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The effects of school climate and selected school climate variables on the outcomes of clinical supervision.

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THE EFFECTS OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SELECTED SCHOOL CLIMATE VARIABLES ON THE OUTCOMES OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION

A Dissertation Presented

By

THOMAS F. FOWLER-FINN

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DEDICATION

Over the course of the writing of this dissertation there were many who influenced this researcher and what you are about to read. Amost invariably, researchers and practitioners from across the country lent their encouragement and support. The participants were marvelous in their thoughtful consideration of the survey material and in their dedication to excellence in education. Working with them has been uplifting to the spirit.

The entire dissertation committee has been encouraging through high expectations and support to meet them. In particular, Dr. Richard D. Konicek never waivered in his belief in my ability, Dr. Horace Reed stimulated me to continually probe for the more meaningful underlying notions of the work, and Dr. Castelano Turner was diligent with his consideration of the more intricate and technical aspects of the work.

Finally, this dissertation represents a joint effort. My wife, Susan, listened endlessly to draft after draft, served as research assistant, and managed most everything else in our lives through it all in a love filled home with our new son Wesley. We did it together.

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SELECTED SCHOOL CLIMATE VARIABLES ON THE OUTCOMES OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION

September, 1980

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The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of school climate on the outcomes of clinical supervision. Hypotheses stated that the overall school climate and the climate variables of "caring" and "opportunity for input" enhance, enable, and predict productive clinical supervision.

A search of the literature revealed critical interrelationships between both underlying assumptions and practices of clinical supervision and school climate concepts. An analysis of school climate factors as they facilitate or hinder productive clinical supervision in public schools revealed strong arguments for the need to obtain an understanding of school climate in order to implement and support clinical supervision efforts. Consistency between school climate factors and clinical supervision is a natural tendency that effects the outcomes of the supervision. This same tendency exists between all organizational suprasystems and subsystems within.

In nine schools utilizing clinical supervision (including both elementary and middle school levels) teacher perceptions were surveyed. Two hundred seven teachers completed a four part questionnaire which included the following instruments: 1. general information about participants, 2. an instrument developed by the researcher to assess the quality of the clinical supervision model used in each school, 3. an instrument to assess the productivity of the clinical supervision developed by Shuma (1973) and modified and revised by the researcher, and 4. the Questionnaire Developed from Factor Analysis of the CKF Ltd. School Climate Profile.

The data consisted of responses on a scale of 1 to 4, as well as responses to open-ended questions. The analysis included tests of reliability, correlation, hierarchical multiple regression, and content analysis of specific items. Findings were significant to the .01 level and strongly supportive of the hypotheses. Some of the conclusions drawn were:

1. The quality of supervision is a strong predictor of the outcomes of the supervision.

2. The quality of supervision and outcomes of supervision scales were statistically reliable instruments useful to assess clinical supervision currently in use in the public schools.

3. Each of the school climate variables proved to be useful in the prediction of clinical supervision outcomes.

4. School level did not make a difference in any of the results.

5. In this sample the principal productively practiced clinical supervision while also serving the role of evaluator.

6. In this sample clinical supervision was productive in public schools.

7. There is a complementary interrelationship between a healthy school climate and a high quality clinical supervision model.

8. School climate factors and their effects on clinical supervision are understandable and within the power of school personnel to alter.

Also outlined are five methods of using climate data to effectively implement clinical supervision. It is suggested that ignoring climate factors severely decreases the likelihood of productive clinical supervision. A strong case is made for building school climate by design and planning rather than allowing it to occur by default because of the strong relationship between climate and clinical supervision (as well as other subsystems). Additional conclusions and recommendations for both the practitioner and researcher are offered. Communications with experts from over a dozen states and conjecture on applications of the study are discussed in the epilogue. The researcher can be reached at 8 Benjamin Road, Worcester, Massachusetts 01602.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The sources of entertainment and stimulation for America's youth force schools into a position of either competing to provide excitement, captivation, and motivation while drilling basic skills or feeling the strong grit of disquieted, exasperated, and vocal students and parents. The gifted/talented student must be challenged and educated to the fullest potential. The student whose needs to become educated are complicated by a slow learning pace, a handicap, or emotional difficulties are supposed to learn as well as anyone else. The "average" or "normal" student is expected to master basic skills (and more) but not miss an advantage any other student may receive. All students must feel excited to walk into the classroom but be made to respectfully sit and do hard work. The school is a place in which a diverse and demanding population must feel welcomed and respected, yet the education of the students must not become "watered down." These swelling expectations float in the school hallways while simultaneously, budgets are being cut, staffs are being reduced, and staff turnover is limited. The requirement of the times was aptly stated by Buckminster Fuller in a speech delivered the evening of June 24, 1977 on the University of

Massachusetts--Amherst campus when he said we all must "learn to do more with less" if we are to survive. Typically, schools have attempted to increase effectiveness through the hiring of new and more appropriately trained staff. However, no longer can schools replenish themselves as they have in the past. Thus, the effective supervision and improvement of instruction has assumed an increasingly critical role in the improvement of the quality of education. The principal is in a strategic position to help the school as an institution as well as to help individual teachers currently on tenure to continuously improve performance to meet the challenge.

In the last thirty years the development of new supervision methods has provided the means by which in depth analysis of the teaching/learning situation can be conducted. Improvement of instruction techniques such as clinical supervision are at the disposal of the supervisor/principal and the classroom teachers, yet the necessary training and experience with these techniques is limited, and the actual practice is quite rare (Pierce, 1975). Krajewski (1976) outlines the problem as it relates to clinical supervision:

> Clinical supervision remains in the embryo stage. In theory, it is likened to the enumerated relationship of research and development--it is readily accepted. In practice however, this is not the case. And why? The author contends that most supervisors today lack the necessary skills to adequately analyze teaching behavior in the classroom. The reason for this is twofold; first, inadequate university supervisor training programs. How many preparation programs require such training? Secondly, what provisions exist for

> supervisors to receive on-the-job training in clinical supervision skills, whether it be from their school district or from the ASCD organization programs? Unfortunately the answer to both questions is that too few opportunities exist in either situation. A survey of preparation programs from representative universities will reveal that not many offer intensive courses in clinical skills of analysis. In school districts, on the job training for skills is relegated to isolated workshops or inservice days and usually it's just surface-level training. (p. 65)

Thus, the need for effective supervision is great and it appears to be at the disposal of practitioners well trained in new methods, but little training has occurred. Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975) agree that development of necessary skills has not taken place, yet they too cite the potential of the new methods. In a clear, concise, and comprehensive study of related literature on clinical supervision, Anthony J. Mattaliano (1977) supports the statement that the theory of clinical supervision is widely accepted. Theoretical foundations of perceptual psychology, learning theory, models for change, and organizational behavior were found to be supportive of the clinical supervision methodology. Krajewski (1976) refers to clinical supervision as an "ideal" whose "time has come." In a review of research on supervision, Reavis (1978) cites three researchers who found teacher attitudes toward clinical supervision more positive than toward traditional supervision (traditional supervision was favored in no instances). He cites four researchers who found positive changes in teacher behavior as a result of clinical supervision, while no studies

found changes favoring traditional supervision. In concluding remarks, Reavis (1978) states:

> Taken as a whole, the studies affirm clinical supervision as a positive and beneficial model for the improvement of instrumention.
>
> Word by Goodlad, Harris, Blumberg, Walker, and Reavis suggests that supervisors are not as effective as they could be. Clinical supervision is a tested, researched alternative to in-class supervision as generally practiced. (p. 48)

However, lack of training and experience with the method are only two of the problems preventing effective implementation of clinical supervision in today's public schools. Harris (1976) refers to a host of limitations:

> Perhaps the most clearly evident limitations restricting the fullest use of clinical supervision are related to the realities of school, classroom, and community settings where teachers live and work. Time, cross pressures, anxieties, peer pressures, and organizational constraints are all destined to improve limits on both the efficiency and effectiveness of clinical procedures. These are, of course, the same realities that confront any effort toward change, but their influence on clinical practice may be somewhat unique. (p. 86)

It may be a fundamental problem that this enlightened approach embodies enlightened research, theory, and practice (perhaps even philosophy) not yet common to other parts or subsystems of the school nor fully embraced by the school environment. Although consistent with sound and accepted theory and research, clinical supervision goals and characteristics may contradict many of the climate characteristics common in today's schools. This contradiction may hinder successful

implementation of clinical supervision even in schools where adequate training and experience have been provided. Clinical supervision does exist in practice, but public school climate may prevent it from achieving full potential.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to analyze the interrelationship between perceived school climate quality and clinical supervision quality, and the impact this interrelationship has on teacher satisfaction with the outcomes of clinical supervision as it has been implemented in selected public schools.

