Nevertheless, Doll (1972) indicated that some change was necessary and instructional supervisors had major leadership tasks to perform. The major leadership tasks

were "(a) plotting directions for the school; (b) improving teaching, learning, and the curriculum; (c) improving the school as an organizational unit; (d) providing a climate for personal and professional growth; and (e) providing the best in human and material resources" (p. 130).

Mackenzie (1983) looked at the dimensions of effective schooling and revealed that leadership was the core element. Effective leaders provided a positive climate and had clear, attainable, and relevant goals for the organization. Teachers directed classroom decision making. Furthermore, in-service staff training was provided for effective teaching. There was obvious district-level support for school improvement.

In addition, effective supervisory leadership tasks in public schools included (a) seeking new ideas and procedures used in teaching, (b) finding better applications of learnings about children, (c) employing quality teachers, (d) conferring with people, (e) developing helpful in-service education programs, and (f) developing better evaluation systems (Doll, 1972). Another important task of supervisory leaders, according to Eye and Netzer (1965), was evaluating trends in the social, economic, physical, and ethical environment regarding effects upon the instructional program.

Lucio and McNeil (1969) stated, "The common dimension of supervision--found in all positions of leadership--is the

ability to perceive desirable objectives, and to help others contribute to this vision and to get in accordance with it" (p. 21). Hull (1981) stated that it was necessary to understand all of the roles involved in the educational organization. Hull added that major changes in the educational organization involved many individuals; therefore, the responsibility of change was not the responsibility of any one person.

Nevertheless, Harris (1985) argued that supervisory leaders were charged with stimulating and facilitating change in instructional improvement through curriculum development and workshops. Furthermore, Mosher and Purpel (1972) added that supervision was not adequate unless it gave leadership in facility structures and conditions.

Lovell and Phelps (1977) commented that effective instructional supervisors facilitated the process of change by helping teachers obtain new ideas. However, Mosher and Purpel (1972) insisted that supervisory leadership was less than adequate in the area of curriculum innovation. According to Mosher and Purpel, "The major factor which is lacking in the hallmark of valid supervision is leadership" (p. 206).

According to Tanner (1984), A Nation at Risk, the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, supported Mosher and Purpel's (1972) contention that leadership was lacking in curriculum innovation. Thus,

the report called for curriculum reforms in public schools. Other such studies of the 1980s recommended curricular reforms. Mest recommended a common core of studies for the public schools. The Action for Excellence, developed by the Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, inferred that industrial leaders would show educational leaders the effective management techniques.

Little (1982) stated, "By celebrating the place of norms of collegiality and experimentation, we place the related matters of school improvement, receptivity to staff development, and instructional leadership squarely in an analysis of organizational setting: the school as a workplace" (p. 339). Young (1975) emphasized that meaningful changes took place in the educational organization when there was a concerted effort by all educational leaders.

However, Eye (1975) contended that the role of instructional supervisors was to promote an orderly continuity of change. There was a consensus among researchers that change was inevitable. However, planned change for the improvement of instruction was encouraged.

According to Lipham (1985), Getzels described educational change as a complex phenomenon. However, he noted that there were three types of change existing in the education organization--"enforced, expedient, or essential" (p. 107).

Harris (1985) supported planned change, because it offered direction and a rate of change. However, Harris noted that planned change was not the only type of change apparent in the educational organization. Other types of change included functional, personnel, physical, rule, and organizational.

According to Eye and Netzer (1965), Bennis also rated planned change as the most effective type of change. Bennis stated that the other types of change were "indoctrination, coercive, technocratic, interactional, socialization, emulative, and natural" (p. 63).

Glickman (1985) noted that Hall described three levels of teachers' thoughts of innovations. The first level was that of orientation concerns. Teachers wanted to know what the innovation was and why the innovation was needed. The second level was that of integration concerns. Teachers were interested in the new idea and wanted to know how to implement it. The third level was that of refinement concerns. Teachers tried the innovation and wanted to make it better.

Lipham et al. (1985) cited similar phases of change. The phases were awareness, initiation, implementation, routinization, refinement, renewal, and evaluation.

Alfonso et al. (1975) stated that when planning for change, educational leaders should apply Dewey's scientific method. Dewey's scientific method called for becoming aware

of the problem, defining the problem, evaluating all possible solutions, and experimental verification.

Even though researchers concluded that some change was necessary in healthy organizations, problems with change were also described. Harris (1985) explained three fallacies about change that are in the educational organization. The administrative fallacy assumed that if there was no apparent friction and communications were going through proper channels, the organization had no problems. The white-hat fallacy assumed that if there were some positive results, the organization was successful. The morale-building fallacy assumed that morale had to be steady or improving at all times, or the organization had problems.

Knezevich (1984) remarked that there was greater resistance to change when traditional values were threatened. Therefore, the change process slowed. According to Knezevich, Carlson listed three barriers for the slow rate of change in the educational organization. The barriers were "(a) absence of a change agent, (b) a weak knowledge base, and (c) domestication of the public school" (p. 106).

Doll (1983) explained Vroom's theory of change. According to Vroom's Expectancy Theory, the change process progressed more rapidly when individuals believed given levels of performance were possible in attaining set goals. The motivation was to improve performance. Thus, the

rewards came to individuals who reached goals. Providing inducements was the responsibility of the supervisors.

Regardless of the type of change or rate of change, researchers indicated that problems with change should be anticipated. Lipham et al. (1985) suggested that educational leaders pay close attention "to sources of innovations, motivators for change, time required, financial resources, community support, staff training, and the quality of the change program" (p. 120).

Another problem of change as presented by Lucio and McNeil (1969) came from the Organizational Theory. This theory indicated that school innovations were borrowed instead of invented. Educational innovations included direct imitation or the hiring of new personnel.

LaTour (1986) explained that one major problem with educational innovations was the lack of linking agents. LaTour implied that supervisors were not fulfilling this leadership role. Awareness of the processes of planned educational change was needed.

Young (1975) agreed with LaTour regarding the need for individuals to understand the processes of educational change. Through research, Young concluded that teachers who were exposed to the entire supervision-evaluation process tended to accept innovative approaches to the supervisory process.

Research revealed that individuals were apprehensive of educational innovations. Tanner (1984) explained the following:

> Innovations have been promoted and discarded segmentally like fads and fashions--instructional television, teaching machines and programmed instruction, modular-flexible scheduling, independent study, mastery learning, and soon . . .New mathematics and open classroom reforms have been adopted and discarded. (p. 5)

Furthermore, emphasis was placed on the gifted and talented, mathematics and science programs, disadvantaged, then back to the gifted (Tanner, 1984). Educational emphasis and innovations created a cycle.

Cogan (1973) declared that many educational innovations were discarded before they had a chance of success. Furthermore, teachers did not get enough help when innovations were adopted. Cogan stated, "The kind of precise help the situation demands will NOT be delivered by scatter-shot supervision amounting to little more than sporadic visits followed by some global comments" (p. ix). Cogan concluded, "Teachers are better left alone than merely tampered with" (p. 15).

Cogan (1973) declared that problems developed with innovations, because innovations were not properly examined before being adopted. Thus, educational fads occurred and

faded. Another major problem according to Cogan was that innovations were not tested; they were promoted by educational leaders. Then, innovations were given to teachers to implement without proper resources or training. Thus, according to Lucio and McNeil (1969), many innovations are dropped because they are not objectively evaluated. Developing systematic ways to check the results of innovations was a task that instructional supervisors neglected.

Lucio and McNeil (1969) inferred that change occurred when an innovation was accepted throughout the educational organization. Thus, acceptance was the hardest part of change. Marks et al. (1971) insisted that individuals were instinctively resistant to change. For the most part, individuals were conservative. That was the reasons that many educational leaders' innovations failed; individuals were not given enough time to adjust to the new ideas. The innovations were pushed on individuals within the organization for implementation too quickly. According to Pretzner (1984), Naisbitt noted that one of the megatrends in organizations was the shift from representative democracy to participatory democracy. Thus, individuals must be a part of the process of arriving at decisions that affect their lives (p. 23).

Thus, Lipham et al. (1985) said that many factors influenced successful implementation of an innovation:

1. Quality of the change program

2. Degree that change program addresses needs of individuals of the organization

3. Advantages of the change

4. Staff understanding of the change program

5. Degree of threat of the change

6. Change program divided into manageable parts

7. Success of change implementation in other schools

8. Evaluation of the change

In addition, Harris (1985) concluded that the success of change was determined by "the directions, quality, rate, and side effects that characterized the change" (p. 21).

Even though planned change was sometimes difficult to implement in the educational organization, effective supervisory leaders took risks and made many good ideas work to improve instruction. However, Mosher and Purpel (1972) remarked that it was easier to criticize existing teaching-learning processes than to propose alternatives. Mosher and Purpel implied that most supervisory leaders were quiet on both issues.

However, Harris (1975) emphasized that supervision in its more dynamic form provided instructional leadership. Therefore, theories and studies of leadership were very important in the field of supervision. Doll (1983) and Wiles and Lovel (1975) also noted that a good understanding

of leadership styles better enabled instructional supervisors to perform the supervisory roles.

As well as an understanding of leadership styles and change processes, researchers (Marks et al., 1971) indicated that sources of leadership power also influenced the roles of instructional supervisors. Furthermore, leaders gained power by inheritances, seizures, or appointments.

Leaders used power to promote change in different ways. Eye and Netzer (1965) referred to <u>Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior</u> (Bass, 1960) in which persuasive, coercive, and permissive leadership styles were presented. Persuasive leaders understood individuals' behaviors and influenced those behaviors. Coercive leaders controlled the behavior of other individuals through the superior-subordinate relationship. Permissive leaders persuaded individuals to change goals so that organizational and individual goals were congruent. Eye and Netzer concluded that instructional supervisors needed to use all three types of leadership depending upon the situation.

Glickman (1985) referred to four strategies that a change agent could use according to Zaltman and Duncan (1977). The strategies--power, persuasive, reeducative, facilitative--were similar to those presented by Bass in 1960 (Eye and Netzer, 1965). Leaders who used the power strategy rewarded and punished individuals by exerting formal authority. Leaders who used the persuasive strategy

used logic to convince other individuals to change. Leaders who used the reeducative strategy presented individuals with new information and asked the individuals to think about the new ideas presented. Leaders who used the facilitative strategy served as helpers and removed obstacles after the group decided on a plan of action.

Doll (1972) also agreed that leaders could influence individuals' performance in different ways. Thus, Doll elaborated on four strategies purposed by Irving Knickerbocker (1948). The strategies were labeled force, paternalism, bargaining, and mutual means. With force, leaders used status to get change. With paternalism, leaders taught individuals to regard them as father figures with all the right answers. With bargaining, leaders and individuals helped each other. With mutual means, leaders and individuals shared the same aims and goals.

Doll (1983) said that change occurred for different reasons. Individuals' behavior changed because of fear, competition, leaders' influence, or personal advantage. Harris (1985) included incentives, fear, needs, new concepts, and the reality structure as reasons for change. Regardless of the reasons for change, Doll emphasized, "Supervisors do not change teachers. Teachers change themselves within stimulating environments that supervisors help to provide" (p. 117).

Eye and Netzer (1965) identified types of supervisory leadership as proposed by Bartky (1953) and Ayer (1954). The leadership list included (a) autocratic, (b) inspectional, (c) representative, (d) democratic, (e) invitational, (f) creative, and (g) scientific.

Lipham et al. (1985) explained that there were four theoretical approaches to understanding leadership. The four theoretical approaches were (a) psychological, (b) sociological, (c) behavioral, and (d) contingency.

The psychological approach to understanding leadership, according to Lipham et al. (1985), assumed that individual behavior was determined by a unique personality structure. This approach tried to identify and define leaders' traits. Thus, the following statements were derived from this theory: (a) "Leaders are born not made; (b) Nature is more important than nurture; and (c) Instinct is more important than training" (p. 10).

Lipham et al. (1985) explained that the sociological approach to understanding leadership dealt with studying roles and relationships. The sociological approach was concerned with the group's size, intimacy, and homogeneity of individuals, position, participation, and so forth. Permissive, persuasive, and emergent leadership concepts were derived from this theoretical approach.

The behavioral approach, according to Lipham et al. (1985), was a combination of psychological and sociological factors which determined leadership behavior. The behavioral approach focused on the leaders' observed behavior in given situations. The leaders did not give leadership roles to others.

According to Lipham et al. (1985), several theories of leadership developed from the behavorial approach. Halpin and Winer developed the Behavior Description Questionnaire to study leadership behavior. Halpin and Winer's questionnaire looked at leaders' abilities in developing structure in the group and giving consideration to group members.

Another theory of leadership, according to Lipham et al. (1985), was introduced by Getzels and Guba using the behavioral approach. Getzels and Guba (1957) developed the social systems model which considered three factors in leadership--nomothetic, idiographic, and transactional. The nomothetic factor stressed the roles and goals of the institution. The idiographic factor stressed the psychological or individual needs of group members. The transactional factor emphasized both the nomothetic and idiographic.

Lipham et al. (1985) also stated that the four-factor theory of leadership, proposed by Lipham and Ranklin (1982), was developed from the behavioral approach. The four

factors or types of leadership behavior included
(a) structural, (b) facilitative, (c) supportive, and
(d) participative. Structural leadership took action on
important decisions, stressed organization's goals, and
established positive relations. Facilitative leadership
obtained resources, offered suggestions, and reduced
paperwork. Supportive leadership expressed trust, rewards,
and encouragement. Participative leadership encouraged
open-mindedness, sought input, and involved members in
decision-making process.

The fourth theoretical approach that Lipham et al.
(1985) included about leadership was the contingency
approach. The contingency approach focused on the
characteristics of leaders and situations. According to
Lipham et al., contingency approach theories of leadership
were proposed by House and Mitchell (1974), Hersey and
Blanchard (1977), and Fiedler (1974).

Lipham (1985) stated that House and Mitchell (1974)
developed a path-goal relations theory. The personal
characteristics of individuals in the group and
environmental factors influenced leaders' behaviors.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977), according to Lipham
(1985), described leadership adaptability. Leaders
responded to contrasting situations within the
organizations. The varying task achievements and group
relationships influenced leadership behavior. Assessment

centers were established for administrators and supervisors in leadership roles.

Another theory presented by Lipham (1985) of that of Fiedler (1974) was that Fiedler proposed that there was a very important relationship between leaders and groups. Fiedler contended that an organization's success depended upon how well the characteristics of leaders were notched with characteristics of the groups. Alfonso (1975) commented that, according to Fiedler, the task determined the leadership style. Furthermore, one leadership style is not effective in all situations. Doll (1972) concluded that a successful leader in one group was not always a successful leader in the next group.