Importance of the Study

Clinical supervision, developed by Morris Cogan and his associates in the fifties, holds promise for effective supervision. It is tempting to suggest that the solution to today's need for the improvement of the teaching/learning situation could be solved by the implementation of clinical supervision in every school in America. Given the best training and limited experience, perhaps instruction would keep pace with a changing society and increased demands. However, the implementation of clinical supervision alone would be inadequate. Charles Reavis (1978) hints at additional variables that must be considered:

> There is no magic in the clinical supervision mode itself. Just following the five steps in a mechanical fashion will not achieve the change in the supervisor/teacher relationship that is needed. Clinical supervision merely provides the framework in which communication and colleagueship may develop. Traditionally, supervisors have been seen as authoritarian figures who have dominated the conferences, making most of the suggestions for improvement. The preobservation conference changes this traditional relationship. The teacher now does most of the talking and the supervisor primarily functions as a facilitator, a listener. Habits of both the teacher and the supervisor are difficult to break, however, and even in the clinical supervision model the supervisor can begin to dominate the preobservation conference.
>
> Only a disciplined effort to improve communication skills and a sincere respect for the integrity of the teacher as a fellow professional will assure that the potential of clinical supervision is achieved. (p. 17)

Reavis refers to the critical nature of the relationship between supervisor and teacher. It is hard to believe that the implementation alone of clinical supervision would change the nature of a relationship that has developed over time between supervisors and teachers, their roles and interactions, and the beliefs, norms and values that have grown from both formal and informal behaviors within the school organization. Arthur Blumberg (1974) alludes to the complicated and integrated way in which organizational behavior is determined:

> People working in organizations do not behave in a vacuum. Much of what we do and our particular behavioral styles reflect the norms, values, and organization of the social system in which we are employed. Organizations, by their very being, develop frames of reference within which people behave and interact. And, in interactive fashion, these

> frames of reference are changed over time by the behavior of the people who work in the organizations. (p. 25)

The author suggests that norms, values, and structures of the public schools such as the quasi-autonomous relationship between schools and the central office, the cellular design of classrooms, tenure laws, ill-defined standards of effective teaching, etc. all alter the effectiveness of supervision in public school. His analysis suggests that interpersonal transactions and other problems that occur as supervisors and teachers meet in the supervision setting is the point at which most problems of supervision occur. The school climate directly affects the events that occur at this point in time.

To implement clinical supervision in public schools requires that a five step process not only be adopted but facilitated by open, respectful, caring communication in a collegial relationship between supervisor and teacher. These necessary behavior patterns may not be typical in most schools. The standard supervisor-teacher relationship, usually associated with authority lines, position status, subordination, pay differentials, and evaluation or rating has not been marked by teacher feelings of productive or beneficial supervision (Lortie, 1975; Blumberg, 1974; Wiles, 1953; Blumberg and Amidon, 1965; Alfonso, Firth and Neville, 1975). There clearly is a need to improve supervision efforts, yet the climate of the schools as described by the authors above (as well as a myriad of others) would seem to provide a

hostile environment--at best only somewhat supportive--to the implementation of clinical supervision. Kurt Lewin (1961) has used force field analysis as a tool for diagnosing systems for change readiness and developing a change strategy. His work is discussed in Chapter Two. Briefly here, he holds that individuals and systems are held in equilibrium by a balance of driving forces on one hand and restraining forces on the other. In terms of this study, it could be said that the implementation of clinical supervision will be greeted by both driving and restraining forces that originate from the school climate. If clinical supervision is an effective method of supervision, as suggested earlier, then it makes sense to analyze school climate for as many driving forces as possible to insure successful implementation of clinical supervision.

As stated by Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975):

> A change effort will be more effective if it is perceived as building on existing practice rather than threatening it. It will be easier for a supervisor to bring about change if he can show that it builds on current practice and does not discard all that is valued or currently in vogue. A supervisor who indicates by word or deed that the proposed change is a condemnation of current methods of operation creates a situation in which teachers will endeavor to defend current practices rather than welcome new ones. (p. 187)

This is not to say that clinical supervision cannot or should not be implemented in public schools because the school climate is too hostile. But enlightened supervision practices alone cannot achieve

their designed potential in the public school environment. Thus, the Kettering Foundation has taken the position that the principal's paramount role is not to provide leadership in the improvement and supervision of instruction as has historically been espoused, but rather to provide school climate leadership. It is in this latter role that the norms, values, and structures of the institution can be affected to allow for more humane and productive supervision to take place. As stated in the C.F.K., Ltd., Occasional Paper (1973):

> For the most part, efforts to improve designs for the principalship have suggested means to improve the principal's contributions as an instructional leader.
> The authors challenge [the position that the principal's paramount role is that of leadership of the improvement and supervision of instruction] and argue that the school administrator is first and foremost a climate leader and that his key function is improvement of the school's climate or learning environment. (p. 23)

This investigation is concerned with the effectiveness of clinical supervision in the public schools, and thus, clinical supervision when implemented into the context of the organizational climate, must have substantial facilitating climate forces if it is to be successfully implemented. As Robert Fox et al. (1973) suggest:

> School staffs are becoming increasingly aware that their professional work is done within an organizational and interpersonal climate. The climate is dependent upon such variables as:
> Communication patterns.
> Norms about what's appropriate or how things should be done.
> Role relationships and role perceptions.

> Influence relationships.
> Rewards and sanctions.
> There are two basic indicators of a healthy school climate: effective learning and personal satisfaction. In schools with healthy climates, innovations are easily developed and teachers feel good about their relationships. If the climate is not healthy, there may be low innovativeness, job dissatisfaction, alienation, lack of creativity, complaceny, conformity, and frustration. (p. ix)

Clinical supervision is a process for supervision providing a framework through which the supervisor-teacher relationship can become productive for teacher and consequently for student learning. The importance of this study is discussed in terms of a systems analysis point of view (Hill, 1972) in which clinical supervision is pictured as one subsystem of the larger, comprehensive, and complicated system of school climate. Lewin's work (1961) is a systems analysis mode of investigation that will be helpful in bringing issues to the foreground in forthcoming chapters. To summarize a major point of the discussion thus far, the reader is referred to an unusual dissertation written by two authors, Jenkins and Tunney (1975), on the topic of school climate in which the authors state:

> A positive school climate is both a means and an end. A good climate makes it possible for important things, such as academic learning, social development, and curriculum improvement to be worked upon productively. (p. 29)

Conversely, it is also suggested that school climate can make it impossible for important things to be worked on productively or that important things (such as clinical supervision) cannot be worked

upon productively without significant driving forces in the school climate. This study is needed because the implementation of clinical supervision holds unsurpassed promise yet it will take knowledge and understanding of the relationship between clinical supervision and school climate before implementation can take place successfully. It would be tragic for the future of supervision if clinical supervision was implemented without consideration of climate factors. Rejection of a promising method of supervision could occur unjustifiably, and resentment might be developed toward implementing innovative supervision because the innovator's failure to implement against unknown overwhelmingly hindering climate factors dealt a punishing blow. This latter effect is what Likert (1967) refers to as a "vaccine" against change, and it has the effect of entrenching an organization and the status quo.

Not only is a supportive climate necessary for the innovator to implement a new supervision model, but such a climate is necessary to the teacher who shares in the innovation and attempts to change teaching practices through the use of the innovation. As Sergiovanni (1976) alludes:

> Equally important though not discussed in this paper is the provision of an appropriate support system and the cultivation of adoptable alternatives as the teacher seeks to modify his platform in use. (p. 28)

In clinical supervision the supervisor's role is to help the teacher sort and recognize his/her own perceptions, compare those perceptions to observed behavioral data organized into patterns of behavior, deal nondefensively with new information, and accept or reject new information into his/her perceptual field based on rational, thoughtful, and productive behavior. The resulting changes in teacher's perceptual field are indirectly what produce changes in the teaching/learning situation. Supervisor can "tell" teacher in every supervisory conference the same message over and over in various ways, but if teacher doesn't perceive a need for change or doesn't perceive a difference between "what is" and "what ought to be," no change will occur (Goldhammer, 1969; Combs, 1964; Cogan, 1973). Thus, the supervisor's chief role is to create the type of environment in which teacher is willing and desirous of accepting new information for the purposes of possible modification of the platform in use. Doak (1970) discusses the climate necessary in the organization and the supervisory conference if productive changes are to occur:

> The climate of an organization is the first and most important concern in initiating and sustaining change. People simply do not change in a threatening atmosphere--they become defensive and entrench. They may change surface behaviors--conform--receive and respond at the lowest level possible and acceptable to the powers that be; but attitudinal change and subsequent behavioral change must be preceded by perceptual change. This implies a willingness to accept new information. It is here that the stage for change is set. (p. 368)

Once a teacher recognizes a need for change and in fact makes an attempt to adopt new methods or modify current practices, the climate must feel supportive to the teacher for such attempts to be continued or modified once again. Otherwise, the results of clinical supervision will be perceived as too big a risk. Brickell (1962) refers to the need for a supportive environment if attempts at change are to be lasting, successful, and a source of satisfaction:

> Proposed innovations often arouse feelings of inadequacy and uncertainty in teachers. These feelings should not be mistaken for *outright resistance* to the change; this is seldom the case.
>
> The key to successful innovation is providing assistance to the teachers as they begin to implement the new approach. More new programs have been destroyed by inability than by reluctance. (p. 84)

Thus, to summarize the importance of the study, it is the author's contention that clinical supervision should be studied because it holds wide acclaim as part of a solution to the problem of needing to do more with less. However, it should not be studied in isolation. It is but one subsystem of the school climate and implementation without taking school climate factors into consideration could be the death knell for a promising practice. Knowledge and perhaps alteration of school climate factors are necessary for facilitating a productive supervisor-teacher relationship, for appropriate implementation if clinical supervision is to be accepted on an organizational level consistent with organizational goals as well as on an individual

teacher or supervisor level, and finally, for support of resultant new practices attempted by teachers as an outcome of supervisory conferences.

Definition of Terms

Caring. The C.F.K. Occasional Paper (1973) states:

> Each individual in the school has the feeling that some other person or persons are concerned about him as a human being. Each knows his well being will make a difference to someone else. (p. 8)

Clinical supervision. Developed by Morris Cogan and his associates in the fifties, clinical supervision has since been defined and described by many researchers. Cogan (1973) states:

> Clinical supervision may therefore be defined as the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior. (p. 9)

Goldhammer (1969) defines clinical supervision from a description of the processes involved:

> Given close observation, detailed observational data, face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and teacher, and an intensity of focus that binds the two together in an intimate professional relationship, the meaning of "clinical" is pretty well filled out. An image of idiographic analysis of behavioral data and a tendency to develop categories of analysis after teaching has been observed, rather than beforehand, completes the picture. (p. 54)

Weller (1971) is more succinct in his definition, yet he bases it on the work of Cogan et al.:

> Clinical supervision may be defined as supervision focused upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation, and intensive intellectual analysis of actual teaching performances in the interest of rational modification. (p. 15)

Each of these definitions is helpful in understanding the rationale, process, and aims of clinical supervision. They are somewhat theoretical and general in nature however, and provide only a starting point for this investigation. For the purposes intended herein, the definition offered by Reavis (1978) is more useful because it reflects the work of the authors previously mentioned yet it also limits the definition by referring to it in such a way that it is more easily identifiable by practitioners in the public schools:

> Clinical supervision is a five-step process that aims at helping the teacher identify and clarify problems, receive data from the supervisor, and develop solutions with the aid of the supervisor. Traditional supervision all too often casts the supervisor in the role of a superior telling the teacher what needs to be changed and how to change it. Clinical supervision tends to produce a self-directed teacher; traditional supervision tends to produce an other-directed teacher. (p. 10)

The five steps referred to by Reavis (and used in this study) are: (1) Preobservation conference, (2) Observation, (3) Analysis and Strategy, (4) Supervisory Conference, and (5) Postconference Analysis. These steps are widely accepted as the outline of clinical supervision

practice although various titles have been used to denote each of the steps.

High versus low quality of clinical supervision. The extent to which the practice of clinical supervision includes each of the above five steps as a significant part of the process and the supervisor-teacher relationship is characterized by affective and cognitive two-way communication as well as colleagueship will determine the quality of the clinical supervision model. A high quality model will include all of these dimensions with an emphasis on teacher concerns and a lack of supervisor dominated conferences (Reavis, 1978, p. 17).

Colleagueship. The definition offered by Cogan (1973) states:

> In colleagueship the teacher and clinical supervisor work together as associates and equals, and they are bound together by a common purpose.. This purpose is the improvement of students' learning through the improvement of the teacher's instruction, and it does not diminish the autonomy and independence the teacher should have. (p. 68)

Opportunity for input. The C.F.K. Occasional Paper (1973) states:

> A situation where persons within the organization have the opportunity to contribute ideas and have a feeling that they have been considered. (p. 7)

School climate. Jenkins and Tunney (1975) provide the following definition:

> The term "climate" as used in this paper is defined as the aggregate of social and cultural conditions which influence behavior in the school--all of the forces, to which the individual responds, which are present in the school environment. (p. 29)

High versus low quality of school climate. The C.F.K. Occasional Paper (1973) states:

> A good climate makes it possible to work productively toward important goals, such as academic learning, social development, and curriculum improvement.
> It also makes school a good place to be, a satisfying and meaningful situation in which both adults and youth care to spend a substantial portion of their time.
> Through their interaction, the programs, processes, and physical conditions of the school must provide for trust, respect, cohesiveness, caring, opportunities for input, high morale, school renewal, and continuous growth if a wholesome climate is to develop. (pp. 1, 10)

Supervisor/principal. Professional staff members having responsibility for establishing direction, goals and priorities for curriculum, and charged with the duty of helping teachers improve the teaching/learning situation in their respective schools or departments (Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Pierce, 1975). For the purposes of this study the principal is also a supervisor. Special note will be made when supervisor and principal are not one in the same.

Supervisory conference. Champagne and Hogan (1977) provide a succinct and useful definition:

> That sequence of events during which the discussion is intended to make some decisions about the subsequent behavior of either or both of the participants. (p. 337)

Hypotheses

This research studies the relationship of school climate to the clinical supervision model. It has already been suggested that a

high quality school climate will enable, enhance, and encourage productive outcomes of clinical supervision, while a low quality school climate will limit and discourage productive outcomes of clinical supervision no matter how high the quality of the supervision. Thus the following hypotheses have been developed for this study:

1. The higher the quality of school climate, the higher will be the quality of the outcomes of clinical supervision.

2. The higher the quality of "caring," the higher will be the quality of the outcomes of clinical supervision.

3. The higher the quality of "opportunity for input," the higher will be the quality of the outcomes of clinical supervision.

Approach to Problem Investigation

The hypotheses are tested through the administration of a survey to teachers in the public schools. The survey consists of four basic parts: general information, information solicited about the model of clinical supervision implemented in each school, information solicited about the outcomes of the supervision, and an assessment of the school climate. Data analysis techniques attempt to determine the relative impact the independent variables of school climate and the models of clinical supervision have on the single independent variable of supervision outcomes. Information on the various data analysis techniques and the survey is found in Chapter III. Techniques include straight

correlations, multiple regressions, and less formal content analysis methods. A stringent significance level of $p < .01$ has been established for the regression analysis results.

Basic Assumptions

1. Clinical supervision is one of the most effective formal supervision procedures available to practitioners.

2. The school organization can be meaningfully characterized through the concept of school climate as determined by the selected instrument.

3. The researcher is capable of formulating a survey with construct validity to reflect on the type, quality, and outcomes of clinical supervision models.

4. Self-report and respondent assessments of clinical supervision and school climate yield reliable and valid measures. Specifically, the extent to which respondents report on the instruments, reflect accurate and thorough measures of their attitudes and behaviors within the context of the study.

5. The design of the study and analysis of the data can lead to valid conclusions about the relationship of clinical supervision and school climate.

6. The relation of clinical supervision to school climate is a sufficiently powerful construct so as to overcome limitations of

imperfections of design and use of research instrumentation without reliability or validity measures.

Delimitations of the Study

1. The study is conducted by survey and self report of teachers and administrators.

2. The study is delimited to those school principals and department heads who perform clinical supervision on an individual basis, and not with a team. The respondents will be restricted to those teachers who have been clinically supervised by the above mentioned principals and department heads for more than one school year.

3. The experimental group is comprised only of those schools utilizing clinical supervision. Utilization of clinical supervision may, in and of itself, characterize the school climate in a particular way, thereby biasing the study.

4. Data is collected and analyzed from instruments designed by the researcher or from instruments without reliability and validity measures.

Limitations of the Study

1. The number of schools utilizing a clinical supervision model is limited, thereby limiting the size of the sample.

2. Because of a limited sample size and a possible bias of the nature of the school climates, generalizations of the conclusions must be cautiously made.

3. The survey instruments limit the expressed perceptions of the participants.

4. Data on the outcomes of clinical supervision are limited to self reports rather than observed behavior changes, evidence of student growth, etc.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The remainder of the study is organized into four chapters.

Chapter II reviews recent literature and research pertinent to the problem of how clinical supervision and school climate are related. Specifically, the review probes the underlying assumptions to the theory and process of clinical supervision and the consequent basis for the development of the clinical supervision questionnaire components used in this study. A parallel review of literature is conducted on school climate and the School Climate Profile. A special focus is research pertinent to the relationship between clinical supervision and school climate. Keys to this concept are the works of researchers such as Murray, Lewin, Sarason, Getzels and Guba, Likert, Lippitt, Doak, and others who helped to shed light on the interrelationships of clinical supervision and school climate.

Chapter III discusses the research procedures in detail. Information on instrumentation, the sample, data collection and analysis methodology is offered.

The results of the analysis are presented in Chapter IV. The hypotheses are addressed in light of the analysis results.

Chapter V is a presentation of the conclusions from the study and recommendations for further research. An epilogue is also offered which contains the researchers impressions and opinions formed during the research process and since completion of the work with the participating schools.