Doll (1983) presented McGregor's X and Y theory of leadership. McGregor believed that supervisors were either X or Y leaders. The Theory X leaders viewed individuals as lazy and irresponsible. Therefore, the individuals had to be controlled and threatened. However, the Theory Y leaders thought that individuals were responsible and liked to work. Therefore, the Y leaders encouraged creativity and ingenuity in the organizations.

Doll (1972) explained the leadership theory of Lewin, Lippitt, and White. Lewin, Lippitt, and White contended that there were three types of social leadership climates--authoritarianism, democratic, and laissez-faire.

Later, bureaucratic and charismatic climates were added to the list.

According to Doll (1972), the main difference in those climates was the manner in which decisions were made. In authoritarianism climates, the decisions were made by one individual or a very small group of individuals. In democratic climates, decisions were made as a group. In laissez-faire climates, there was total individual freedom; therefore, group decisions were seldom made. In bureaucratic climates, the organization was very structured, and decisions were made according to ones status. In charismatic climates, leaders possessed personal charm; therefore, individuals' decision making was influenced by the leaders.

Peters and Austin (1985) presented yet another theory for effective leadership. According to Peters and Austin, leadership included listening, facilitating, teaching, and reinforcing values. Peters and Austin encouraged leaders to keep in touch with individuals in organizations by face-to-face coaching. Therefore, Peters and Austin contended that Managing By Wandering Around (MBWA) was the best way to communicate with individuals and to keep abreast of all problems within the organizations. Furthermore, Peters and Austin stressed that leaders exist at every level in the organizations. Therefore, Peters and Austin

emphasized that effective leaders, at every level, wander around and use common sense in relating to individuals.

Several studies have been conducted concerning organizational change and supervisory leadership roles. Some selected studies were conducted by Esposito (1972), Austin (1972), Johnson (1972), Berchiell (1974), and Reavis (1977).

Esposito (1972) used the Getzels-Guba Model of Social Behavior to assess the leadership behavior of instructional supervisors as related to the change process. Esposito concluded that the more dogmatic supervisors did not support or encourage change.

Austin (1972) completed a dissertation on the functions and behaviors of instructional supervisors. Austin compared supervisory functions and behaviors to those of others in educational leadership positions. As a result, Austin concluded that a model for instructional supervisory behavior was needed for the supervisory preparation programs.

Johnson (1972) designed an instrument to assess supervisory behavior of general instructional supervisors in Florida. Johnson used a questionnaire which listed 129 statements that were categorized into 11 supervisory roles. General supervisors, experienced teachers, and supervisory experts completed the questionnaire. After analyzing the data, Johnson concluded that views regarding the role of the

general supervisors were different among the three groups. Thus, Johnson recommended that the role of general supervisors be studied farther to determine the most important aspects of the leadership role in improving curriculum and instruction.

Berchielli (1974) developed an instrument to assess the leadership behaviors of supervisors and graduate students in educational supervision. Berchielli sought·to assess the following: (a) democratic-autocratic, (b) staff-line, (c) good-poor human relations, and (d) decentralized-centralized. Berchielli called the model The Supervisory Situation Reaction Test. The test contained 40 problems regarding supervisory situations. Each problem offered four suggested solutions. According to Berchielli, the test offered a four-dimensional behavior profile.

Reavis (1977) did research regarding supervisory leadership and the change process. Reavis concluded that a participatory, democratic leadership style was more effective in the change process. However, Reavis revealed that recent studies showed that supervisors were using authoritarian leadership styles.

Thus, the review of literature suggested many factors that affect the change process and many different theories of leadership. Most researchers agreed there was not one best leadership style.

The review of literature also revealed that leadership was an important part of the supervisory role. However, researchers indicated that this function was being neglected by instructional supervisors.

## Summary

Chapter 2 consisted of a review of literature pertinent to development of the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors. The chapter included three sections: (a) The History of Instructional Supervision, (b) The Roles of Instructional Supervisors, and (c) The Leadership Role of Instructional Supervisors.

The first section, The History of Instructional Supervisors, revealed the development of supervision from inspecting to facilitating. Selected theories and studies of instructional supervision were included.

The second section, The Roles of Instructional Supervisors, defined the actual and ideal roles, ideal expectations, and role conflicts of instructional supervision. Selected studies of the supervisory role indicated that many instructional supervisors were not performing ideal supervisory roles.

The third section, The Leadership Role of Instructional Supervisors, defined leadership and change as related to the supervisory role. The leadership role was emphasized

because the review of literature revealed that many instructional supervisors neglected this major role. Therefore, selected theories and studies on leadership and the change process were presented in relationship to the supervisory role.

The review of literature on the development of actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors offered some encouragement for the future of instructional supervision.

> There is no one pattern of instructional supervision to which an individual may conform with security. Supervisory effectiveness is a function of a multiplicity of factors. The key is to somehow identify and release variable human resources in the continuous effort for educational improvement. (Wiles and Lovell, 1975, pp. 305, 306)

Glickman (1985) also implied that uniform methods of supervising and teaching were undesirable. Glickman suggested that uniformity caused school-mindlessness and should not be the goal of future instructional supervisors.

Marks et al. (1971) called for better utilization of funds. According to Marks, the supervisory programs should spend more money to improve systems for staff development, goal setting, and instructional evaluation.

Eye (1975) was optimistic that future supervision will be viewed as a function instead of positions or individuals. Furthermore, supervisory leadership will become a more

active part of supervisory roles. Eye concluded that instructional supervisors will be known as experts instead of inspectors and evaluators.

DeRoche (1981) stated that instructional supervisory leaders face a challenge of enhancing human relationships while meeting the demands of society. However, Pratzner (1984) indicated that there was hope for the future of supervision. Pratzner said as long as the public and educational leaders felt there was a need for better supervisory programs, there was hope. According to Pratzner, Ferguson concluded, "Roles, relationships, institutions, and old ideas are being reexamined, reformulated, redesigned. We have begun to imagine the possible society" (p. 23).

# CHAPTER 3

## Methods and Procedures

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed in the perceptions of Virginia public school instructional supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for selected supervisory roles. To obtain the necessary data, a questionnaire was constructed based on selected supervisory roles revealed in the review of literature. Statistical tests were used to analyze the data in this descriptive study.

## The Questionnaire

The data for the study were collected by using a questionnaire which included a personal data sheet. The questionnaire utilized measurement of ordinal level. The instrument, which was designed by the researcher, was based on supervisory roles presented in related literature.

The questionnaire included seven supervisory roles. Participants responded by circling a number, one to five, to indicate the percentage of time each school year that they actually and ideally spent performing each of the selected supervisory roles. The personal demographic data sheet included six areas: current supervisory assignment, age, highest degree, graduate degree in supervision, title, and sex.

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The instrument's validity was established through a pilot study. One hundred instructional supervisors were randomly selected from the total target population to participate in the pilot study. The supervisors were then placed into two groups of 50. The first group of 50 was mailed the instrument and asked to complete an opinionnaire to evaluate each item on clarity and relevance. After two weeks, the data were analyzed by the researcher. There was a 60% return. However, out of the 30 returned opinionnaires only 25 were usable. Nevertheless, the first group offered many helpful suggestions for improving the questionnaire. Since relevance was rated acceptable by 92% or more of Group 1 on each item, the focus for improvement was on clarity.

Many suggestions were given for the improvement of items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7 on the questionnaire. In addition, 28% suggested that the time scale on the questionnaire be changed from minutes per week to percentage of time during the school year.

Thus, changes were made on the original questionnaire. The revised questionnaire and opinionnaire were mailed to the second group of 50 supervisors. After two weeks, there was a 66% return. Thirty of the 33 returned opinionnaires were usable. Thus, using the SPSS-X (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), the data were analyzed. Crosstabs were used. The responses of Group 1 on item clarity and relevance were compared to the responses of Group 2. The

results were given in percentages. The phi coefficient was also given for item clarity and item relevance as rated acceptable or unacceptable by Groups 1 and 2. The phi coefficient was low for all items on both clarity and relevance. Both groups rated the questionnaire acceptable each time. Yet, as indicated by the percentages, the suggestions given by Group 1 and the changes that followed improved the clarity rating given by Group 2. The only item that received a lower clarity rating was item 5. However, that item had not been changed on the second questionnaire since Group 1 rated it 100% acceptable on clarity.

The time scale was changed from minutes per week to percentage of time during the school year on the revised questionnaire. Ninety-seven percent of the second group found the time scale acceptable.

Thus, the pilot study improved the clarity of the instrument. Even though Group 1 rated some items (2, 5, 6, and 7) more relevant than did Group 2, both groups indicated that all seven items on the questionnaire were very relevant. The results of the pilot study are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Supervisory Role, n, Group, Phi Coefficient, and Percentage
that Rated the Clarity of the Supervisory Role Acceptable

|  | | Percentage | | Percentage | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | n | Group 1 | n | Group 2 | Phi |
| Curriculum development | 25 | 92 | 30 | 100 | 0.21280 |
| Staff development | | 84 | | 96.7 | 0.21939 |
| Program evaluation | | 80 | | 96.7 | 0.26620 |
| Providing resources | | 72 | | 93.3 | 0.28714 |
| Disseminating information | | 100 | | 86.7 | 0.25565 |
| Instructional leadership | | 88 | | 89.7 | 0.02626 |
| Administrative duties | | 80 | | 90 | 0.14123 |

Table 2

Supervisory Role, n, Group, Phi Coefficient and Percentage
that Rated the Relevance of the Supervisory Role as
Acceptable

|  | n | Percentage Group 1 | n | Percentage Group 2 | Phi |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Curriculum development | 25 | 96 | 30 | 96.6 | 0.01457 |
| Staff development |  | 100 |  | 93.3 | 0.17733 |
| Program evaluation |  | 96 |  | 96.7 | 0.01773 |
| Providing resources |  | 92 |  | 93.3 | 0.02557 |
| Disseminating information |  | 92 |  | 90 | 0.03464 |
| Instructional leadership |  | 95.8 |  | 86.2 | 0.16393 |
| Administrative duties |  | 96 |  | 83.3 | 0.20231 |

After the pilot study was completed, the questionnaire
was mailed to the participants selected for the study.
Participants ranked their perceptions of the percentage of
actual and ideal time allocated during the school year for
the seven identified supervisory roles with regard to a
scale of (1) 0-20%, (2) 21-40%, (3) 41-60%, (4) 61-80%, and
(5) 81-100%. The seven supervisory roles selected from the
review of literature were as follows:

    1. Curriculum Development includes developing and
       revising curriculum guides, developing courses of
       study, and organizing materials for instructional

use (Eye and Netzer, 1965; Marks et al., 1971; Smith, 1971; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; VanWinkle, 1974; Lentini, 1975; Young, 1975; Evans, 1976; Lovell and Phelps, 1977; Holder, 1978; Norman, 1978; Cawetti, 1980; Douglass, 1980; Ritz, 1980; Beck, 1981; Walker and Hamm, 1981; Madrazo and Motz, 1982; Purkey and Smith, 1982; Perrine, 1984; Glickman, 1985; Harris, 1985).

2. Staff Development includes planning and providing in-service education workshops, conferences, and seminars for professional development of personnal and teaching or arranging college credit classes, orienting new staff, and conferring with teachers about instructional programs (Gwynn, 1969; Carlton, 1970; Carman, 1971; Marks et al., 1971; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Rice, 1974; Ferguson, 1975; Evans, 1976; Lovell and Phelps, 1977; Holder, 1978; Afifi, 1980; Ritz, 1980; Beck, 1981; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982; Madrazo and Motz, 1982; Sullivan, 1982; Thomas, 1982; Doll, 1983; Perrine, 1984; Glickman, 1985; Guild, 1985; Harris, 1985).

3. Program Evaluation includes observing and conferring with teachers for purposes of improving instruction, suggesting new ideas for instruction, evaluating instructional programs, discussing instructional programs with administrators, and

reviewing and evaluating test data (Lucio and
McNeil, 1969; Carman, 1971; Marks et al., 1971;
Smith, 1971; Rice, 1974; VanWinkle, 1974; Eye and
Netzer, 1975; Ferguson, 1975; Wiles and Lovell,
1975; Young, 1975; Lovell and Phelps, 1977; Holder,
1978; Afifi, 1980; Burch, 1980; Douglass, 1980;
Ritz, 1980; Sullivan, 1982; Perrine, 1984; Harris,
1985).

4.  Providing resources includes locating, obtaining,
    and creating instructional support materials,
    providing instructional equipment, suggesting and
    promoting the use of physical and human community
    resources (Gwynn, 1969; Lucio and McNeil, 1969;
    Carlton, 1970; Smith, 1971; Wiles and Lovell, 1975;
    Young, 1975; Evans, 1976; Lovell and Phelps, 1977;
    Holder, 1978; Afifi, 1980; Burch, 1980; Douglass,
    1980; Harris, 1985).

5.  Disseminating Information includes explaining
    curriculum and instructional programs to community
    members and school staff, public relations
    activities, and internal and external school
    communications (Gwynn, 1969; Lucio and McNeil,
    1969; Carlton, 1970; Marks et al., 1971; Eye and
    Netzer, 1975; Young, 1975; Evans, 1976; Lovell
    and Phelps, 1977; Norman, 1978; Afifi, 1980;
    Burch, 1980; Ritz, 1980; Sullivan, 1982; Doll,

1983; Mayo, 1983; Perrine, 1984; Glazer, 1985; Guild, 1985; Harris, 1985).

6. Instructional Leadership includes planning, innovative instructional programs, updating or revising instructional programs, overseeing the implementation and evaluation of instructional programs, evaluating innovations, reading and reviewing professional journals (Eye and Netzer, 1965; Lucio and McNeil, 1969; Carlton, 1970; Carman, 1971; Marks et al., 1971; Esposito, 1972; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Rice, 1974; Alfonso et al., 1975; Ferguson, 1975; Wiles and Lovell, 1975; Young, 1975; Lovell and Phelps, 1977; Afifi, 1980; Hart, 1980; Sullivan, 1982; Perrine, 1984).

7. Administrative Duties includes managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, and assuming the administrative role of evaluating teachers for purposes of tenure, merit pay, renewal of contract, dismissal, etc. (Eye and Netzer, 1965; Gwynn, 1969; Carlton, 1970; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Alfonso et al., 1975; Ferguson, 1975; Lentini, 1975; Wiles and Lovell, 1975; Young, 1975; Beach, 1977; Lovell and Phelps, 1977; Holder, 1978; Anderson, 1979; Afifi, 1980; Burch, 1980; Cawetti, 1980; Ritz, 1980; Beck, 1981; Thomas, 1981; Madrazo and Motz, 1982; Sullivan, 1982).

## Sample

Using a table of random numbers, a simple random sample was selected from Virginia's public school instructional supervisors. The sample was limited to K-12 instructional supervisors. A list of supervisors was obtained from a school directory printed by Virginia's State Department of Education. The sample was drawn from the total 94 counties, 39 cities, and four town divisions in the state.

The total population was narrowed to 726 instructional supervisors. From the total population, 50% were randomly chosen to participate in the study. Thus, a total of 363 instructional supervisors were mailed questionnaires.

Two hundred twenty questionnaires (60.6%) of the 363 mailed questionnaires were returned. Only 12 of 220 returned questionnaires were invalid. Thus, the data from 208 questionnaires were transferred to tapes for statistical analysis.

The participants represented instructional supervisors K-12. There were 63 (30.3%) elementary supervisors, 35 (16.8%) secondary supervisors, and 110 (52.9%) supervisors indicating they were currently assigned to grades K-12. Data showing this distribution are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution for Current Supervisory Assignment, n, Percent

| Assignment | $n$ | Percent |
|------------|-----|---------|
| Elementary | 63 | 30.3 |
| Secondary | 35 | 16.8 |
| Other | 110 | 52.9 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

Supervisors were asked to indicate their age category as 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, or 60-69. There were no supervisors in the 20-29 age category. There were 30 (14.4%) supervisors in the 30-39 age category, 81 (38.9%) in the 40-49 age category, 83 (39.9%) in the 50-59 age category, and 14 (6.7%) in the 60-69 age category. Frequency distribution for these data is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution for Age Category of Supervisors, n,

Percent

| Age Category | n | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 20-29 | 0 | 0 |
| 30-39 | 30 | 13.4 |
| 40-49 | 81 | 38.9 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 39.9 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 6.7 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

Supervisors were also asked to indicate the highest degree that they held. There were only two (1%) supervisors who indicated their highest degree was a bachelor's degree. Therefore, this group was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. There were 120 (57.7%) supervisors whose highest degree was a master's degree. There were 46 (22.1%) supervisors whose highest degree was a specialist or equivalent degree. There were 40 (19.2%) supervisors who held a doctorate degree. Frequency distribution for these data is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution for Highest Degree, n, Percent

| Highest Degree | n | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Bachelor's | 2 | 1.0 |
| Master's | 120 | 57.7 |
| Specialist or Equivalent | 46 | 22.1 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 19.2 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

Supervisors were asked if they held a graduate degree in supervision. One hundred and thirty (62.5%) supervisors indicated that they did hold a graduate degree in supervision. Seventy-eight (37.5%) supervisors indicated that they did not hold a graduate degree in supervision. Frequency distrubition for these data is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution for Graduate Degree in Supervision,

n, Percent

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | n | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 130 | 62.5 |
| No | 78 | 37.5 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

Supervisors were asked to indicate their title as general supervisor, subject specialist, director, coordinator, or other. The distribution was as follows: general supervisor, 42 (20.2%); subject specialist, 57 (27.4%); director, 54 (26.0%); coordinator, 24 (11.5%); and other, 31 (14.9%). Frequency distribution for these data is shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution for Titles, n, Percent

| Title | n | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 20.2 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 27.4 |
| Director | 54 | 26.0 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 11.5 |
| Other | 31 | 14.9 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

The personal demographic data sheet also asked supervisors to indicate their sex. There were 107 (51.4%) male supervisors and 101 (48.6%) female supervisors. Frequency distribution for these data is shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution for Sex, n, Percent

| Sex | n | Percent |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Male | 107 | 51.4 |
| Female | 101 | 48.6 |
| Total | 208 | 100.0 |

Thus, the majority of supervisors in this study were males (51.4%) assigned both elementary and secondary grades (52.9%). The majority of supervisors were 50-59 (39.9%) or 40-49 (38.9%) years old. A majority of the supervisors held a master's degree (57.7%). Their graduate degree was in supervision (62.5%). The majority of the supervisors were subject specialists (27.4%). A wide variety of titles were presented.

### Data Collection

After permission was granted from the Institutional Review Board at East Tennessee State University to conduct the study, a packet was mailed to each participant. Each packet contained a cover letter assuring participants that individual and school names would not be revealed in the study, a coded questionnaire, a personal

data sheet, an information sheet from the Institutional
Review Board, and a stamped, addressed envelope.

The data were collected over a four-week period. The
target was a return of 50% of the questionnaires. A 60.6%
return was received. The collected data were statistically
analyzed at the East Tennessee State University Computer
Center.

## Data Analysis

The hypotheses were stated in research format in
Chapter 1. However, all hypotheses were tested in the null
format.

The East Tennessee State University Computer Center was
used in analyzing the data. Responses were recorded on
tapes.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used
to analyze the data for Hypotheses 1 through 7. The primary
assumptions of this test are (a) ramdomness, (b) ordinal or
interval level of measurement, and (c) related samples.
With the Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test, "the
magnitudes of score differences are ranked" (Champion, 1981,
p. 190). According to Champion (1981), an advantage of the
Wilcoxon test is that it can be applied to large numbers of
paired scores. Even though the Wilcoxon test is
nonparametric, "it is approximately 95% as powerful as the
t-test" (p. 190).

Another statistical test used to analyze data was the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test. The K-S test was used to analyze data for Hypotheses 29 through 35 and 43 through 49. "The primary assumptions of the K-S test are (a) ramdomness, (b) two independent samples, and (c) the ordinal level of measurement" (Champion, 1981, p. 270). The K-S test is approximately 85 to 90% as powerful as the t-test. The K-S test also deals effectively with tied scores. Furthermore, "it has no restrictive distributional assumptions such as normality, and it is probably regarded as one of the better nonparametric two-sample tests at the ordinal level of measurement" (Champion, 1981, p. 271).

Data for Hypotheses 29 through 35 and 43 through 49 were also analyzed using Somers' d. Somers' d is a measure of association that is used "for cross-tabulated data measured according to an ordinal scale" (Champion, 1981, p. 325). The absolute value of d gives the strength of the association between variables.

The data in Hypotheses 8 through 28 and 36 through 42 were analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis H, One-Way ANOVA Test. "The primary assumptions of the H test are (a) ramdomness, (b) the ordinal level of measurement, and (c) K independent samples" (Champion, 1981, p. 286). The H test is approximately 95% as powerful as the parametric F test for analysis of variance. The H test deals effectively with tied scores within and across groups. Therefore, the H test

was used to determine if significant differences existed somewhere among the K samples. However, when a significant difference was indicated by the H test, the Kologorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was applied to locate these differences. "There is no nonparametric equivalent to the Newman-Keuls or Scheffe procedures that would permit the researcher to make a single test of all significant group differences" (Champion, 1981, p. 286).

A .05 level of confidence was used to determine the level of significance. The data were derived from the 60.6% return of mailed questionnaires. Only 12 of the 220 returned questionnaires were invalid. Thus, the data from 208 valid questionnaires were analyzed.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X) was used in analyzing and interpreting the data. Computer printouts were provided, and data were arranged in tabular form for presentation in Chapter 4.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

This chapter included the methods and procedures used in this descriptive study. The instrument designed by the researcher was validated through a pilot study. It was then used to obtain information from selected public school instructional supervisors in Virginia regarding amounts of actual and ideal time used in selected supervisory roles. When an adequate return was received, the data were analyzed using the SPSS-X. The statistical tests used included the

Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test, Somers' d, and the Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test.

CHAPTER 4

Presentation of Data and Analysis of Findings

## Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if

differences existed in the perceptions of selected public

school instructional supervisors regarding the amount of

actual and ideal time allocated for identified supervisory

roles.   A questionnaire was developed and field tested using

randomly selected instructional supervisors in Virginia.

After improvements were made on the questionnaire, it was

mailed to 363 randomly selected instructional supervisors in

Virginia.   Data were gathered over a three-week period.   A

60.6% return of mailed questionnaires was received.   The

data were processed at the East Tennessee State University

Computer and Research Center using the SPSS-X program.

## Presentation and Analysis of Data

The hypotheses were stated in the research format in

Chapter 1; however, all hypotheses were tested in the null.

The data were analyzed using the SPSS-X computer program.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to

analyze the data for Hypotheses 1 through 7.   The

Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test and Somers' d were

used to analyze the data for Hypotheses 29 through 35 and 43

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through 49. The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data for Hypotheses 8 through 28 and 36 through 42. All 49 hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance using a two-tailed test. Hypotheses and the analyses were as follows:

## Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, z-score, and level of significance are shown in Table 9.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time was 39.50. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation for ideal time was 50.15. The Z-Score was -7.7551 which was significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors indicated that they would like to devote more time to curriculum development than they actually do. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development was rejected.

Table 9

N, Mean Ranks, Z-score, and Level of Significance Between
Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time
for Curriculum Development

| n | Mean Ranks | | | |
| | Actual | Ideal | Z-Score | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 199 | 39.50 | 50.15 | -7.7551 | <0.0005 |

## Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant difference in supervisors'
perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time
allocated for staff development.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used
to analyze the data. The n, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level
of significance are shown in Table 10.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time
was 37.00. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation
for ideal time was 48.22. The Z-Score was -7.5815 which was
significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors
indicated that they would like to spend more time for staff
develoment than they actually do. Thus, the null hypothesis
which stated there will be no significant difference in

supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development was rejected.

Table 10

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Staff Development

| n | Mean Ranks | | Z-Score | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | Ideal | | |
| 202 | 37.00 | 48.22 | -7.5815 | <0.0005 |

Hypothesis 3

There will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to analyze the data. The n, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level of significance are shown in Table 11.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time was 44.00. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation for ideal time was 66.36. The Z-Score was -9.3819 which was significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors indicated that they want to spend more time for program evaluation than they actually do. Thus, the null hypothesis

which stated there will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation was rejected.

Table 11

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Program Evaluation

| n | Mean Ranks | | Z-Score | p |
| | Actual | Ideal | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 203 | 44.00 | 66.36 | -9.3819 | <0.00005 |

Hypothesis 4

There will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to analyze the data. The $n$, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level of significance are shown in Table 12.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time was 32.86. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time was 34.22. The Z-Score was -4.8568 which was significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors indicated that they want to spend more time providing

resources than they actually do. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources was rejected.

Table 12

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Providing Resources

| n | Mean Ranks | | Z-Score | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | Ideal | | |
| 199 | 32.86 | 34.22 | -4.8568 | <0.00005 |

Hypothesis 5

There will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to analyze the data. The n, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level of significance are shown in Table 13.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time was 26.74. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time was 29.27. The Z-Score was -2.8020 which was significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors

indicated that they would like to spend more time -

disseminating information than they actually do. Thus, the

null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant

difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of

actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating

information was rejected.

Table 13

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between

Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time

for Disseminating Information

|  | Mean Ranks | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| n | Actual | Ideal | Z-Score | p |
| 202 | 26.74 | 29.27 | -2.8020 | .0051 |

Hypothesis 6

There will be no significant difference in supervisors'

perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time

allocated for instructional leadership.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used

to analyze the data. The n, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level

of significance are shown in Table 14.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time

was 47.50. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation

of ideal time was 66.73. The Z-Score was -9.3853 which was significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors indicated the desire to spend more time in the leadership role than they actually do. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for instructional leadership was rejected.

Table 14

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Instructional Leadership

| n | Mean Ranks | | Z-Score | p |
| | Actual | Ideal | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 203 | 47.50 | 66.73 | -9.3853 | <0.00005 |

Hypothesis 7

There will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for administrative duties.

The Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test was used to analyze the data. The n, mean ranks, Z-Score, and level of significance are shown in Table 15.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time was 52.79. Whereas, the mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time was 50.64. The Z-Score was -6.5527 which is significant at the .05 level. Instructional supervisors indicated that they actually spend more time performing administrative duties than they like. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant difference in supervisors' perceptions between the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for administrative duties was rejected.

Table 15

N, Mean Ranks, Z-Score, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors' Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Administrative Duties

| n | Mean Ranks | | Z-Score | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Actual | Ideal | | |
| 202 | 52.79 | 50.64 | -6.5537 | <0.00005 |

Hypothesis 8

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 16.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 105.40 for elementary supervisors, 113.29 for secondary, and 96.52 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 3.1342. The level of significance was 0.2086. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for curriculum development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 105.43 for elementary, 105.79 for secondary, and 95.12 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 1.7854. The level of significance was 0.4096. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

According to the mean ranks, secondary supervisors indicated they spent more actual time in curriculum development than elementary supervisors and supervisors assigned to both elementary and secondary grades. However, there was no significant difference between supervisory assignment and perceptions of actual and ideal time

allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 16

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Curriculum Development

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 61 | 105.40 | 60 | 105.43 |
| Secondary | 34 | 113.29 | 33 | 105.79 |
| Other | 108 | 96.52 | 106 | 95.12 |
| *Chi-Square | | 3.1342 | | 1.7854 |
| *p | | 0.2086 | | 0.4096 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 9

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 17.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 101.02 for elementary supervisors, 107.10 for secondary, and 104.69 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.3229. The level of significance was 0.8509. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for staff development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 100.28 for elementary, 99.70 for secondary, and 102.74 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.1195. The level of significance was 0.9420. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for staff development.

The mean ranks indicated that secondary supervisors allocate more time to staff development than the other two groups of supervisors. However, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 17

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual
and Ideal Time for Staff Development

| Assignment | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks Actual | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 62 | 101.02 | 61 | 100.28 |
| Secondary | 35 | 107.10 | 33 | 99.70 |
| Other | 110 | 104.69 | 108 | 102.74 |
| *Chi-Square | | 0.3229 | | 0.1195 |
| *p | | 0.8509 | | 0.9420 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 10

There will be no significant difference in perceptions
between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the
amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program
evaluation.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to
analyze the data. The assignment, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks,
chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 18.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for program evaluation was 114.06 for elementary supervisors, 112.47 for secondary, and 95.46 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 5.3723. The level of significance was 0.0681 which was close to showing a significant difference at the identified .05 level; yet there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 113.98 for elementary, 105.85 for secondary, and 94.86 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 4.5764. The level of significance was 0.1014. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The mean ranks indicated that elementary supervisors actually allocated more time to program evaluation than the other two groups of supervisors. There was a significant difference at 0.0681 between supervisory assignment and perception of actual time allocated for program evaluation. However, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions of

actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 18

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Program Evaluation

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 63 | 114.06 | 62 | 113.98 |
| Secondary | 35 | 112.47 | 34 | 105.85 |
| Other | 109 | 95.46 | 108 | 94.86 |
| | *Chi-Square | 5.3723 | | 4.5764 |
| | *p | 0.0681 | | 0.1014 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 11

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 19.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing resources was 102.94 for elementary supervisors, 106.97 for secondary, and 102.70 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.2325. The level of significance was 0.8903. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing resources.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing resources was 99.60 for elementary, 106.85 for secondary, and 98.97 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.6077. The level of significance was 0.7380. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The mean ranks indicated that secondary supervisors allocated more time to providing resources than the other two groups of supervisors. However, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions of actual and ideal time

allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 19

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Providing Resources

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 61 | 102.94 | 61 | 99.60 |
| Secondary | 35 | 106.97 | 34 | 106.85 |
| Other | 110 | 102.70 | 105 | 98.97 |
| | *Chi-Square | 0.2325 | | 0.6077 |
| | *p | 0.8903 | | 0.7380 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 12

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 20.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 99.70 for elementary supervisors, 105.06 for secondary, and 107.07 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.9532. The level of significance was 0.6209. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for disseminating information.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for disseminating information was 104.00 for elementary, 92.97 for secondary, and 102.77 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 1.1530. The level of significance was 0.5619. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

According to the mean ranks, supervisors assigned to both elementary and secondary grades actually spent more time disseminating information than the other two groups of supervisors. Yet, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions

of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating
information. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be
rejected.