It should not be forgotten that this researchers first interest was, and still is, clinical supervision. As such, Chapter II begins with a review of clinical supervision literature. The chapter proceeds with a review of school climate literature just as initial work of this researcher with clinical supervision revealed that study of the school climate was a necessary venture in order to insure appropriate implementation of clinical supervision. From this starting point perspectives widened and ideas grew.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

As suggested in Chapter I, clinical supervision is in its infancy, and implementation in public schools is limited. Consequently, research on the actual practice of it is also limited. Initially clinical supervision evolved through experience and intuition at the Harvard-Newton Summer School and only recently have the basic underlying theoretical and conceptual assumptions of the practice been analyzed and set forth (Eaker, 1972; Mattaliano, 1977).

Similarly, implementation of school climate concepts and practices are limited and research on historical developments and underlying assumptions are meager (Jenkins and Tunney, 1975; Fox and colleagues, 1973). The development of the School Climate Profile and accompanying writings are growing and being rapidly revised (Jenkins and Tunney, 1975) as experience and research with the material open new paths and close others.

This dissertation will summarize available writings on underlying assumptions and theory of both clinical supervision and school climate. For information about historical developments and in-depth background on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, the reader is invited to consult sources referred to in the bibliography.

The true thrust of the research is to explore the possible interrelated aspects of both clinical supervision and school climate. Thus explored in the latter section of this chapter is research on the topics of systems and change theories that help reveal the nature of interdependence between school climate and the subsystem of clinical supervision. This provides a rationale for the simultaneous usage of the two variables in the research design and in considerations for field implementation or practice.

Basic Assumptions of Clinical Supervision

Review of the works of Mattaliano (1977), Eaker (1972), Fischler (1971), Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969), and a host of other researchers in the field of supervision has yielded material for this section. Basically the works of the first two authors summarize existing research and exhaust most of the available resources in doing so. Thus they form the heart of this section. Additions to their work are added where it appears appropriate and necessary.

Mattaliano (1977) thoroughly explores contributions from the fields of organizational behavior, learning theory, and perceptual psychology, and demonstrates how precepts from these fields evidence consistency with the practice of clinical supervision. His approach takes more literature and a broader spectrum of it into consideration than does the work of Eaker (1972). Mattaliano (1977) states:

> Clinical supervision may be thought of as being composed of 1) a cognitive dimension (data gathering), and 2) an affective dimension (the teacher-supervisor relationship over the data gathered). Although any of the eighty or so interaction analysis systems may be used to perform the data gathering function (Pierce, 1975), clinical supervision, alone establishes clear-cut guidelines for the supervisor's preparation and subsequent handling of the data in interaction with the teacher in the supervisory conference. It is also unique in its provision for the continuous progression of the teacher from a beginning awareness of his/her classroom performance, to a helping relationship with his supervisor, to the ultimate goal of professional self-actualization. (p. 102)

The supervision process is presented as a model in which individual and organization goals, the teacher as a person and as a professional, humaneness and organizational effectiveness and efficiency, and the teacher as learner and self-actualizer can be integrated in the practice of clinical supervision. Mattaliano (1977) states:

> . . . the principles and processes of perceptual psychology relating to the self-actualization of human beings are congruent with the teacher-supervisor relationship described in the clinical supervision literature as the basis for the practice of clinical supervision. It is a relationship based upon mutual trust and respect, on a collegial association, on the teacher's feelings about him/herself as a person, and on shared responsibility for the instruction of pupils (Cogan, 1973).
>
> The principles and practices of clinical supervision evolve naturally as extensions of the principles and practices of perceptual psychology.

He emphasizes the further congruence of the model to current thought on the conditions necessary for productive and satisfying human growth to occur. He suggests that clinical supervision has been designed to facilitate a trusting, nonthreatening, shared responsibility

teacher-supervisor relationship because that is required if meaningful, positive instructional change is to occur. Supervisor modeling for teacher is as important as teacher modeling for student. Teachers must be treated by supervisor as humanely and thoughtfully as teachers are expected to treat children. Valuing teacher feelings and interests, realizing that teacher perceptions paint what is "real" to teacher and must be the basis for any change, and recognizing that teacher dignity and self-worth must be honored and supported are conditions that are necessary if supervision is to be productive. From the literature, Mattaliano (1977) gleaned five goals of clinical supervision stated on page 90 as 1.) the enrichment of the student as the only real goal; 2.) the development of teacher competencies of diagnosing and meeting the needs of the client; 3.) helping to establish a teacher-supervisor relationship which will facilitate teacher's growth in self-analysis competencies; 4.) facilitation of improved instruction; and 5.) facilitation of teacher growth toward self-supervision.

Both Mattaliano (1977) and Eaker (1972) include the work of Weller (1971) in their discussion of underlying assumptions. From Mattaliano's (1977) broader perspective he warns on page 93, that Weller's contribution, although insightful, deals only with the "rational management of instruction through its fractionation." Eaker (1972) integrates Weller's (1971) work with the work of many authors, but Eaker tends to focus more on the rational management aspects than

Mattaliano (although not to the exclusion of other perspectives). Because Eaker surveyed teachers working in public schools to determine their attitudes toward clinical supervision assumptions, he states the assumptions concisely and in terms of what they look like when actually put into practice. This approach facilitated the teachers ability to respond to the assumptions, even though in some cases responses appeared to be colored by previous experiences with other forms of supervision. It should be noted that the works of both Mattaliano (1977) and Eaker (1972) are consistent. This researcher culled 25 significantly different assumptions from Eaker (1972), pages 41 to 86, as follows:

1.) The primary objective of clinical supervision is the improvement of the quality of instruction.

2.) Observations should deal with behavior rather than personality, and the supervisor will be most helpful to the teacher when observations are recorded as objectively as possible without accompanying value judgements.

3.) Supervisor and teacher must meet before any classroom observation is attempted in the clinical supervision cycle.

4.) Mutual trust must be established between supervisor and teacher in order for supervision to be effective.

5.) When participants are knowledgeable about the rationale, assumptions and procedures of clinical supervision, trust-building is facilitated.

6.) The rationale, assumptions, and procedures should be explained and be clear to the teacher before the classroom visit occurs.

7.) Teacher acceptance of supervision will be aided when the supervisor and teacher agree explicitly to what it is that the supervisor will be doing during the classroom visitation.

8.) The supervisor and teacher should review teacher objectives for the lesson, and teacher should be helped, if needed, to state the objectives in performance terms.

9.) Appropriate classroom behavior is defined in advance by the nature of teacher's objectives.

10.) Instructional strategies and materials teacher plans to use should be discussed with the supervisor before observation.

11.) The development of a personal style for each teacher and personalized teaching methods is to be encouraged by supervisor.

12.) Supervisor and teacher should agree as to which observations would be most helpful as a focus for the upcoming visitation.

13.) Classroom observation by the supervisor is an important function of supervision. Greater assistance can be rendered to teacher when the supervisor is close to what is happening in the classroom.

14.) As soon after the observation as possible, the supervisor should conference with the teacher to share and carefully analyze all the data obtained.

15.) One of the first activities to occur in the post-observation conference is for the supervisor and teacher to come to agreement on the reconstruction of what occurred in the lesson.

16.) Behavior is patterned and teaching behavior is patterned. These patterns can be identified and related to the instructional intent of the teacher.

17.) Teacher is capable of analyzing and able to withstand awareness of discrepancy between objectives or plans of the teacher and the observed behaviors that occurred.

18.) The supervisor and teacher should jointly identify patterns of behavior and analyze them in relation to the teacher's objectives.

19.) Instruction can be improved when patterns that impeded the attainment of the teacher's objectives are changed.

20.) Instruction can be improved when patterns that enhance the attainment of the teacher's objectives are reinforced and examined as future strategy.

21.) The supervisor should assist the teacher in the development of strategies for future teaching.

22.) Supervision should result in strategies which attempt to change or strengthen certain patterns of behavior, thus improving instruction.

23.) The supervisor should help the teacher develop the skills of self-analysis of the teaching performance.

24.) The supervisor should explore ways to help the teacher increase independence in the task of instructional improvement.

25.) The supervisor can be proficient in the process of clinical supervision while it is unreasonable to expect proficiency in each and every discipline.

In addition to Eaker's work above, Mattaliano (1977) pointed out literature to suggest that teacher is capable of both learning new patterns and using them to control his/her own behavior. Cogan (1973) noted that shared responsibility for the success of the supervision is conducive to behavioral change (p. 70). Sergiovanni (1976) reiterates this last assumption and in addition suggests that the focus of supervision should be on the strengths of the teacher and that given the right climate teachers are not only willing and able but desirous of increasing their competencies and success because they seek and derive satisfaction from accomplishing challenging and important work. Both Sergiovanni and Mattaliano draw from notions developed by McGregor (1979).

An additional source for understanding the underlying assumptions to clinical supervision is the work of Champagne and Hogan (1977). These authors suggest that the supervision model is consistent with humanistic psychology and a collegial relationship of coequals, and that it functions very much as it has been previously described in this chapter. However, these two authors emphasize an additional point

also expressed by Cogan (1973, p. 68). As Cogan put it, the premise is that each person entering into the clinical supervision relationship has "dissimilar and unequal competencies" to offer, and "this heterogeneity is nurtured in their association and constitutes one of its (clinical supervision's) greatest strengths. In clinical supervision the interaction of similar competencies at equal levels is generally less productive than the interaction of unequal levels of competence and dissimilar competencies."