Table 20

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual
and Ideal Time for Disseminating Information

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 63 | 99.70 | 62 | 104.00 |
| Secondary | 35 | 105.06 | 34 | 92.97 |
| Other | 110 | 107.07 | 106 | 102.77 |
| | *Chi-Square | 0.9532 | | 1.1530 |
| | *p | 0.6209 | | 0.5619 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 13

There will be no significant difference in perceptions
between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the
amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing
instructional leadership.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, n, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 21.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for instructional leadership was 112.67 for elementary supervisors, 103.93 for secondary, and 100.00 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 2.0477. The level of significance was 0.3592. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for instructional leadership.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for instructional leadership was 111.51 for elementary, 96.91 for secondary, and 98.23 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 2.4602. The level of significance was 0.2923. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for instructional leadership.

The mean ranks indicated that elementary supervisors actually allocated more time in the instructional leadership role than the other two groups of supervisors. There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions of actual and ideal time

allocated for instructional leadership. Therefore, the null
hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 21

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual
and Ideal Time for Instructional Leadership

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 63 | 112.67 | 61 | 111.51 |
| Secondary | 35 | 103.93 | 34 | 96.91 |
| Other | 110 | 100.00 | 108 | 98.23 |
| | *Chi-Square | 2.0477 | | 2.4602 |
| | *p | 0.3592 | | 0.2923 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 14

There will be no significant difference in perceptions
between elementary and secondary supervisors regarding the
amount of actual and ideal time allocated for administrative
duties.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The assignment, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 19.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for administrative duties was 92.89 for elementary supervisors, 104.34 for secondary, and 109.27 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 3.3329. The level of significance was 0.1889. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for administrative duties.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for administrative duties was 98.01 for elementary, 102.81 for secondary, and 103.07 for supervisors assigned both elementary and secondary grades. The chi-square was 0.4259. The level of significance was 0.8082. Thus, there was not a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignments and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for administrative duties.

The mean ranks indicated that supervisors assigned to both elementary and secondary schools allocated more time to performing administrative duties than the other two groups of supervisors. However, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory assignment and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for

administrative duties.  Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 22

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Assignment and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Administrative Duties

| Assignment | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 62 | 92.89 | 61 | 98.01 |
| Secondary | 35 | 104.34 | 34 | 102.81 |
| Other | 109 | 109.27 | 107 | 103.07 |
| | *Chi-Square | 3.3329 | | 0.4259 |
| | *p | 0.1889 | | 0.8082 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 15

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 23.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 23 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 91.28 for the 30-39 age group, 104.43 for the 40-49 age group, 105.63 for the 50-59 age group, and 88.35 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 2.7620. The level of significance was 0.4298. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 97.03 for the 30-39 age group, 101.17 for the 40-49 age group, 99.21 for the 50-59 age group, and 104.50 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 0.2175. The level of significance was 0.9747. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 23

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Curriculum Development

| Age Group | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30-39 | 29 | 91.28 | 29 | 97.03 |
| 40-49 | 80 | 104.43 | 80 | 101.17 |
| 50-59 | 81 | 105.63 | 78 | 99.21 |
| 60-69 | 13 | 88.35 | 12 | 104.50 |
| | *chi-square | 2.7620 | | 0.2175 |
| | *p | 0.4298 | | 0.9747 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 16

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39,

(c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 24.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 24 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 107.13 for the 30-39 age group, 107.29 for the 40-49 age group, 100.27 for the 50-59 age group, and 100.64 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 0.8521. The level of significance was 0.8370. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 107.18 for the 30-39 age group, 105.12 for the 40-49 age group, 98.11 for the 50-59 age group, and 85.75 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.9374. The level of significance was 0.5855. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the

perceived amount of ideal time allocated for staff
development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level
between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of
actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.
Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 24

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time
for Staff Development

| Age Group | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30-39 | 30 | 107.13 | 30 | 107.18 |
| 40-49 | 80 | 107.29 | 80 | 105.12 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 100.27 | 80 | 98.11 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 100.64 | 12 | 85.75 |
| *chi-square | 0.8521 | | | 1.9374 |
| *p | 0.8370 | | | 0.5855 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 17

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 25.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 25 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for program evaluation was 105.47 for the 30-39 age group, 106.24 for the 40-49 age group, 104.69 for the 50-59 age group, and 83.96 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.9550. The level of significance was 0.5818. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 102.07 for the 30-39 age group, 106.31 for the 40-49 age group, 101.06 for the 50-59 age group, and 88.62 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.1882. The level of significance was 0.7558. Thus,

there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 25

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Program Evaluation

| Age Group | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|-----------|-----|-------|-----|--------|
| 30-39 | 30 | 105.47 | 30 | 102.07 |
| 40-49 | 80 | 106.24 | 81 | 106.31 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 104.69 | 80 | 101.06 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 83.96 | 13 | 88.62 |
| *chi-square | | 1.9550 | | 1.1882 |
| *p | | 0.5818 | | 0.7558 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 18

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 26.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 26 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing resources was 108.92 for the 30-39 age group, 106.42 for the 40-49 age group, 100.04 for the 50-59 age group, and 95.93 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.5251. The level of significance was 0.6765. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing resources was 124.83 for the 30-39 age group, 101.05 for the 40-49 age group, 90.36 for the 50-59 age group, and 102.65 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 9.4578. The level of significance was 0.0238.

Therefore, a significant difference existed at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources. The age group 30-39 indicated a desire to spend more time providing resources than the other age groups.

Since the Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test indicated a significant difference at the .05 level between age categories and perceptions on the ideal allocation of time for providing resources, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample tests are shown in Table 27. The K-S test showed that there was a significant difference at the .05 level between the 30-39 and 50-59 age categories regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

Yet, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions regarding perceived amount of actual time allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 26

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Providing Resources

| Age Group | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks Actual | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|-----------|-----|---------------------|-----|--------------------|
| 30-39 | 30 | 108.92 | 30 | 124.83 |
| 40-49 | 79 | 106.42 | 78 | 101.05 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 100.04 | 79 | 90.36 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 95.93 | 13 | 102.65 |
| *chi-square | | 1.5251 | | 9.4578 |
| *p | | 0.6765 | | 0.0238 |

*corrected for ties

Table 27

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Ideal Time for Providing Resources

|  | | Ideal | |
| Age Category | n | K-S Z | p |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 30-39 | 30 | 1.050 | 0.220 |
| 40-49 | 78 | | |
| 30-39 | 30 | 1.515 | *0.020 |
| 50-59 | 79 | | |
| 30-39 | 30 | 0.873 | 0.432 |
| 60-69 | 13 | | |
| 40-49 | 78 | 0.911 | 0.378 |
| 50-59 | 79 | | |
| 40-49 | 78 | 0.214 | 1.000 |
| 60-69 | 13 | | |
| 50-59 | 79 | 0.657 | 0.781 |
| 60-69 | 13 | | |

*significant at .05

## Hypothesis 19

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 28.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 28 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 114.69 for the 30-39 age group, 103.06 for the 40-49 age group, 103.11 for the 50-59 age group, and 99.25 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.6638. The level of significance was 0.6450. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for disseminating information was 112.68 for the 30-39 age group, 98.77 for the 40-49 age group, 96.96 for the 50-59 age group, and 120.04 for the 60-69 age group. The

chi-square was 3.9692. The level of significance was 0.2648. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 28

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between

Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time

for Disseminating Information

| Age Group | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|-----------|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| 30-39 | 30 | 114.68 | 30 | 112.69 |
| 40-49 | 81 | 103.06 | 80 | 98.77 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 103.11 | 79 | 96.96 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 99.25 | 13 | 120.04 |
| *chi-square | 1.6638 | | | 3.9692 |
| *p | 0.6450 | | | 0.2648 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 20

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 29.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 29 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing instructional leadership was 115.27 for the 30-39 age group, 106.94 for the 40-49 age group, 98.68 for the 50-59 age group, and 101.82 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 2.1816. The level of significance was 0.5356. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing instructional leadership was 112.60 for the 30-39 age group, 107.99 for the 40-49 age group, 91.46 for the 50-59 age group, and 105.54 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 4.7478. The level of significance was 0.1912. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 29

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Instructional Leadership

| Age Group | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30-39 | 30 | 115.27 | 30 | 112.60 |
| 40-49 | 81 | 106.94 | 80 | 107.99 |
| 50-59 | 83 | 98.68 | 80 | 91.46 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 101.82 | 13 | 105.54 |
| | *chi-square | 2.1816 | | 4.7478 |
| | *p | 0.5356 | | 0.1912 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 21

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose ages are (a) 20-29, (b) 30-39, (c) 40-49, (d) 50-59, and (e) 60-69 regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The age group, $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 30.

The age category 20-29 was not included in Table 30 because there were no supervisors in the study in this age group. The supervisors' ages were in the categories 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-69.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for performing administrative duties was 106.98 for the 30-39 age group, 105.82 for the 40-49 age group, 98.03 for the 50-59 age group, and 114.25 for the 60-69 age group. The chi-square was 1.5176. The level of significance was 0.6782. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for performing administrative duties was 105.07 for the 30-39 age group, 101.24 for the 40-49 age group, 100.60 for the 50-59 age group, and 100.31 for the 60-69 age group.

The chi-square was 0.1873. The level of significance was 0.9796. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors' age groups and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 30

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Age Groups and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time
for Administrative Duties

| Age Group | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks<br>Actual | $\underline{n}$ | Mean Ranks<br>Ideal |
|-----------|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| 30-39 | 30 | 106.98 | 30 | 105.07 |
| 40-49 | 81 | 105.82 | 81 | 101.24 |
| 50-59 | 81 | 98.03 | 78 | 100.60 |
| 60-69 | 14 | 114.25 | 13 | 100.31 |
| | *chi-square | 1.5176 | | 0.1873 |
| | *p | 0.6782 | | 0.9796 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 22

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The educational levels, the $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 31.

Only two supervisors indicated that their highest degree was a bachelor's degree; therefore, the bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 102.03 for those with a master's degree, 99.11 for those with a specialist degree, and 105.42 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 0.3138. The level of significance was 0.8548. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for curriculum development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 99.52 for those with a master's degree, 98.04 for those with a specialist degree, and 103.79 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was

0.2463. The level of significance was 0.8841. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 31

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Curriculum Development

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 119 | 102.03 | 116 | 99.52 |
| Specialist | 46 | 99.11 | 45 | 98.04 |
| Doctorate | 38 | 105.42 | 38 | 103.79 |
| | *chi-square | 0.3138 | | 0.2463 |
| | *p | 0.8548 | | 0.8841 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 23

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kruskal—Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The educational levels, the $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 32.

Only two supervisors indicated that their highest degree was a bachelor's degree; therefore, the bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 104.68 for those with a master's degree, 101.55 for those with a specialist degree, and 104.76 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 0.1219. The level of significance was 0.9409. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for staff development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 100.09 for those with a master's degree, 100.22 for those with a specialist degree, and 107.05 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 0.5037. The level of significance was 0.7774. Thus,

there was no significant difference at the .05 level between
educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding
the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for staff
development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level
between educational levels and perceptions of actual and
ideal time allocated for staff development. Therefore, the
null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 32

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and
Ideal Time for Staff Development

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 121 | 104.683 | 116 | 100.09 |
| Specialist | 46 | 101.55 | 45 | 100.22 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 104.76 | 40 | 107.05 |
| *chi-square | | 0.1219 | | 0.5037 |
| *p | | 0.9409 | | 0.7774 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 24

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The educational levels, the $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 33.

The Bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. The $n$ for the bachelor's degree category was only 2.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for program evaluation was 108.18 for those with a master's degree, 102.29 for those with a specialist degree, and 93.31 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 2.1759. The level of significance was 0.3369. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 105.37 for those with a master's degree, 112.31 for those with a specialist degree, and 82.94 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 6.3505. The level of significance was 0.0418. Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between

educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation. The supervisors with doctorates indicated that they ideally preferred to spend less time on program evaluation than those supervisors who held master's and specialist degrees.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to further analyze the data. The purpose was to locate where the difference between groups lay. The K-S test indicated differences between those with doctorate and specialist degrees and between doctorate and master's degrees. However, these differences were not significant at the .05 level. The results of the K-S test are presented in Table 34.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test indicated there was a significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation. However, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 33

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and
Ideal Time for Program Evaluation

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 121 | 108.18 | 119 | 105.37 |
| Specialist | 46 | 102.29 | 45 | 112.31 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 93.31 | 40 | 82.94 |
| *chi-square | | 2.1759 | | 6.3505 |
| *p | | 0.3369 | | 0.0418 |

*corrected for ties

Table 34

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Educational
Levels of Supervisors and Perceptions of Ideal Time
Allocated for Program Evaluation

| Educational Level | n | Ideal K-S Z | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 119 | 0.783 | 0.572 |
| Specialist | 45 | | |
| Specialist | 45 | 0.946 | 0.333 |
| Doctorate | 40 | | |
| Master's | 119 | 0.939 | 0.341 |
| Doctorate | 40 | | |

Hypothesis 25

There will be no significant differences in perceptions
between supervisors with different educational levels
regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for
providing resources.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to
analyze the data. The educational levels, the n, mean

ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 35.

The bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. The bachelor's degree category only had a n of 2.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing resources was 103.41 for those with a master's degree, 106.72 for those with a specialist degree, and 100.22 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 0.4032. The level of significance was 0.8174. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing resources.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing resources was 105.47 for those with a master's degree, 95.16 for those with a specialist degree, and 91.97 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 2.5575. The level of significance was 0.2784. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 35

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and
Ideal Time for Providing Resources

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 122 | 103.41 | 116 | 105.47 |
| Specialist | 44 | 106.72 | 44 | 95.16 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 100.22 | 40 | 91.97 |
| *chi-square | | 0.4032 | | 2.5575 |
| *p | | 0.8174 | | 0.2784 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 26

There will be no significant differences in perceptions
between supervisors with different educational levels
regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for
disseminating information.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to
analyze the data. The educational levels, the n, mean

ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 36.

The bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. The bachelor's degree category only had a n of 2.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 102.23 for those with a master's degree, 103.67 for those with a specialist degree, and 112.39 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 1.3706. The level of significance was 0.5039. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for disseminating information.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for disseminating information was 101.74 for those with a master's degree, 99.10 for those with a specialist degree, and 103.50 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was was 0.1619. The level of significance was 0.9222. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating infomation.

Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 36

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Disseminating Information

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 122 | 102.23 | 117 | 101.74 |
| Specialist | 46 | 103.67 | 45 | 99.10 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 112.39 | 40 | 103.50 |
| *chi-square | | 1.3706 | | 0.1619 |
| *p | | 0.5039 | | 0.9222 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 27

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors with different educational levels regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for instructional leadership.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The educational levels, the n, mean

ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 37.

The bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. The bachelor's degree category only had a n of 2.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for instructional leadership was 106.10 for those with a master's degree, 96.08 for those with a specialist degree, and 109.31 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 1.4296. The level of significance was 0.4893. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for instructional leadership.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for instructional leadership was 101.23 for those with a master's degree, 100.80 for those with a specialist degree, and 105.61 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 0.2036. The level of significance was 0.9032. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for instructional leadership.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions of actual and

ideal time allocated for instructional leadership.

Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 37

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between
Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and
Ideal Time for Instructional Leadership

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 122 | 106.10 | 119 | 101.23 |
| Specialist | 46 | 96.08 | 44 | 100.80 |
| Doctorate | 40 | 109.31 | 40 | 105.61 |
| *chi-square | | 1.4296 | | 0.2036 |
| *p | | 0.4893 | | 0.9032 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 28

There will be no significant differences in perceptions
between supervisors with different educational levels
regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for
performing administrative duties.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to
analyze the data. The educational levels, the n, mean

ranks, chi-square, and level of significance are shown in Table 38.

The bachelor's degree category was collapsed with the master's degree category for statistical analysis. The $\underline{n}$ for the bachelor's degree category was only 2.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for performing administrative duties was 99.87 for those with a master's degree, 103.85 for those with a specialist degree, and 114.36 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 1.9438. The level of significance was 0.3784. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for performing administrative duties was 104.72 for those with a master's degree, 92.26 for those with a specialist degree, and 102.44 for those with a doctorate. The chi-square was 2.0352. The level of significance was 0.3615. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels of supervisors and perceptions regarding the perceived amount of ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between educational levels and perceptions of actual and

ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 38

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Educational Levels and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Administrative Duties

| Educational Level | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master's | 121 | 99.87 | 118 | 104.72 |
| Specialist | 46 | 103.85 | 45 | 92.26 |
| Doctorate | 39 | 114.36 | 39 | 102.44 |
| *chi-square | | 1.9438 | | 2.0354 |
| *p | | 0.3784 | | 0.3615 |

*corrected for ties

Hypothesis 29

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development are shown in Table 39.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 0.168. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for curriculum development.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 0.356. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was 0.00781 for actual time and 0.04718 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 39

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Curriculum Development

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yes | | 128 | 126 |
| No | | 75 | 73 |
| | K-S Z | 0.168 | 0.356 |
| | p | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Hypothesis 30

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in

educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development are shown in Table 40.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 0.599. The level of significance was 0.866. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for staff development.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 1.222. The level of significance was 0.101. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for staff development.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak.

Somers' d was -0.10237 for actual time and -0.15927 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 40

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Staff Development

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 129 | 127 |
| No | 79 | 75 |
| K-S Z | 0.599 | 1.222 |
| p | 0.866 | 0.101 |

## Hypothesis 31

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation are shown in Table 41.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for program evaluation was 0.532. The level of significance was 0.940. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 0.321. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.080901 for actual time and-0.04174 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 41

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Program Evaluation

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 129 | 128 |
| No | 78 | 76 |
| K-S Z | 0.532 | 0.321 |
| p | 0.940 | 1.000 |

## Hypothesis 32

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources are shown in Table 42.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for providing resources was 0.658. The level of significance was 0.779. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing resources.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 0.365. The level of significance was 0.999. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.09155 for actual time and 0.04736 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 42

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Providing Resources

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | Actual $n$ | Ideal $n$ |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 128 | 125 |
| No | 78 | 75 |
| K-S Z | 0.658 | 0.365 |
| p | 0.779 | 0.999 |

## Hypothesis 33

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information are shown in Table 43.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 0.215. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for disseminating information.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 0.309. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in

supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.2968 for actual time and -0.00745 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 43

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Disseminating Information

| | | Actual | Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|
| Graduate Degree in Supervision | | n | n |
| Yes | | 130 | 127 |
| No | | 78 | 75 |
| | K-S Z | 0.215 | 0.309 |
| | p | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Hypothesis 34

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in educational supervision and those who have not, regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The n, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in

supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership are shown in Table 44.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for providing instructional leadership was 0.340. The level of significance was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing instructional leadership was 0.715. The level of significance was 0.686. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was 0.05621 for actual time and -0.08465 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 44

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Instructional Leadership

| Graduate Degree in Supervision | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 130 | 127 |
| No | 78 | 76 |
| K-S Z | 0.340 | 0.715 |
| p | 1.000 | 0.686 |

Hypothesis 35

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between supervisors who have earned a graduate degree in

educational supervision and those who have not regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties are shown in Table 45.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for performing administrative duties was 0.853. The level of significance was 0.461. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for performing administrative duties was 0.360. The level of significance was 0.999. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.10682 for actual time and -0.04063 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisors with a graduate degree in supervision and those without a graduate degree in supervision and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 45

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisors with a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Those Without a Graduate Degree in Supervision and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Administrative Duties

| | Actual | Ideal |
|---|---|---|
| Graduate Degree in Supervision | n | n |
| Yes | 129 | 127 |
| No | 77 | 75 |
| K-S Z | 0.853 | 0.360 |
| p | 0.461 | 0.999 |

Hypothesis 36

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for curriculum development are shown in Table 46.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 114.64 for general supervisors, 102.25 for subject specialists, 96.91 for directors, 109.41 for coordinators, and 86.81 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 6.0822. The level of significance was 0.1931. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for curriculum development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 112.12 for general supervisors, 94.72 for subject specialists, 96.85 for directors, 106.86 for coordinators, and 92.57 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 3.5654 The level of significance was 0.4680. Thus, there was no

significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 46

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Curriculum Development

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 114.64 | 42 | 112.12 |
| Subject Specialist | 55 | 102.25 | 54 | 94.72 |
| Director | 54 | 96.91 | 53 | 96.85 |
| Coordinator | 23 | 109.41 | 22 | 106.86 |
| Other | 29 | 86.81 | 28 | 92.57 |
| *chi-square | | 6.0822 | | 3.5654 |
| *p | | 0.1931 | | 0.4680 |

*corrected for ties

<u>Hypothesis 37</u>

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for curriculum development are shown in Table 47.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 102.37 for general supervisors, 105.39 for subject specialists, 97.59 for directors, 125.38 for coordinators, and 98.21 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 4.9726. The level of significance was 0.2901. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for staff development.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 92.21 for general supervisors, 94.84 for subject specialists, 103.25 for directors, 122.07 for coordinators, and 107.55 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 5.5621. The level of significance was 0.2343. Thus, there was no significant

difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for staff development.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 47

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Staff Development

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 41 | 102.37 | 41 | 92.21 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 105.39 | 55 | 94.84 |
| Director | 54 | 97.59 | 53 | 103.25 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 125.38 | 23 | 122.07 |
| Other | 31 | 98.21 | 30 | 107.55 |
| *chi-square | 4.9726 | | | 5.5621 |
| *p | 0.2901 | | | 0.2343 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 38

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $n$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for program evaluation are shown in Table 48.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for program evaluation was 117.39 for general supervisors, 116.71 for subject specialists, 94.91 for directors, 107.46 for coordinators, and 76.08 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 14.5116. The level of significance was 0.0058. Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 116.36 for general supervisors, 111.19 for subject specialists, 96.28 for directors, 101.85 for coordinators, and 78.37 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 9.8022 The level of significance was 0.0439. Thus, there was a significant

difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

There was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the Kologorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to further analyze the data. The results are shown in Table 49. The K-S test indicated significant differences at the .05 level between subject specialists and supervisors with other titles regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Significant differences at the .05 level were also indicated between general supervisors and supervisors with other titles regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation was rejected.

Table 48

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance

Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of

Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Program Evaluation

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 41 | 117.39 | 42 | 116.36 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 116.71 | 56 | 111.19 |
| Director | 54 | 94.91 | 53 | 96.28 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 107.46 | 23 | 101.85 |
| Other | 31 | 76.08 | 30 | 78.37 |
| *chi-square | | 14.5116 | | 9.8022 |
| *p | | 0.0058 | | 0.0439 |

*corrected for ties

Table 49

N, K-S Z and Level of Significance Between Supervisory

Titles and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time

for Program Evaluation

| Supervisory Title | Actual | | | Ideal | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | K-SZ | p | n | K-SZ | p |
| General Supervisor Subject Specialist | 41 57 | 0.199 | 1.000 | 42 56 | 0.321 | 1.000 |
| General Supervisor Director | 41 54 | 0.883 | 0.416 | 42 54 | 0.768 | 0.598 |
| General Supervisor Coordinator | 41 24 | 0.388 | 0.998 | 42 23 | 0.818 | 0.515 |
| General Supervisor Other | 41 31 | 1.514 | *0.020 | 42 30 | 1.494 | *0.023 |
| Subject Specialist Director | 57 54 | 0.975 | 0.298 | 56 53 | 0.796 | 0.550 |
| Subject Specialist Coordinator | 57 24 | 0.342 | 1.000 | 56 23 | 0.665 | 0.769 |
| Subject Specialist Other | 57 31 | 1.463 | *0.028 | 56 30 | 1.368 | *0.047 |
| Director Coordinator | 54 24 | 0.415 | 0.995 | 53 23 | 0.440 | 0.990 |
| Director Other | 54 31 | 0.787 | 0.565 | 53 30 | 1.019 | 0.251 |
| Coordinator Other | 24 31 | 0.959 | 0.317 | 23 30 | 0.528 | 0.943 |

*Significant at .05 level

Hypothesis 39

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for providing resources are shown in Table 50.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing resources was 102.23 for general supervisors, 107.98 for subject specialists, 104.26 for directors, 109.06 for coordinators, and 91.40 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 2.9713. The level of significance was 0.5626. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing resources.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing resources was 113.40 for general supervisors, 105.99 for subject specialists, 94.28 for directors, 106.77 for coordinators, and 78.33 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 9.5527 The level of significance was 0.0487. Thus, there was a significant

difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the Kolmogrov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to further analyze the data. The results are shown in Table 51. The K-S test indicated significant differences at the .05 level between general supervisors and supervisors with other titles regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources. Significant differences at the .05 level were also indicated between subject specialists and supervisors with other titles regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

Even though significant differences at the .05 level were found between supervisory titles and perceptions of ideal time allocated for providing resources, no significant difference at the .05 level was found between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual time allocated for providing resources. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 50

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance

Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of

Actual and Ideal Time for Providing Resources

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 102.23 | 42 | 113.40 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 107.98 | 55 | 105.99 |
| Director | 52 | 104.26 | 51 | 94.28 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 109.06 | 22 | 106.77 |
| Other | 31 | 91.40 | 30 | 78.33 |
| *chi-square | | 2.9713 | | 9.5527 |
| *p | | 0.5626 | | 0.0487 |

*corrected for ties

Table 51

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory
Titles and Perceived Allocation of Ideal Time for Providing
Resources

| Supervisory Title | n | Ideal K-SZ | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor Subject Specialist | 42 55 | 0.520 | 0.950 |
| General Supervisor Director | 42 51 | 0.860 | 0.450 |
| General Supervisor Coordinator | 42 22 | 0.271 | 1.000 |
| General Supervisor Other | 42 30 | 1.414 | *0.037 |
| Subject Specialist Director | 55 51 | 0.789 | 0.563 |
| Subject Specialist Coordinator | 55 22 | 0.396 | 0.998 |
| Subject Specialist Other | 55 30 | 1.375 | *0.046 |
| Director Coordinator | 51 22 | 0.423 | 0.994 |
| Director Other | 51 30 | 0.690 | 0.727 |
| Coordinator Other | 22 30 | 0.950 | 0.327 |

*Significant at .05 level

<u>Hypothesis 40</u>

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for disseminating information are shown in Table 52.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 106.58 for general supervisors, 98.82 for subject specialists, 110.77 for directors, 98.38 for coordinators, and 105.94 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 2.2202. The level of significance was 0.6953. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for disseminating information.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for disseminating information was 106.71 for general supervisors, 95.63 for subject specialists, 102.27 for directors, 108.11 for coordinators, and 99.12 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 1.5979 The level of significance was 0.8092. Thus, there was no

significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory
titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time
allocated for disseminating information.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level
between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and
ideal time allocated for disseminating information.
Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 52

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance
Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of
Actual and Ideal Time for Disseminating Information

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 106.58 | 41 | 106.71 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 98.82 | 56 | 95.63 |
| Director | 54 | 110.77 | 53 | 102.27 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 98.38 | 22 | 108.11 |
| Other | 31 | 105.94 | 30 | 99.12 |
| *chi-square | | 2.2202 | | 1.5979 |
| *p | | 0.6953 | | 0.8092 |

*corrected for ties

## Hypothesis 41

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the $\underline{n}$, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for providing instructional leadership are shown in Table 53.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for providing instructional leadership was 106.25 for general supervisors, 101.19 for subject specialists, 103.89 for directors, 115.58 for coordinators, and 100.69 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 1.3240. The level of significance was 0.8573. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing instructional leadership was 118.34 for general supervisors, 89.87 for subject specialists, 98.71 for directors, 107.22 for coordinators, and 104.13 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 6.3705. The level of significance was 0.1731. Thus, there was no

significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 53

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time for Instructional Leadership

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 106.25 | 41 | 118.34 |
| Subject Specialist | 57 | 101.19 | 56 | 89.87 |
| Director | 54 | 103.89 | 53 | 98.71 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 115.58 | 23 | 107.22 |
| Other | 31 | 100.69 | 30 | 104.13 |
| *chi-square | | 1.3240 | | 6.3705 |
| *p | | 0.8573 | | 0.1731 |

*corrected for ties

## - Hypothesis 42

There will be no significant differences in perceptions between supervisors whose titles are (a) general supervisor, (b) subject specialist, (c) director, or (d) coordinator regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test was used to analyze the data. The supervisory titles, the n, mean ranks, chi-square, and level of significance for perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties are shown in Table 54.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of actual time for performing administrative duties was 92.30 for general supervisors, 85.38 for subject specialists, 126.05 for directors, 100.81 for coordinators, and 114.58 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 17.2338. The level of significance was 0.0017. Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The mean rank for perceived allocation of ideal time for performing administrative duties was 93.85 for general supervisors, 86.25 for subject specialists, 117.24 for directors, 110.59 for coordinators, and 105.55 for supervisors with other titles. The chi-square was 12.2734. The level of significance was 0.0154. Thus, there was a

significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

There was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Therefore, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to further analyze the data. The K-S test indicated significant differences at the .05 level between general supervisors and directors regarding perceptions of actual time allocated to performing administrative duties. Directors indicated that they spend more time performing administrative duties than general supervisors did. There was also a significant difference at the .05 level between subject specialists and directors regarding perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Directors indicated that they allocate more actual and ideal time to performing administrative duties than subject specialists did. Thus, the null hypothesis which stated there was a significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties was rejected.