Also not stated in previous works, although it is implied, is the statement by Cogan (1973) on page 55, that "good teaching may take manifold forms." He suggests that there are many effective ways to teach. Previous authors have hinted at this by suggesting that the supervisor should help teacher develop teacher's own personalized teaching style and methodology. Fischler (1971) suggests that a high quality personalized teaching style leads to effective teaching:

> The concept of clinical supervision developed from a basic important assumption--that every teacher has certain strengths and that the supervisor's task is to provide as many alternate strategies as possible, so that the teacher can eventually capitalize on these strengths. It does not entail a preconceived notion of what the teacher ought to be doing on any one day. It is concerned not with that the teacher is doing, but with the *quality* of what the teacher is doing.

Fischler (1971) highlighted one more premise worthy of note: the potential of the clinical supervision design to facilitate teacher development of competencies is increased because of its congruence with

learning theory as espoused by Piaget. Mattaliano (1977) notes that basic learning theory is embodied in the practice of clinical supervision. However, Fischler delineates the basic design considerations of the model that lead to potency:

> The teacher's lesson plan should have been developed in a manner that indicated the kinds of behaviors and outcomes he was seeking on the part of his students; and the observer's records should reflect the kinds of behaviors that occurred in the classroom. The discrepancy or the compatability of lesson plan to the observer's record is the point on which the dialogue focuses.
>
> This procedure follows closely Piaget's theory of the "discrepant event." The teacher, after looking at the record, analyzing what took place, searching for his patterns, categorizing his patterns as they relate to inhibiting or enhancing the objectives, and searching for alternate strategies that could be used to achieve the objective, is going through the processes of assimilation, accommodation, and equilibration. (p. 177)

Although this last underlying assumption can be deduced from the works previously cited, it is this researcher's opinion that Fischler's point warrants considerable singular attention because it is a basic design consideration and because the work of Piaget is sufficiently powerful so as to add significantly to the rationale and power of clinical supervision.

The final piece of work to be discussed, Champagne and Morgan (1971), is found in Champagne and Hogan (1977), and more completely in Shuma (1974). The authors developed the Champagne-Morgan Conference Strategy useful in problem situations or development situations, the latter of which describes clinical supervision. It is an eleven step

conferencing model that conceptualizes the interventionist's (supervisor's) role as one of helping clients (teachers) to become more self-directing on an active collegial basis. Essentially this strategy formally sets out in a step by step fashion a guide similar to the notions discussed by Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969), and Reavis (1978) for the conferencing stage of clinical supervision. It is the only model of which this researcher is aware, that embodies all the assumptions of clinical supervision, accounts for the possible dynamic events that can take place in the conference stage, and yet defines an explicitly delineated model that can be used effectively and responsively in each conference. The authors suggest omitting or touching only lightly on some steps as time, experience, and development dictate the effectiveness and efficiency of doing so. This eleven step model is presented for the reader's information. It has been quoted from pages 337 and 338 of Champagne and Hogan (1977).

The Champagne-Morgan Conference Strategy

Steps in the Conference Model

Conferences generally follow three sequential phases.

Phase I: Setting of Goals and Commitments to a Goal

Phase II: Generating and Selecting Procedures or Behaviors

Phase III: Specifying Commitments and Criteria of Success

Phase I: Setting of Goals and Commitments to a Goal

Step 1. Objectives of the conference are specified.

Step 2. All available data relating to the objectives are shared.

Step 3. An agreement is made to focus on "key" objectives within the general objectives specified in Step 1.

Step 4. An agreement is made that some behavior changes are appropriate.

Phase II: Generation and Selection of Procedures or Behavior

Step 5. Positive appropriate behaviors in the setting which are related to the specific objectives are identified and reinforced.

Step 6. Alternative behaviors or reemphases are identified and examined.

Step 7. An alternative from those proposed is selected.

Step 8. Detailed implementation plans for the alternative selected are completed.

Step 8a. (If appropriate) Plans made are practiced or role-played.

Phase III: Commitments and Criteria of Success are Specified

Step 9. Criteria for successful implementation of the selected behavior are decided and agreed upon.

Step 10. Client gives feedback on purposes, commitments and perceptions of conference.

Step 11. Commitments of interventionist and client are reviewed.

Conference Terminates

Growth toward teacher self-supervision and independence in analysis of own teaching has been conceptualized by these authors in a nine stage continuum describing the supervisory role in specific steps moving from directing to consulting. This continuum visualizes the "how to" of enabling teacher development through conferencing such as that predicated by Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969), and Reavis (1978). The nine stages define the supervisor-teacher relationship as it grows from "supervisor initiates and chooses" to "supervisee initiates, defines the fole of the supervisor, and chooses issues and problem solving strategies."

Accompanying this work is an instrument titled "Assessment of Supervisory Conference Behavior: Criterion Checklist." It is this instrument that has contributed to the development of this researcher's study and the contributing portion is reprinted here from page 232 of Shuma (1974).

Assessment of Supervisory Conference Behavior
Criterion Checklist

Yes		No
____	1. The objectives of the conference were clearly established early (within the first five minutes).	____
____	2. Present behaviors of the teacher and students related to the objectives were discussed by both teacher and supervisor.	____
____	3. A selection of one or two (no more than three) specific foci of the conference was made.	____
____	4. An agreement between the teacher and the supervisor that some behaviors should be changed or reemphasized was made.	____
____	5. Positive behaviors of teacher, related to the focus of the conference, were identified and reinforced.	____
____	6. More than one alternative behavior or reemphases were proposed and examined for possible use by the teacher.	____
____	7. At least one of these alternatives was selected for planning and trial.	____
____	8. Specific planning for the implementation of the selected alternative(s) was done.	____
____	9. Practice of the implementation plans was carried out.	____
____	10. Criteria for the successful performance of the behavior(s) being practiced were selected and discussed.	____
____	11. Supervisee gave feedback on his perceptions and feeling about conference purpose and results.	____
____	12. Commitments of the supervisor and teacher were reviewed.	____

Of the twelve criteria above, numbers six, seven, and eleven are citical to and consistent with the clinical supervision models

presented by Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969), and Reavis (1978), are not previously listed by Eaker (1972) or Mattaliano (1977), and are necessary to include in this study's assessment of the quality of clinical supervision. It is implicit in the notion discussed earlier—that there is no one right way to teach—that more than one alternative behavior is explored. Less than that leads to a low quality model that limits problem solving and runs the risk of pro forma conferences with pat answers. As Cogan (1973) has suggested:

> If our store of useful data is small, we exhaust its resources before we draw inferences, propose hypotheses, or form judgments. (p. 52)
>
> The supervisor needs to create and internalize multiple models of good teaching. In this context, creating and internalizing are both extremely difficult. Nevertheless, without many and varied *operating* criteria of good teaching, the supervisor generally finds himself trying to help teachers to teach as he used to. (p. 54)

The selection of at least one alternative is also implicit in work previously cited—that something concrete and useful must come from the supervisory sessions for teacher to feel satisfied. And finally, the assumption that supervisee give feedback is an assumption that summarizes the intent of step five of the clinical supervision model as defined in Chapter I, and it is also one that Goldhammer (1969) discusses at length on pages 273-280, as necessary for preserving the integrity of the process with the aim of self-renewal of the process as well as of each participant (especially supervisor). The addition of this last assumption concludes a brief but comprehensive analysis of

the underlying assumptions of the model. The analysis of clinical supervision has been reduced to the most basic statements of underlying assumptions. This work is not intended to do justice to the full scope of the process nor to be sufficient information to someone intending to implement the process. The reader is referred to the works of Cogan (1973) or Goldhammer (1969) for these purposes. However, this work has been useful in developing the questionnaire explained in Chapter III, and listed in the Appendix. This work has also been useful as a basis for an analysis comparing similarities and differences between clinical supervision and the School Climate Profile (also listed in the Appendix). What follows is an exploration of school climate literature.

Social and Psychological Concepts of School Climate

The notion of school climate is not one foreign to either Cogan or Goldhammer. Cogan (1973) indicates on page 35, that the supervisor "needs firm knowledge about the effects of his sets, biases, and predispositions upon what he sees, how he responds to these events in the world around him, and how he forms inferences and hypotheses and judgments about them." The author also alludes to the importance of the "historicity" in the supervisor-teacher relationship in consideration of the development of a clinical supervisory relationship. Goldhammer's (1969) reference to the notion of school climate is a bit more direct, as he states on page 2: "Let us begin with the premise

that a human personality tends to take on the psychological characteristics of its environment." The extent of impact this factor is likely to exert on the outcomes of clinical supervision is the main concern of this dissertation. Let us examine the ideas more fully.