Table 54

N, Mean Ranks, Chi-Square, and Level of Significance
Between Supervisory Titles and Perceived Allocation of
Actual and Ideal Time for Administrative Duties

| Supervisory Title | n | Mean Ranks Actual | n | Mean Ranks Ideal |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General Supervisor | 42 | 92.30 | 42 | 93.85 |
| Subject Specialist | 56 | 85.38 | 55 | 86.25 |
| Director | 54 | 126.05 | 53 | 117.24 |
| Coordinator | 24 | 100.81 | 23 | 110.59 |
| Other | 30 | 114.58 | 29 | 105.55 |
| *chi-square | | 17.2338 | | 12.2734 |
| *p | | 0.0017 | | 0.0154 |

*corrected for ties

Table 55

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Supervisory

Titles and Perceived Allocation of Actual and Ideal Time

for Administrative Duties

| Supervisory Title | Actual | | | Ideal | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | K-SZ | p | n | K-SZ | p |
| General Supervisor Subject Specialist | 42 56 | 0.262 | 1.000 | 42 55 | 0.575 | 0.896 |
| General Supervisor Director | 42 54 | 1.569 | *0.015 | 42 53 | 1.290 | 0.072 |
| General Supervisor Coordinator | 42 24 | 0.419 | 0.995 | 42 23 | 0.666 | 0.766 |
| General Supervisor Other | 42 30 | 0.936 | 0.345 | 42 29 | 0.772 | 0.590 |
| Subject Specialist Director | 56 54 | 1.973 | *0.001 | 55 53 | 1.611 | *0.011 |
| Subject Specialist Coordinator | 56 24 | 0.634 | 0.816 | 55 23 | 0.872 | 0.432 |
| Subject Specialist Other | 56 31 | 1.200 | 0.112 | 55 29 | 1.003 | 0.267 |
| Director Coordinator | 54 24 | 1.170 | 0.129 | 53 23 | 0.375 | 0.999 |
| Director Other | 54 30 | 0.748 | 0.630 | 53 29 | 0.518 | 0.951 |
| Coordinator Other | 24 30 | 0.426 | 0.993 | 23 29 | 0.532 | 0.940 |

*Significant at .05 level

## Hypothesis 43

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The n, K-S Z, and levels of significance between the male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development are shown in Table 56.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for curriculum development was 1.052. The level of significance was 0.218. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for curriculum development.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for curriculum development was 0.767. The level of significance was 0.598. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was 0.17205 for actual time and 0.08381 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 56

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Curriculum Development

| Sex | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 106 | 104 |
| Female | 97 | 95 |
| | | |
| K-S Z | 1.052 | 0.767 |
| p | 0.218 | 0.598 |

Hypothesis 44

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between the male and female supervisors and

their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development are shown in Table 57.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for staff development was 1.060. The level of significance was 0.211. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for staff development.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for staff development was 1.188. The level of significance was 0.119. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for staff development.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was 0.16953 for actual time and 0.12029 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for staff development. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 57

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and
Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time
Allocated for Staff Development

| Sex | | Actual | Ideal |
|-----|-----|--------|-------|
| | | n | n |
| Male | | 107 | 104 |
| Female | | 100 | 98 |
| | K-S Z | 1.060 | 1.188 |
| | p | 0.211 | 0.119 |

Hypothesis 45

There will be no significant difference in perceptions
between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of
actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used
to analyze the data. The n, K-S Z, and levels of
significance between the male and female supervisors and
their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for
program evaluation are shown in Table 58.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for
program evaluation was 1.525. The level of significance was

0.019. Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for program evaluation.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for program evaluation was 1.640. The level of significance was 0.009. Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was moderate. Somers' d was 0.27430 for actual time and 0.28119 for ideal time.

Thus, there was a significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated there will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation was rejected.

Table 58

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and
Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time
Allocated for Program Evaluation

| Sex | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 107 | 105 |
| Female | 100 | 99 |
| K-S Z | 1.525 | 1.640 |
| p | 0.019 | 0.009 |

Hypothesis 46

There will be no significant difference in perceptions
between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of
actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used
to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of
significance between the male and female supervisors and
their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for
providing resources are shown in Table 59.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for
providing resources was 0.194. The level of significance

was 1.000. Thus, there was no significant difference at the
.05 level between male and female supervisors and their
perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated
for providing resources.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for
providing resources was 0.552. The level of significance
was 0.921. Thus, there was no significant difference at the
.05 level between male and female supervisors and their
perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for
providing resources.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of
association, was used to further analyze the data. The
strength of the association between variables was weak.
Somers' d was -0.02502 for actual time and 0.07920 for ideal
time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level
between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of
actual and ideal time allocated for providing resources.
Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 59

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and

Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time

Allocated for Providing Resources

| Sex | Actual<br>n | Ideal<br>n |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 107 | 105 |
| Female | 99 | 95 |
| | | |
| K-S Z | 0.194 | 0.552 |
| p | 1.000 | 0.921 |

Hypothesis 47

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The n, K-S Z, and levels of significance between the male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information are shown in Table 60.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for disseminating information was 0.574. The level of significance was 0.897. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for disseminating information.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for disseminating information was 0.512. The level of significance was 0.956. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.04497 for actual time and 0.01983 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for disseminating information. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 60

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and
Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time
Allocated for Disseminating Information

| Sex | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 107 | 105 |
| Female | 101 | 97 |
| K-S Z | 0.574 | 0.512 |
| p | 0.897 | 0.956 |

Hypothesis 48

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The $\underline{n}$, K-S Z, and levels of significance between the male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership are shown in Table 61.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for providing instructional leadership was 0.779. The level of significance was 0.579. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for providing instructional leadership was 1.177. The level of significance was 0.125. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was 0.11104 for actual time and 0.18755 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 61

N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time Allocated for Instructional Leadership

| Sex | | Actual n | Ideal n |
|---|---|---|---|
| Male | | 107 | 104 |
| Female | | 101 | 99 |
| | K-S Z | 0.779 | 1.177 |
| | p | 0.579 | 0.125 |

Hypothesis 49

There will be no significant difference in perceptions between male and female supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) two-sample test was used to analyze the data. The n, K-S Z, and levels of significance between the male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties are shown in Table 62.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of actual time for performing administrative duties was 0.428. The level of significance was 0.993. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of actual time allocated for performing administrative duties.

The K-S Z for perceived allocation of ideal time for performing administrative duties was 0.549. The level of significance was 0.924. Thus, there was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions regarding the amount of ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties.

In addition to the K-S test, Somers' d, a measure of association, was used to further analyze the data. The strength of the association between variables was weak. Somers' d was -0.01472 for actual time and -0.06927 for ideal time.

There was no significant difference at the .05 level between male and female supervisors and their perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Table 62

<u>N, K-S Z, and Level of Significance Between Males and</u>

<u>Females and Their Perceptions of Actual and Ideal Time</u>

<u>Allocated for Administrative Duties</u>

| Sex | Actual $\underline{n}$ | Ideal $\underline{n}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 106 | 104 |
| Female | 100 | 98 |
| K-S Z | 0.428 | 0.549 |
| p | 0.993 | 0.924 |

<u>Summary</u>

As a result of the findings, the following null hypotheses were rejected 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 38, 42, and 45. Thus, the other hypotheses developed for this study failed to be rejected.

# CHAPTER 5

## Summary, Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

## Introduction

This chapter consists of a summary of the research and the presentation of the findings. Conclusions and recommendations drawn from the analysis of the data are also included in this chapter.

## Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed in the perceptions of selected public school instructional supervisors regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for identified supervisory roles. The study was conducted during the 1986-87 school year in Virginia.

The questionnaire, developed by the researcher, asked the participants to respond to actual and ideal time allocated each school year for seven identified supervisory roles on a scale of 1 to 5. The time scale was in percent: (a) 0-20%, (b) 21-40%, (c) 41-60%, (d) 61-80%, and (e) 81-100%. The participants were also asked to indicate their current supervisory assignment, age, highest degree, if they held a graduate degree in supervision, title, and sex.

A six-week pilot study was conducted with the questionnaire. The questionnaire was field tested with two

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groups of 50 randomly selected instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia. The pilot test proved to be very beneficial. Many insightful suggestions were made by the supervisors. Thus, changes were made on the original questionnaire. The subsequent improvements increased the clarity of the instrument.

A target population of 726 instructional supervisors was identified. This population included general supervisors, subject specialists, directors, coordinators, and others with supervisory roles. From the target population, 50% (363) were randomly selected to participate in the study.

Data were collected for a four-week period. A 60.6% return was received. The data were statistically analyzed at the East Tennessee State University Research and Computer Center. The statistical tests used to analyze the data were the Wilcoxon matched pairs-signed ranks test, Kolmogorov-Smironov (K-S) two-sample test, Somers' d, and Kruskal-Wallis H one-way ANOVA test.

Instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia indicated that there was a gulf between actual and ideal time allocated for some of the identified supervisory roles. Supervisors in Virginia wanted to spend more time for curriculum development, staff development, program evaluation, providing resources, disseminating information, and instructional leadership than they actually did. They

wanted to spend less time performing administrative duties.

The composite results of perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for each supervisory role are shown in Table 63. The largest differences between allocation of actual and ideal time occurred in program evaluation and instructional leadership. There were also differences between allocation of actual and ideal time for staff development and curriculum development.

Table 63

Composite Mean Rank Scores for Supervisory Roles

| Supervisory Role | Mean Ranks | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Actual | Ideal | Difference |
| Curriculum Development | 39.50 | 50.15 | -10.65 |
| Staff Development | 37.00 | 48.22 | -11.22 |
| Program Evaluation | 44.00 | 66.36 | -22.36 |
| Providing Resources | 32.86 | 34.22 | - 1.36 |
| Disseminating Information | 26.74 | 29.27 | - 2.53 |
| Instructional Leadership | 47.50 | 66.73 | -19.23 |
| Administrative Duties | 52.79 | 50.64 | 2.15 |

## Findings

The 49 null hypotheses were tested for significance at the .05 level. Null hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 38, 42, and 45 were rejected. The other null hypotheses failed to be rejected.

Findings were summarized under each identified supervisory role. The findings that were significant at the .05 level are indicated as such. The findings were as follows:

### Curriculum Development

(1) Overall, instructional supervisors wanted to spend more time for curriculum development than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for curriculum development was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Secondary supervisors spent more actual time in curriculum development than elementary and K-12 supervisors. K-12 supervisors had the lowest mean rank for actual time. Elementary and secondary supervisors had higher mean ranks for ideal time allocated for curriculum development than K-12 supervisors.

(3) The 50-59 age category allocated more actual and ideal time for curriculum development than the other age categories. Whereas, the 60-69 age category allocated less actual time for curriculum development than the other age

categories. The 30-39 age category allocated less ideal time for curriculum development than the other age categories.

(4) Supervisors with doctorats allocated more actual and ideal time to curriculum development than those with other degrees. Supervisors with specialist degrees allocated less actual and ideal time for curriculum development than supervisors with other degrees.

(5) Supervisors who did not have a graduate degree in supervision allocated more actual and ideal time for curriculum development than supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) General supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time to curriculum development than other supervisors. "Other" supervisors had the lowest mean ranks for actual and ideal time allocated for curriculum development.

(7) Female supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time for curriculum development than male supervisors.

## Staff Development

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend more time for staff development than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for staff development was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Secondary supervisors spent more actual time in staff development than other supervisors. However,

secondary supervisors had the lowest mean rank for ideal time allocated for staff development. Thus, secondary supervisors wanted to spend less time in staff development than they actually were spending. Elementary supervisors allocated less actual time for staff development than other supervisors. Whereas, K-12 supervisors allocated more ideal time for staff development than other supervisors.

(3) The 30-39 and 40-49 age categories spent more actual time for staff development than the other age categories. The 30-39 age category had the highest mean rank for ideal time. The 60-69 age category had the lowest mean rank for ideal time.

(4) Supervisors with doctorates and supervisors with master's degrees spent more actual time for staff development than supervisors with specialist degrees. Supervisors with doctorates allocated more ideal time for staff development than supervisors with other degrees.

(5) Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision allocated more actual and ideal time for staff development than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) Coordinators allocated more actual and ideal time for staff development than other supervisors. Directors spent less actual time for staff development than other supervisors. General supervisors had the lowest mean rank for ideal time allocated for staff development.

(7) Female supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time for staff development than male supervisors.

## Program Evaluation

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend more time for program evaluation than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for program evaluation was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Elementary supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time to program evaluation than other supervisors. Supervisors of elementary and secondary grades (K-12) allocated less actual and ideal time for program evaluation than other supervisors.

(3) The 40-49 age category allocated more actual and ideal time for program evaluation than the other age categories. The 60-69 age category allocated less actual and ideal time for program evaluation than the other age categories.

(4) Supervisors with master's degrees spent more actual time for program evaluation than supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with specialist degrees had the highest mean rank for ideal time allocated for program evaluation. Supervisors with doctorates allocated less actual and ideal time for program evaluation than supervisors with other degrees. (The Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA indicated a significant difference at the .05 level in

ideal time; however, the K-S test did not locate a
significant difference at the .05 level between supervisory
degrees and perceptions of ideal time allocated for program
evaluation. The K-S showed a difference between specialist
degrees and doctorate degrees at the 0.333 level.)