In a larger frame of reference Erick Fromm (1958) conceived of personality and society as inextricably woven. His discussion of mental health suggests that it:

> . . . must be defined in terms of the adjustment of society to the needs of man, of its role in furthering or hindering the development of mental health. Whether or not the individual is healthy, is primarily not an individual matter, but depends on the structure of the society. A healthy society furthers man's capacity to love his fellow men, to work creatively, to develop his reason and objectivity, to have a sense of self which is based on the experience of his own productive powers. (p. 72)

Sarason (1975) suggests that the culture of society is reflected in the school culture. Just as Fromm suggests behavior is to a degree dependent on the interrelationship with society, Sarason suggests that school culture is to a degree dependent on the impact of society. He states on page 1, "To complicate further the problem of understanding the school culture are three other considerations: the school culture reflects and is a part of a larger society; like the larger society, and because of it, it is far from static; and its present characteristics have a history."

Thus far, broad and nonspecific references have been used, but Flanders (1970) alludes to a more direct effect on individuals in the

school. He discusses a scenario of rapid and overwhelming change pictured by mass media, and the pressures this creates which alienate people from feeling able to influence change. He suggests on page 329 that these cultural influences effect people in their daily living experiences to the point in drastic situations of "a few teachers being totally unable to study their own teaching behavior."

These ideas have been offered because they lend perspective to the complexities of the research at hand. The study of the interaction between the culture or climate of the society and the school is a large undertaking—more than any one person or group of people can dispatch in a lifetime of study. The focus of this research has been narrowed to the school climate and its inner workings, not because a broader perspective is not warranted or valuable, but because of the special interests and experience of this researcher with what is considered an important and practical approach. Sarson (1975) suggests that study of the relationship of school climate to school practices is needed:

> . . . depth of understanding or familiarity with a setting may have no intrinsic relationship to one's conception of the change process. That they may not be intrinsically related *in practice* reflects the fact that they are not related in theory even though they should be. (p. 50)

Thus, the focus of this study is narrowed and will begin with the individual within the school climate. An important piece of work was offered by the workers at the Harvard Psychological Clinic and authored by Henry A. Murray, M.D., Ph.D., (1947). In this work Murray

offers an understanding of the way in which the individual and the setting in which the individual functions share an interplay.

> The stimulus situation (S.S.) is that part of the total environment to which the creature attends and reacts. It can rarely be described significantly as an aggregate of discrete sense impressions. The organism usually responds to patterned meaningful wholes, as the gestalt school of psychology has emphasized. . . .
>
> In crudely formulating an episode it is dynamically pertinent and convenient to classify the S.S. according to the effect—facilitating or obstructing—it is exerting or could exert upon the organism. Such a tendency or "potency" in the environment may be called a *press* (vide p. 115). For example, a press may be nourishing, or coercing, or injuring, or chilling, or befriending, or restraining, or amusing or belittling to the organism. It can be said that a press is a temporal gestalt of stimuli which usually appears in the guise of a *threat of harm or promise of benefit* to the organism. It seems that organisms quite naturally "classify" the objects of their world in this way: "this hurts," "that is sweet," "this comforts," "that lacks support." (pp. 40-41)

Thus, according to Murray, an individual senses and reacts to the total environment, and to leave out the nature of the environment in an understanding of personality is referred to on page 116, as "a serious omission." Murray goes on to explain that behavior can be understood from the *press* it potentiates, thus yielding a useful way of studying the environment as well as the individual.

> Failing to make progress by using any of the above described methods, we finally hit upon the notion of representing an object or situation according to its effect (or potential effect) upon the subject, just as we had been accustomed to represent the subject in terms of his effect (or intended effect) upon an object. By "effect" here we do not mean the response that is aroused in the subject (a mode of classification that has been

> abandoned); we mean what is done to the subject before he responds (ex: belittlement by an insult) or what might be done to him if he did not respond (ex: a physical injury from a falling stone), or what might be done to him if he did respond by coming into contact with the object (ex: nourishment from food). Thus, one may ask: does the object physically harm the subject, nourish him, excite him, quiet him, exalt him, depreciate him, restrain, guide, aid or inform him? . . .
>
> Our conclusion is that it is not only possible but advisable to classify an environment in terms of the kinds of benefits (facilitations, satisfactions) and the kinds of harms (obstructions, injuries, dissatisfactions) which it provides. When this is done it may be observed that in the vast majority of cases the organism tends to avoid the harms and seek the benefits. (pp. 116-118)

Before enlarging the concept of the way in which people behave, Murray describes in more detail the meaning of the word "press," and the way in which it gives rise to action.

> We have selected the term *press* (plural *press*) to designate a directional tendency in an object or situation. Like a need, each press has a qualitative aspect—the kind of effect which it has or might have upon the subject (if the S comes in contact with it and does not react against it)—as well as a quantitative aspect, since its power for harming or benefitting varies widely. Everything that can supposedly harm or benefit the well-being of an organism may be considered *pressive*, everyting else *inert*. The process in the subject which recognizes what is being done to him at the moment (that says "this is good" or "this is bad") may be conveniently termed *pressive perception*. The process is definitely egocentric, and gives rise almost invariably, to some sort of adaptive behavior. (pp. 118-119)

With the explanation of these notions about how perceptions of the environment are bound up with our consequent actions, Murray applies the theory in a larger arena. For the purposes of this study, this

larger arena is the point at which the theory becomes most useful.

> Suffice it to say that one can profitably analyze an environment, a social group or an institution from the point of view of what press it applies or offers to the individuals that live within or belong to it. These would be its dynamically pertinent attributes. Furthermore, human beings, in general or in particular, can be studied from the standpoint of what beneficial press are available to them and what harmful press they customarily encounter. This is partly a matter of the potentialities of the environment and partly of the attributes of the subject. (p. 120)

This study does in fact focus on the climate of an institution from the point of view of the press it applies or offers to the individuals that live within or belong to it. Murray suggests two dimensions or types of press to be studied.

> In identifying press we have found it convenient to distinguish betweel 1, the *alpha* press, which is the press that actually exists, as far as scientific inquiry can determine it; and 2, the *beta* press, which is the subject's own interpretation of the phenomena that he perceives. An object may, in truth, be very well disposed towards the subject—press of Affiliation (*alpha* press)—but the subject may misinterpret the object's conduct and believe that the object is trying to depreciate him—press of Agression: Belittlement (*beta* press). When there is wide divergence between the *alpha* and *beta* press we speak of delusion. (p. 122)

Because this study is based on a lengthy questionnaire that solicits the perceptions of teachers as they perceive their experiences, it could be said that this study is based on the dimension of beta press. The interpretations or misinterpretations that result in a difference between alpha press and beta press are well known to any

member of a school organization. Robert Owens (1970) illustrates the point nicely:

> One may object that the principal may actually evidence behavior quite different than that which the teacher "perceives." The principal, for instance, may be attempting to emphasize "consideration" in his role-behavior because he associates "consideration" with leader behavior, and he wishes to be a leader. However, if a teacher does not "see" this behavior as evidencing consideration, then to him it is not consideration. Consider the school principal who thinks of himself as genial, easy-going, and thoughtful, whereas teachers—in private—refer to him as "old iron-pants." We enter here the sensitive territory of selective perception, in which people "see," in the psychological sense, what they are prepared to see (or hear). In dealing with the interpersonal relationships which are inextricably bound up in organizational behavior, we are constantly confronted with the truism that much behavior is, like beauty, in the eye of the beholder. (p. 73)

Several authors besides Owens have expanded on various points made by Murray. A few of the remarks are included below to clarify key points in different words. Wilson et al. (1969), discuss the previous reference to gestalt psychology, and state, on page 112, "The central thesis of Gestalt psychology, as postulated by Wolfgang Kohler, . . . suggests that it is the total impact of the entire field of perception that causes the whole organism (person) to vary its behavior to specific stimuli." And thus, this dissertation suggests that school climate causes the individual teacher to vary behavior in relation to it. Paul Goodman (1956) also suggests that the power of the impact of the environment is strong when he wrote:

> Our view will be that, instead of reacting to local stimuli by local and mutually independent events, the organism responds to the pattern of stimuli to which it is exposed; and that this answer is a unitary process, a functional whole, which gives, in experience, a sensory scene rather than a mosaic of local sensations. Only from this point of view can we explain the fact that, with a constant local stimulus, local experience is found to vary when the surrounding stimulation is changed. (p. 62)

Wilson et al. (1969), discuss the negative effect the surrounding stimulation can have on individuals within the school.

> To be self-actualizing, a school system clearly needs to employ the "innovative personality." Unfortunately, it is apparent that schools have not been too successful in this respect. Perhaps the reason is failure to provide a genuinely supportive environment for a position within the institution which has enough security to offset in part the risk which all innovation precipitates. (p. 6)

The relationship between the individual professional and the school climate is a relationship addressed in the works of other authors as well. The discrepancy between individual characteristics and the responsiveness of the school climate leaves a gap that Sergiovanni and Staratt (1971) point to as a source of conflict in schools. These authors describe their reasoning as follows:

> We maintain that teachers have outdistanced schools in moving toward professionalization. As such, we are confronted with a large number of professionally oriented employees who are expected to operate and grow in schools which are by and large bureaucratically oriented. (p. 60)

Finally, Jenkins and Tunney (1977) look at the way many schools "treat" teachers. They suggest that taking a broad perspective of teachers as a group and the ways teachers interact is in the best

interest of the education of students. On pages 23 and 24, they suggest that schools must not focus solely on individual growth, and that treating individuals in isolation does not produce self-renewing school districts.