(5) Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision
allocated more actual and ideal time for staff development
than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) The K-S test indicated there was a significant
difference at the .05 level between supervisory titles and
perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time
allocated for program evaluation. General supervisors
allocated more actual and ideal time for program evaluation
than other supervisors. Subject specialists also allocated
more actual time for program evaluation than other
supervisors. "Other" supervisors had the lowest mean rank
for actual and ideal time allocated for program evaluation.

(7) Female supervisors allocated more actual and ideal
time for staff development than male supervisors.

Providing Resources

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend more time for
program evaluation than they actually did. The difference
in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for
providing resources was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Secondary supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time for providing resources than other supervisors.

(3) The 30-39 age category allocated more actual and ideal time for providing resources than the other age categories. The 60-69 age category spent less actual time providing resources than the other age categories. The 50-59 age category allocated less ideal time for providing resources than the other age categories. The K-S test indicated that there was a significant difference at the .05 level between the 30-39 and 50-59 age categories on perceptions of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

(4) Supervisors with specialist degrees spent more actual time providing resources than supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with master's degrees allocated more ideal time for providing resources than other supervisors. Supervisors with doctorates allocated less actual and ideal time for providing resources than supervisors with other degrees.

(5) Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision allocated more actual and ideal time for providing resources than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) Coordinators spent more actual time providing resources than other supervisors. General supervisors and subject specialists allocated more ideal time for providing resources than other supervisors. "Other" supervisors had the lowest mean ranks for actual and ideal time allocated

for providing resources. The K-S test indicated that there was a significant difference at the .05 level between general supervisors and other supervisors and between subject specialists and "other" supervisors regarding the perception of ideal time allocated for providing resources.

(7) Male supervisors spent more actual time providing resources than female supervisors. However, females allocated more ideal time for providing resources than male supervisors.

## Disseminating Information

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend more time for disseminating information than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for disseminating information was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Supervisors currently assigned both elementary and secondary grades (K-12) spent more actual time disseminating information. Elementary supervisors spent less actual time for disseminating information than other supervisors. However, elementary supervisors had the highest mean rank for ideal allocation of time for disseminating information. Secondary supervisors allocated less ideal time for disseminating information than the other two groups of supervisors.

(3) The 30-39 age category allocated more actual and ideal time disseminating information than the other age categories. The 60-69 age category spent less actual time disseminating information than the other age categories. However, the 60-69 age category had the highest mean rank for ideal time allocated for disseminating information. The 50-59 age category allocated less ideal time for disseminating information than the other age categories.

(4) Supervisors with doctorates allocated more actual and ideal time for disseminating information than supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with master's degrees spent less actual time disseminating information than other supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with specialist degrees had the lowest mean rank for ideal time allocated for disseminating information.

(5) Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision allocated more actual and ideal time for disseminating information than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) Directors spent more actual time disseminating information than supervisors with other titles. Subject specialists and coordinators spent less actual time disseminating information than other supervisors. Coordinators allocated more ideal time to disseminating information than other supervisors. Whereas, subject

specialists allocated less ideal time to disseminating information than other supervisors.

(7) Male supervisors spent more actual time disseminating information than female supervisors. Whereas, female supervisors allocated more ideal time for disseminating information than male supervisors.

## Instructional Leadership

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend more time for instructional leadership than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for instructional leadership was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Elementary supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time to instructional leadership than other supervisors. K-12 supervisors spent less actual time providing instructional leadership than other supervisors. Secondary supervisors had the lowest mean ranks for ideal time allocated for instructional leadership.

(3) The 30-39 age category allocated more actual and ideal time for instructional leadership than the other age categories. The 50-59 age category allocated less ideal time for instructional leadership than the other age categories.

(4) Supervisors with doctorates allocated more actual and ideal time for instructional leadership than

supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with specialist degrees allocated less actual and ideal time for instructional leadership than supervisors with other degrees.

(5) Supervisors who do not have graduate degrees in supervision allocated more actual time for providing instructional leadership than supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision. However, supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision allocated more ideal time for providing instructional leadership than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) Coordinators spent more actual time for providing instructional leadership than other supervisors. Supervisors with "other" titles spent less actual time providing instructional leadership than the remaining categories of supervisory titles. General supervisors had the highest mean rank for ideal time allocated for providing instructional leadership. Subject specialists allocated less ideal time for providing instructional leadership than other supervisors.

(7) Female supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time for providing instructional leadership than male supervisors.

## Administrative Duties

(1) Overall, supervisors wanted to spend less time performing administrative duties than they actually did. The difference in perceived allocation of actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties was significant at the .05 level.

(2) Supervisors assigned to both elementary and secondary grades (K-12) allocated more actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties. Elementary supervisors allocated less actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties than the other supervisors.

(3) The 60-69 age category spent more actual time performing administrative duties than the other age categories. The 50-59 age category spent less actual time performing administrative duties than the other age categories. The age category 30-39 had the highest mean rank for ideal time allocated for administrative duties. The 50-59 and 60-69 age categories allocated less ideal time for performing administrative duties than the other age groups.

(4) Supervisors with doctorates allocated more actual time for performing administrative duties than supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with specialist degrees allocated less ideal time than supervisors with other degrees. Supervisors with master's degrees allocated less actual time to performing administrative duties than

supervisors with other degrees. However, supervisors with master's degrees allocated more ideal time to this supervisory role than supervisors with other degrees.

(5) Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision allocated more actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

(6) Directors allocated more actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties than supervisors with other titles. Subject specialists allocated less actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties than supervisors with other titles. The K-S test indicated significant differences at the .05 level between titles and perceptions of actual and ideal time allocated for performing administrative duties. The differences for actual time were between general supervisors and directors and between subject specialists and directors. The differences for ideal time were between subject specialists and directors.

(7) Male supervisors allocated more actual and ideal time for performing administrative duties than female supervisors.

Role conflict was apparent among instructional supervisors in Virginia. Some examples include (a) the differences among age groups indicating that more time should be spent on curriculum development, disseminating information, and performing administrative duties than

actually occurred; (b) elementary supervisors wanting to spend more time disseminating information than they were; (c) coordinators wanting to spend more time disseminating information than they were; (d) supervisors with master's degrees wanting to spend more time performing administrative duties than they were; and (e) secondary supervisors spending more time in staff development than they preferred.

Even though differences were found between the variables on the demographic data sheet and the allocation of actual and ideal time for the identified supervisory roles, not all differences were significant at the .05 level. The association between the variables and allocation of the actual and ideal time was often weak. For example, differences between supervisors with a degree in supervision and supervisors without a degree in supervision and the allocation of actual and ideal time for curriculum development, program evaluation, providing resources, and disseminating information were weak. Weak associations were also found between males and females' allocation of actual and ideal time for providing resources, disseminating information, and performing administrative duties. Thus, these weak associations indicated that neither a graduate degree in supervision nor the gender of a supervisor had any effect on the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for some of the supervisory roles.

## Conclusions

The following conclusions concerning instructional supervisors in the public schools of Virginia are based on the findings of this research:

1. Instructional supervisors are not spending as much time as they want for curriculum development, staff development, program evaluation, providing resources, disseminating information, and instructional leadership.

2. Instructional supervisors are spending more time performing administrative duties than they prefer.

3. Secondary supervisors devote more time to curriculum development and to providing resources than other supervisors.

4. Elementary supervisors spend more time for program evaluation and providing instructional leadership than other supervisors.

5. K-12 instructional supervisors spend more time performing administrative duties than other supervisors.

6. Younger supervisors (30-39) devote more time to staff development, providing resources, and providing instructional leadership than older supervisors.

7. Instructional supervisors with doctorats spend more time for curriculum development, staff development, disseminating information, and instructional leadership than supervisors with other degrees.

8. Titles influence the amount of actual and ideal time that instructional supervisors allocate for the selected supervisory roles. For example, general supervisors spend more time for curriculum development and program evaluation than supervisors with other titles. In addition, coordinators spend more time for staff development than supervisors with other titles. Furthermore, directors spend more time disseminating information than supervisors with other titles.

9. Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision spend a little more time for staff development, program evaluation, providing resources, disseminating information, and performing administrative duties than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision. Supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision also want to spend more time providing instructional leadership than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

10. Female supervisors spend more time for curriculum development, staff development, program evaluation, and instructional leadership than male supervisors.

11. Male supervisors devote a little more time to performing administrative duties, providing resoures, and disseminating information than female supervisors.

12. Role conflict is apparent among instructional supervisors. The conflict is obvious in the actual and ideal time that they allocate for the selected supervisory

roles. In addition, there is role conflict among supervisors with different supervisory assignments, age categories, degrees, and titles.

13. A graduate degree in supervision and a supervisor's gender does not have much influence on the allocation of actual and ideal time for some supervisory roles.

## Recommendations

The future training of instructional supervisors, job descriptions, and role expectations could be improved by this and similar research. Job descriptions and limitations under which instructional supervisors operate must be identified and analyzed. Supervisory roles and titles must be better defined to avoid role conflict and to clarify role expectations. Job descriptions should clearly identify the actual roles of supervisors. For the utmost improvement to occur in education, supervisors must assume the role of change agents. Job descriptions should specify this role regardless of the titles.

Supervisory training is based on ideal roles and responsibilities as presented in literature. However, actual roles are not totally congruent with prior supervisory training. Supervisory training programs should continue to stress the ultimate goal of instructional supervision as improving instruction. Further emphasis

needs to be placed on instructional leadership. For with strong instructional leadership, the other supervisory roles will be strengthened. Instructional leadership is the integral part of the whole supervisory process.

Since this research and most related research indicated that supervisors spent more time performing administrative duties than they preferred, supervisory training programs should train supervisors to perform administrative tasks as effectively and efficiently as possible. This suggests training supervisors in the use of administrative software and computers to speed up the time-consuming process aligned with performing many administrative duties.

Since K-12 instructional supervisors spent more time performing administrative duties than supervisors assigned elementary or secondary grades, school systems should strive to break down this broad supervisory assignment. Supervisors need time to perform crucial supervisory roles which ultimately improve instruction.

It is further recommended that school systems look to young supervisors for innovative ideas and instructional leadership. The age group 30-39 allocate more actual and ideal time for staff development, providing resources, and providing instructional leadership than older supervisors.

It is also recommended that instructional supervisors strive to obtain a doctorate in supervision. Instructional supervisors with doctorates display a good understanding

of supervision. Supervisors with doctorates spend more time performing major supervisory roles than supervisors with other degrees. Furthermore, supervisors with graduate degrees in supervision spend a little more time performing the selected supervisory roles than supervisors without graduate degrees in supervision.

Further study should be conducted on actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors. Research should be conducted to find out what factors, other than performing administrative duties, alienate supervisors from the ideal roles.

In addition, this study should be replicated by other researchers. This would strengthen the credibility of the conclusions.

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APPENDIX A

VIRGINIA COUNTIES, CITIES, TOWNS

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# VIRGINIA COUNTIES

| | |
|---|---|
| *Accomac | *Dinwiddie |
| *Albemarle | *Essex |
| *Alleghany Highlands | *Fairfax |
| *Amelia | *Fauquier |
| *Amherst | Floyd |
| *Appomattox | *Fluvanna |
| *Arlington | *Franklin |
| *Augusta | *Frederick |
| *Bath | Giles |
| *Bedford | *Gloucester |
| Bland | *Goochland |
| Botetourt | *Grayson |
| *Brunswick | *Greene |
| *Buchanan | *Greensville |
| *Buckingham | *Halifax |
| *Campbell | *Hanover |
| *Caroline | *Henrico |
| *Carroll | *Henry |
| *Charles City | *Highland |
| *Charlotte | *Isle of Wight |
| *Chesterfield | King George |
| *Clarke | King and Queen |
| *Craig | *King William |
| Culpeper | *Lancaster |
| Cumberland | *Lee |
| *Dickenson | *Loudoun |

*Louisa

*Lunenburg

*Madison

Mathews

*Mecklenburg

*Middlesex

*Montgomery

Nelson

*New Kent

Northampton.

*Northumberland

*Nottoway

*Orange

*Page

*Patrick

*Pittsylvania

*Powhatan

Prince Edward

*Prince George

*Prince William

*Pulaski

*Rappahannock

*Richmond

*Roanoke

*Rockbridge

*Rockingham

*Russell

*Scott

*Shenandoah

*Smyth

*Southampton

*Spotsylvania

*Stafford

Surry

Sussex

*Tazewell

*Warren

*Washington

Westmoreland

*Wise

*Wythe

*York

# VIRGINIA CITIES

| | |
|---|---|
| *Alexandria | *Poquoson |
| Bedford City | *Portsmouth |
| *Bristol | *Radford |
| *Buena Vista | *Richmond City |
| *Charlottesville | *Roanoke City |
| *Chesapeake | *Salem |
| Colonial Heights | South Boston |
| *Covington | *Staunton |
| *Danville | *Suffolk |
| *Fairfax City | *Virginia Beach |
| Falls Church | *Waynesboro |
| Franklin City | *Williamsburg |
| *Fredericksburg | *Winchester |
| *Galax | |
| *Hampton | |
| *Harrisonburg | |
| *Hopewell | |
| Lexington | |
| *Lynchburg | |
| *Manassas | |
| *Manassas Park | |
| Martinsville | |
| *Newport News | |
| *Norfolk | |
| Norton | |
| *Petersburg | |

TOWNS

Cape Charles

*Colonial Beach

*Fries

*West Point

*Selected from simple random sample to participate in the study.

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER FOR PILOT STUDY

.

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**East Tennessee State University**
**College of Education**
Department of Supervision and Administration • Box 19000A • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002 • (615) 929-4415, 4430

Dear Fellow Educator:

Would you please read and respond to the enclosed questionnaire and opinionnaire. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Supervision and Administration at East Tennessee State University. I am currently involved in a pilot study for my dissertation.

My study involves a comparison of supervisors' perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for selected supervisory roles. The study has been approved by my doctoral committee.

You have been randomly selected, along with ninety-nine (99) other educators involved in supervisory duties, to assist in the validation of the questionnaire that I plan to use in my research. As you read the questionnaire, please look for clarity and relevance of the selected supervisory roles. If any item needs improvement, please give me your suggestions.

I truly appreciate your help in this important process. Your responses will not be included in the actual study. However, your input concerning the clarity and relevance of the questionnaire is essential to the success of my study. Neither your name nor your school system's name will be identified in this research.

The completed questionnaire and opinionnaire may be returned to me in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope. Thank you for your time and effort.

Sincerely,

Sandra C. Richardson

Sandra C. Richardson
Doctoral Candidate

Charles W. Burkett
Dissertation Director

Enclosures

APPENDIX C

INFORMATION SHEETS FROM INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

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IRB FORM 102                                                    Page 1

EAST TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY
IRB Assurance #M1194
IRB Identification #01NR

<u>CERTIFICATE OF SPECIAL ASSURANCE</u>

Full Title:  Actual and Ideal Role Perceptions of Instructional
Supervisors in the Public Schools of Virginia

Project #:  87-950s

Project Director:

Multi-Institutional Projects:

    Sponsoring Organizations:

    Principal Investigator:  Sandra Clark Richardson

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF RISKS AND BENEFITS:  see attached
informed consent

INFORMED CONSENT PROCEDURES:  see attached informed consent

PROCEDURES FOR PROMPT REPORTING:

    Any changes or adverse reactions will be reported to the
    Chairman of the Institutional Review Board utilizing
    standard reporting procedures.  See policy statement on next
    page.

The Board will review this project at least at twelve (12) month
intervals.


I, Ernest Daigneault, Ph.D., Chairman of the Institutional
Review Board, endorse the above Certificate of Special Assurance
and certify that ETSU has established an Institutional Review
Board satisfying the requirements of the 45 C.F.R. Sec. 46.



_____Opine 4/4987_____                _____Dr. Ernest Daigneault_____
Date                                  Dr. Ernest Daigneault, Chairman

**East Tennessee State University**
Institutional Review Board • Box 19450A • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002 • (615) 929-6133

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title:   Actual and Ideal Role Perceptions of Instructional
Supervisors in the Public Schools of Virginia
Principal Investigator:   Sandra Clark Richardson

You have been asked to participate in a research project conducted by
Ms. Sandra C. Richardson, a student at East Tennessee State
University.  The purpose of this research (experiment) is to
determine the actual and ideal roles of instructional supervisors.
The results of this study may improve the future of supervisory
training, clarify job descriptions, and decrease role conflict.
There are no discomforts or inconveniences associated with
participation as a subject in this study.  The questionnaire will
take approximately five to ten minutes of your time.  A return
envelope will be provided to you.  Your identity will remain
anonymous, and all information obtained in this study is
confidential.  Your participation is totally voluntarily.
If you have any questions about this study, you may call Ms. Sandra
Richardson at 703-794-7268 or Dr. Charles Burkett at East Tennessee
State University Department of Supervision and Administration.
While your rights and privacy will be maintained, the Secretary of
the Department of Health and Human Services and the ETSU
Institutional Review Board do have free access to any information
obtained in this study should it become necessary. You may withdraw
from this study at any time (simply by not mailing in your
questionnaire) without prejudice.  Although there are no risks
associated with participation in this study, you must understand that
while East Tennessee State University does not provide compensation
other than emergency first aid, for any physical injury that may
occur as a result of your participation as a subject in this study,
claims arising against ETSU or any of its agents or employees may be
submitted to the Tennessee Claims Commission for disposition to the
extent allowable as provided under TCA Section 9-8-307.  Further
information concerning this may be obtained from the Chairman of the
Institutional Review Board.
If you have read and fully understood the above information, and
agree to participate as a subject in this study, please fill out the
enclosed questionnaire.  Completing and returning the questionnaire
implies consent on your part.  Thank you for your cooperation and
assistance.

APPENDIX D

PILOT STUDY - GROUP 1: QUESTIONNAIRE AND OPINIONNAIRE

302

Please circle one number under <u>actual time</u> and one number under <u>ideal time</u> to indicate the amount of time that you spend/prefer to <u>spend each week</u> on each selected supervisory role.

```
Time Scale in Minutes:
     (1)   0- 30
     (2)  31- 60
     (3)  61- 90
     (4)  91-120
     (5)  121 or more
```

| Selected Supervisory Roles | Actual Time<br>How much time you<br>currently spend | Ideal Time<br>How much time<br>you would like<br>to spend |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Curriculum Development<br><br>(Includes developing materials, organizing materials, coordinating instructional activities) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. Staff Development<br><br>(Includes planning and providing in-service education, orienting new staff, conferring with teachers about instructional programs) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. Evaluation of Instruction<br><br>(Includes observing teaching, suggesting new ideas for instruction, analyzing instructional programs) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Providing Materials, Facilities, and Staff<br><br>(Includes selecting textbooks and instructional materials, designing school facilities, securing special pupil services) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. Disseminating Information<br><br>(Includes explaining curriculum and instructional programs to community members and school staff, public relations activities, internal and external communications) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. Instructional Leadership<br><br>(Includes planning innovative instructional progams, changing old instructional programs, evaluating innovations) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. Administrative Duties<br><br>(Includes managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, evaluating teachers) | 1 2 3 4 5 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

**OPINIONNAIRE**

After reading the questionnaire, please complete this opinionnaire. Check the appropriate box to indicate the clarity _and_ relevance of each item. If any item needs improvement or is unacceptable, please give suggestions for improvement immediately following the item.

A - Acceptable; NI - Needs Improvement; UA - Unacceptable

| Selected Supervisory Roles | CLARITY | | | RELEVANCE | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A | NI | UA | A | NI | UA |

1. **Curriculum Development**

   (Includes developing materials, organizing materials, coordinating instructional activity)
   Suggestions: _____

2. **Staff Development**

   (Includes planning and providing in-service education, orienting new staff, conferring with teachers about instructional programs)
   Suggestions: _____

3. **Evaluation of Instruction**

   (Includes ovserving teaching, suggesting new ideas for instruction, analyzing instructional programs)
   Suggestions: _____

4. **Providing Materials, Facilities, and Staff**

   (Includes selecting textbooks and instructional materials, designing school facilities, securing special pupil services)
   Suggestions: _____

5. **Disseminating Information**

   (Includes explaining curriculum and instructional programs to community members and school staff, public relations activities, internal and external communications)
   Suggestions: _____

6. **Instructional Leadership**

   (Includes planning innovative instructional programs, changing old instructional programs, evaluating innovations)
   Suggestions: _____

7. **Administrative Duties**

   (Includes managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, evaluating teachers)
   Suggestions: _____

APPENDIX E

PILOT STUDY - GROUP 2: QUESTIONNAIRE AND OPINIONNAIRE

305

Under the Actual Time column, please circle one number to estimate the percentage of time that you spend during the school year on each selected supervisory role.

Under the Ideal Time column, please circle one number to estimate the percentage of time that you would like to spend during the school year on each selected supervisory role.

Time Scale (in Percent):
(1)   0- 20%
(2)  21- 40%
(3)  41- 60%
(4)  61- 80%
(5)  81-100%

| Selected Supervisory Roles | Actual Time<br>How much time you currently spend | Ideal Time<br>How much time you would like to spend |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Curriculum Development<br><br>(Examples: developing and revising curriculum guides, developing courses of study, organizing materials for instructional use) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 2. Staff Development<br><br>(Examples: planning and providing in-service education workshops, conferences, and seminars for professional development of personnel, teaching or arranging college credit classes, orienting new staff, conferring with teachers about instructional programs) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 3. Program Evaluation<br><br>(Examples: observing and conferring with teachers for purpose of improving instruction, suggesting new ideas for instruction, evaluating instructional programs, discussing instructional programs with administrators, reviewing and evaluating test data) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 4. Providing Resources<br><br>(Examples: locating, obtaining, and creating instructional support materials, providing instructional equipment, suggesting and promoting the use of physical and human community resources) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 5. Disseminating Information<br><br>(Examples: explaining curriculum and instructional programs to community members and school staff, public relations activities, internal and external communications) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 6. Instructional Leadership<br><br>(Examples: planning innovative instructional programs, updating or revising instructional programs, overseeing the implementation and evaluation of instructional programs, evaluating innovations, reading and reviewing professional journals) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |
| 7. Administrative Duties<br><br>(Examples: managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, assuming the administrative role of evaluating teachers for purposes of tenure, merit pay, renewal of contract, dismissal, etc.) | 1  2  3  4  5 | 1  2  3  4  5 |

OPINIONNAIRE

After reading the questionnaire, please complete this opinionnaire. Check the appropriate box to indicate the clarity and relevance of each item. If any item needs improvement or is unacceptable, please give suggestions for improvement immediately following the item.

A - Acceptable;  NI - Needs Improvement;  UA - Unacceptable

**Selected Supervisory Roles**

|  | CLARITY | | | RELEVANCE | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | A | NI | UA | A | NI | UA |

1. **Curriculum Development**

   (Examples: developing and revising curriculum guides, developing courses of study, organizing materials for instructional use)
   
   Suggestions: _____

2. **Staff Development**

   (Examples: planning and providing in-service education workshops, conferences, and seminars for professional development of personnel, teaching or arranging college credit classes, orienting new staff, conferring with teachers about instructional problems)
   
   Suggestions: _____

3. **Program Evaluation**

   (Examples: observing and conferring with teachers for purpose of improving instruction, suggesting new ideas for instruction, evaluating instructional programs, discussing instructional programs with administrators, reviewing and evaluating test data)
   
   Suggestions: _____

4. **Providing Resources**

   (Examples: locating, obtaining, and creating instructional support materials, providing instructional equipment, suggesting and promoting the use of physical and human community resources)
   
   Suggestions: _____

5. **Disseminating Information**

   (Examples: explaining curriculum and instructional programs to community members and school staff, public relations activities, internal and external communications)
   
   Suggestion: _____

6. **Instructional Leadership**

   (Examples: planning innovative instructional programs, updating or revising instructional programs, overseeing the implementation and evaluation of instructional programs, evaluating innovations, reading and reviewing professional journals)
   
   Suggestions: _____

7. **Administrative Duties**

   (Examples: managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, assuming the administrative role of evaluating teachers for purposes of tenure, merit pay, renewal of contract, dismissal, etc.)
   
   Suggestions: _____

APPENDIX F

COVER LETTER FOR ACTUAL STUDY

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**East Tennessee State University**
**College of Education**
Department of Supervision and Administration • Box 19000A • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-0002 • (615) 929-4415, 4430

Dear Fellow Educator:

    Would you please read and respond to the enclosed questionnaire. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Supervision and Administration at East Tennessee State University. I am currently conducting a study for my dissertation. The questionnaire is for the purpose of gathering data for the study.

    My study involves a comparison of supervisors' perceptions regarding the amount of actual and ideal time allocated for selected supervisory roles. The study has been approved by my doctoral committee and the East Tennessee State University Institutional Review Board.

    You have been randomly selected, along with three hundred and sixty-two (362) other educators involved in supervisory duties, to participate in this research. Your input is essential to the success of my study.

    I will truly appreciate your help. Neither your name nor your school system's name will be identified in this research.

    The completed questionnaire may be returned to me in the enclosed stamped self-addressed envelope. Thank you for your time and effort.

Sincerely,

*Sandra C. Richardson*

Sandra C. Richardson
Doctoral Candidate

Approved by: *Charles W. Burkett*
Charles W. Burkett
Dissertation Director

Enclosures

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE

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QUESTIONNAIRE
for
Selected Instructional Supervisors
in the Public Schools of Virginia


Please complete the following items by checking the appropriate response.

1. Currently Supervising

    ( ) 1. Elementary
    ( ) 2. Secondary
    ( ) 3. Other _____

2. Age

    ( ) 1. 20-29
    ( ) 2. 30-39
    ( ) 3. 40-49
    ( ) 4. 50-59
    ( ) 5. 60-69

3. Highest Degree

    ( ) 1. Bachelor's
    ( ) 2. Master's
    ( ) 3. Specialist or equivalent
    ( ) 4. Doctorate

4. If you hold a graduate degree, is it in the field of educational supervision?

    ( ) 1. Yes
    ( ) 2. No
    ( ) 3. Not applicable

5. Title

    ( ) 1. General Supervisor
    ( ) 2. Subject Specialist
    ( ) 3. Director
    ( ) 4. Coordinator
    ( ) 5. Other _____

6. Sex

    ( ) 1. Male
    ( ) 2. Female

Under the <u>Actual Time</u> column, please circle one number to estimate the percentage of time that you <u>spend</u> during the school year on each selected supervisory role.

Under the <u>Ideal Time</u> column, please circle one number to estimate the percentage of time that you <u>would like to spend</u> during the school year on each selected supervisory role.

Time Scale (in Percent):

- (1)  0- 20%
- (2) 21- 40%
- (3) 41- 60%
- (4) 61- 80%
- (5) 81-100%

| Selected Supervisory Roles | Actual Time How much time you currently spend | | | | | Ideal Time How much time you would like to spend | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Curriculum Development (Examples: developing and revising curriculum guides, developing courses of study, organizing materials for instructional use) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Staff Development (Examples: planning and providing in-service education workshops, conferences, and seminars for professional development of personnel, teaching or arranging college credit classes, orienting new staff, conferring with teachers about instructional programs) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Program Evaluation (Examples: observing and conferring with teachers for purpose of improving instruction, suggesting new ideas for instruction, evaluating instructional programs, discussing instructional programs with administrators, reviewing and evaluating test data) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Providing Resources (Examples: locating, obtaining, and creating instructional support materials, providing instructional equipment, suggesting and promoting the use of physical and human community resources) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Disseminating Information (Examples: explaining curriculum and instructional programs to community members and school staff, public relations activities, internal and external communications) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Instructional Leadership (Examples: planning innovative instructional programs, updating or revising instructional programs, overseeing the implementation and evaluation of instructional programs, evaluating innovations, reading and reviewing professional journals) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Administrative Duties (Examples: managing the day-to-day functions of the school system, clerical activities, assuming the administrative role of evaluating teachers for purposes of tenure, merit pay, renewal of contract, dismissal, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

# VITA

## SANDRA C. RICHARDSON

| | |
|---|---|
| **Personal Data:** | Date of Birth:  May 4, 1956<br>Place of Birth:  Lebanon, VA<br>Marital Status:  Married |

**Education:**

Public Schools, Russell County, VA, 1974
Southwest Virginia Community College
   Richlands, VA, A. S., 1975
Clinch Valley College, Wise, VA
   Elementary Education, B. S., 1976
University of Virginia, Charlottesville,
   VA, Elementary Education, Curriculum &
   Instruction, Master's, 1982
East Tennessee State University, Johnson
   City, TN, Educational Supervision,
   Ed. D., 1987

**Certification:**

NK-4
4-7
Elementary Supervisor
Elementary Principal

**Professional Experience:**

Classroom Teacher, E. B. Stanley
   Elementary School, Abingdon, VA,
   1976-87
Doctoral Fellow, East Tennessee State
   University, Johnson City, TN, 1987
Internship, Clinch Valley College,
   Wise, VA, 1987

**Professional Memberships:**

Phi Delta Kappa
Association for Supervision and
   Curriculum Development

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