Alluded to is a concept that some factors facilitate teacher growth while others may hinder it. It has been a general theme throughout the first few pages of this exploration of school climate. Labelling this point of view may help the reader to better understand the remainder of this study because it is conducted in a similar approach. Perhaps the foremost contributor to understanding analysis of this type is Kurt Lewin (1958). The reader may remember an earlier discussion of clinical supervision in which it was suggested that new information revealed to teacher about own teaching may create a state of disequilibrium for teacher, and therefore, a need to modify behavior. Lewin's (1958) work suggests a similar theory is applicable in the school climate, or for that matter, most organizational settings. Tye and Novotney (1975) suggest on page 74, that "Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist interested in organizational development and change, has particular relevance," to the diagnosis of the school organization. Basically, Lewin (1958) pictures a state of equilibrium established by the balance of driving forces as opposed to restrining forces. Both of these forces may influence any change that may occur, but the driving forces tend to initiate change and keep it going, whereas the restraining

forces tend to decrease the driving forces. It is implied that status quo exists when the forces promoting change are equal and opposite to the forces restraining change. Change may be effected by strengthening the driving forces or lowering the restraining forces, the latter method causing less tension. Lewin discusses the effect this schema has on individuals and suggests that an individual's behavior tends to differ from the climate to a limited degree. Thus, according to this analysis, an effort to help an individual, such as a teacher, to change through clinical supervision methods, will be greeted by certain forces in the environment that extend beyond the individual. Knowledge of these forces is necessary to reach a new equilibrium. Lewin states the matter as follows:

> If the individual should try to diverge "too much" from group standards, he would find himself in increasing difficulties. He would be ridiculed, treated severely and finally ousted from the group. Most individuals, therefore, stay pretty close to the standard of the groups they belong to or wish to belong to. In other words, the group level itself acquires value. It becomes a positive valence corresponding to a central force field with the force $f_{p,L}$ keeping the individual in line with the standards of the group. (p. 209)

Tye and Novotney (1975) sum up the consequences for educational leadership behavior by stating on page 74, "The notion is that if one is to cause change to occur, the ebb and flow of forces within the organization must be manipulated." This of course requires knowledge of the school climate.

Wilson et al. (1969) took a broad view of the implications for supervision.

> A school is a complex social system. It interacts as a whole, not as a collection of discrete cause and effect variables. The need is not for an artificial simplification of a dynamic process but for understanding the ways in which controlling variables interact either to impede or to enhance the attainment of purpose. (p. 332)

Sarason's (1975) theory of change utilizes ideas set forth by Lewin. There are four basic tenants about individuals and institutions (particularly schools) that govern Sarason's (1975) approach to the topic of staff development: 1) Most change efforts are directed incorrectly toward an individual psychology that is inadequate to change a social setting. Theories of individual psychology are inadequate to accomplish lasting change in an institution. 2) The social setting of an institution is a complex thing with forces both facilitating and opposing any one decision of desired change. "The chances of achieving intended outcomes become near zero when the sources of opposition are not faced, if only because it is tantamount to denial or avoidance of the reality of existing social forces and relationships in the particular setting." (p. 59) 3) The requirements of leadership and the demand for representativeness are often in conflict and not easy to reconcile in decision-making--their true relationship is too frequently cloaked in the language of rhetoric or public ritual." (p. 60) 4) Achievement of intended outcomes requires much more time than is

usually estimated, and the underestimation can arouse negative feelings fatal to the initiation of change.

Flanders (1970) draws on his many years of experience with helping teachers through a clinical supervision mode, and conjectures, on page 329, that "It may be that some failures in our efforts to share in change occur because the forces are too little too late." Flanders offers a fascinating account of the way in which he perceives that teachers change their behavior. He emphasizes the necessity to analyze thoroughly the forces in the environment.

> A teacher is likely to change his classroom behavior when he is at the focal point of potent forces toward change which impinge on him simultaneously. The question is how potent? How many forces? Surely there is an analogy here to a critical mass or perhaps a change environment which achieves a critical density in terms of forces toward change. Creating a potent change environment takes into account how difficult it is for teachers to change their behavior. . . . It is my observation that the most frequent error made in designing programs to help teachers change their classroom behavior has been to underestimate the difficulties and to stop far short of creating a critical density in the change environment. (p. 328)

Flanders names four broad categories of forces critical to arrange an effective change environment:

> . . . first, personal incentives; second, provision for continuing reinforcement which is free of threat; third, having available various skills for analyzing teaching behavior; and fourth, having access to the time-space-and-equipment that the job requires. Rarely, if ever, do teachers find themselves at the focal point of several constructive forces from each of these four areas. (p. 328)

It should be noted that of the forces mentioned by Flanders, some relate to the individual but most relate to factors external to the individual. A similar conclusion was pronounced by staff of The Institute for Research on Teaching (1978) in their study of the factors that determine what content a teacher selects for instructional purposes:

> Perhaps the most striking aspect of the teachers' responses was their reported willingness to change their instructional content no matter what the source of pressure, according to researchers. . . . The greater the number of pressures, the more certain teachers were that they would change. (p. 3)

In the study cited above, hypothetical vignettes were presented to teachers including pressures from parents, teachers in older grades, the principal, district-wide objectives, textbooks, and published test results. The objectives and tests were the strongest to affect change. However, the point is not whether teachers can be changed, but, rather, that their behavior is effected by what goes on in the climate surrounding them (of which they are also a part). Clinical supervision efforts are designed as a stable, continuous (albeit dynamic), developmental process, and not one that thrives in an atmosphere of sudden responses to a myriad of temporal pressures. By that I mean that teachers must be able to trust in their relationships and the processes of clinical supervision so that modification of instructional programs and techniques is a rational and planned one. Knowledge of the school

climate would appear to be necessary to create a proper environment for that to be able to happen. This example focuses on the teacher, but the next example considers the position of the principal. Lobb et al. (1973) are in accord with many authors in their consideration of the principal as a key to a productive climate. They see the principal's role as a "relational and transformational leader." They explain this concept as follows:

> The term "relational, transformational leader" refers to the person whose objective is the linking of the many constructive forces within the community to programs and projects which will improve schools and the community itself.
>
> The concern is primarily with various kinds of relationships—relationships among individuals in groups and relationships among the various groups which influence educational decision-making.
>
> But the leader is expected to do more than merely accept these relationships as they exist. Through the exercise of leadership it will be his objective to transform existing forces. Forces which are presently destructive of good education become, because of his influence, constructive and supportive. Forces which are ineffective because they are defused become, because of his influence, focused and powerful. (p. 6)

Sarason (1975) also addresses the principalship, but he suggests that diversity should exist not in spite of the principal's efforts at marshalling all forces, but rather because of the way in which the principal views herself or himself.

> What I have been suggesting in this chapter is that the model school system permits and tolerates diversity, and that limits of this tolerance are *in part* determined by the principal's conception of himself in relation to the system and how this conception is powered by ideas and values. That one may not agree with a particular blend of ideas and values

> should not blind one to the more general point that the ultimate fate of ideas and values depends on the principal's conception of himself in relation to the system. (p. 148)

However, Sarason (1975) reaffirms his notion that the focus should not be on one person, but the way in which all of the people function together. The principal may be a key person in many ways, but a singular focus is not profitable. The author states on page 9, that "the answer (to explain any educational failure or nonsense), which is neither simple nor clear, is not in the characteristics of individuals. Such explanations, in the present instance, would effectively distract one from recognizing that what is at issue is the absence of formulated and testable theories of how the school works, the conditions wherein it changes, and the processes whereby the changes occur." In fact, on page 133, the author suggests that in conversations with everyone from janitors to school superintendents one quickly finds that they all see themselves as part "of a very complex arrangement of roles and functions, purposes and traditions, that are not entirely comprehensible in whole or in part." All of these people believe that there is a system, yet none of them can tell you much about it. The important point the author brings to light "is not that everyone has a conception of the system, but that *this conception governs role performance even though it may be a correct or faulty conception.*" However, Sarason (1975) is quick to point out that just because perception of the system tends to govern role performance, and no doubt, the system does directly

affect an individual's performance, such external factors should not keep people from considering alternative courses of action to achieve worthwhile goals. The situation, in other words, is not hopeless.

> Too frequently the individual's conception of the system serves as a basis for inaction and rigidity, or as a convenient target onto which one can direct blame for most anything. The principal illustrates this point as well or better than anyone else in the school system. (p. 134)

The reader's attention is now directed toward the notion of role performance. Perhaps the most straightforward discussion of role performance and the individual is offered by Getzels and Guba (1957). These authors propose a conception of institutions that links two dimensions of goal pursuit. The nomothetic dimension is formed by the act of people coming together to work for a common purpose, thereby yielding the notion of institutions. The institution can be thought of in terms of roles, and these roles can be further defined by the expectations for each role. These function systematically within the institution in order for goal achievement to occur. On the other hand, the idiographic dimension refers to the individuals who make up the institution, each of whom has their own personality and needs dispositions. The individual must pursue personal goal achievement to be satisfied and productive. Hills (1968) sums up the point well when on page 374, he states, "The basic idea expressed here is that the behavior of an individual within the social system (the school in this case) results both from the expectations held for him by others and his

own personality needs." The success of an organization is dependent upon the extent to which the organizational goals and the individual goals are accommodating and integrating. Argyris (1973) suggests that the needs of the individual may conflict with the organization, and if so, and individual needs cannot be met, perception of self may be affected and help from the supervisor to improve instruction may not be seen as viable. Dillon (1975) puts this idea in another context:

> Most human beings work enthusiastically and steadily toward goals which are satisfying to them and in which they feel successful. Only grudgingly, if at all, do they work toward goals which have been arbitrarily set as a result of implied or direct criticism based on a presumption of inadequacy. (p. 38)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) suggest that it is in the best interests of the school and the individual for both their goals to be accommodating and integrating.

> That is, achievement of school goals depends upon meaningful, individual need satisfaction. Meaningful need satisfaction, at least for professional and semiprofessional workers, depends upon achievement of school goals. (p. 35)

Synthesis by Doak (1970) of ideas about the school, the individual, and change addresses concepts offered by Getzels and Guba:

> Leadership is a dimension which is crucial in development of a climate for change or, perhaps better stated, a climate for openness—openness to examine objectively the alternatives. Guba and Getzels suggest that the primary role of a status leader is to bring about a blending of the institution, its roles, and expectations with the individual, his personality, and needs disposition. Such a leadership style denies that organization and individual are natural enemies. It suggests that ultimately organizational goals

> can best be accomplished through self-actualizing individuals. (p. 369)

There is much to be learned from the way in which Doak carried forth these notions into a model of change conceptualizing school climate as a critical part of the change process. He does not focus on an individual psychology, but rather a notion that an analysis within any organization must begin with an analysis of the climate of the organization. Doak, too, expresses the optimism that once a proper starting place is established a course of action can be pursued productively. His work is explained in more detail later in this chapter with the explanations of other models of change.

Sarason (1975) makes the point on page 118, that even though adaptation and adoption of new supervision modes are possible, it will take renewed efforts from a very different perspective. He suggests that after a few years, even in the case of opening a new school with new personnel, materials, and student populations, "what children experience in classrooms, the quality of relationships among teachers and between them and the principal, the relationship among parents, community, and the school, the criteria by which everyone judges themselves and others—in none of these can one discuss a difference that makes a difference." Sarason's argument is not a fatalistic one. He suggests that people simply have been bound by accepting "what is" as though it had to be. The reason why even a new school would

eventually be frought with the same limitations as the alternatives that gave rise to the new school is that the existing structure of school culture has acted like blinders—the people involved with the school simply do not pursue alternative structures because of being bound by notions of what is familiar. Sarason (1975) states:

> What I have suggested up to now is that existing structure of a setting or culture defines the permissable ways in which goals and problems will be approached. Not so obvious, particularly to those who comprise the structure, is that existing structure is but one of many alternative structures possible in that setting and that the existing one is a barrier to recognition and experimentation with alternative ones. (p. 12)

The author suggests that the failure of the introduction of new math in schools was due not to the value of it nor to teacher ability, but rather to the failure to take structural and cultural characteristics of the school into account. The point relating to this study is that the chances of clinical supervision being effectively implemented in the schools are lessened when structural and cultural factors of the school are not taken into account. However, if understanding existing regularities is to lead to the recognition and experimentation with alternative ones, the understanding must occur from within. Lobb et al. (1973) suggest that individuals must first learn about themselves before they can be receptive to learning much else. The group is a critical resource in helping learners learn more about themselves. Of course, clinical supervision is based on the

premise of learning about oneself through self confrontation, and in a complimentary process, appropriate school climate will establish a non-defensive learning environment that will enable productive clinical supervision efforts. Bellon et al. (1976) suggest on page 11, "The chance of success is greater when the leader is using his energy to develop himself as a self-renewing person." Again, on the next page, the authors refer to a larger context.

> Supervisors and teachers must believe that they can improve and become something more than they are. When this belief becomes a part of organization life, more educators will increase their personal satisfactions and professional competencies. (p. 12)

In other words, individuals within the school are affected by and yet help to create the school climate. The setting in which student and teacher interact helps or hinders teacher contributions to students. The setting itself is less the issue than the need to understand the setting. As Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975) put it:

> The supervisor may understand this message more clearly by considering the issue of level of activity in relation to the teacher's role. The compatibility of a teacher's style is judged in terms of a particular set of circumstances. It assumes a certain place in which the students will function under predesignated conditions or within established boundaries. The discussion of whether the setting is the classroom, the entire school, or the community at large is not the most significant point, but rather, the recognition that a teacher's contributions to student learning will be enhanced or reduced by a setting in which they interact. Simply stated, a teacher may be more successful under some conditions than under others. (pp. 274-275)

These authors bring to the foreground the issue of student learning which has been implied but not stated. More study needs to be done to determine the direct and indirect effects school climate has on student learning. However, Jenkins and Tunney (1975) state a convincing argument.

> Climate appears, to the researchers, to be a determining factor in the quality of learning conditions that face students in school. If education through schooling is to enhance a student's progress, then climate seems to be critical to the success of the student. (p. 2)

In summary, it can be asserted that the impact of the larger environment on the institution and on the individual is potent. The individual's behavior is, to a large extent, determined by perceptions of the surrounding environment. Analysis of climate factors reveals what actions are permitted or limited to occur in the environment. Those interested in a strong and developing school program must not focus solely on individual growth. An individual psychology is inadequate to explain "what is" and inadequate to initiate planned institutional or individual growth. The facilitating and hindering forces in the climate must be diagnosed and addressed if chances of achieving intended outcomes are to be reasonable. Bringing to bear those climate forces diagnosed as positive and reducing those that hinder is a practice that begins to bridge the gap between theory and practice, reduces the role of ignorance, and greatly increases the likelihood of success. Organizational as well as individual success is

enhanced when both organizational and individual goals are integrated. While it is true that structural and cultural characteristics of the school are potent, school leadership and the individual are not helpless. Beginning with an assessment and understanding of oneself as well as the school climate can be a productive and satisfying way to approach goals. Planning can be designed to encourage necessary understanding. The next section of research on school climate investigates ways in which the school as an institution has been understood by planners for school change.

Views of the School by Planners of School Change

Mattaliano (1977) suggests on pages 79 to 81, that research from organizational behavior literature reveals that a healthy school climate and clinical supervision are uniquely compatible. He asserts that the goals of management and the individual must be integrated if organizational goals are to be reached, and that the only model of supervision that allows for a natural integration of goals is clinical supervision. He suggests that schools must adapt to environmental changes, and clinical supervision seeks such adaptation as an important goal. He asserts that clinical supervision "embodies philosophies and techniques reflective and supportive of the predominant understanding of the nature and theory of the field of organizational behavior

(p. 81)," and by doing so, alleviates some of the more typical organizational problems of job dissatisfaction, the lack of emphasis on classroom instruction, and superior-subordinate hierarchy and coercion. Thus, Mattaliano views clinical supervision as one of the interdependent dimensions of a theoretically sound and well planned organization. This view suggests a systems theory approach. Banathy (1968) defines a system as follows:

> Systems are assemblages of parts that are designed and built by man into organized wholes for the attainment of specific purposes. The purpose of a system is realized through processes in which interacting components of the system engage in order to produce a predetermined output. Purpose determines the process required, and the process will imply the kinds of components that will make up the system. A system receives its purpose, its input, its resources, and its constraints from its suprasystem. In order to maintain itself, a system has to produce an output which satisfies the suprasystem. (p. 12)

The systems theory approach, as applied to this study, suggests that the attainment of goals can only be accomplished through the integration of interacting components consistent with each other. The assessment of school climate is one way of determining the nature of the components presently interacting. Mattaliano (1977) suggests that clinical supervision is consistent with ideal components suggested by organizational theory. But do these ideal components actually exist in the school that decides to implement clinical supervision? As Banathy (1968, p. 12) suggests, "We are to search for cause-and-effect relationships, to recognize structures and relationships and look for

ways of optimizing the interaction of components." The general approach implied in this thinking is to conceptualize an organizational model and plan an assemblage of compatible component parts rather than to try to make force fits that break under stress of shifts and duration. As Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975, p. 156) put it, "It is felt that more effective supervisory services result when organizational structure and behavior have been studied in terms of some mutually planned model or design." It has been suggested that the biological concept of synergism applies in this model. Bellon et al. (1976) write:

> The concept of synergism is well known in the field of science. It has been defined as the combined healthy action of all elements of a system. We feel that this concept is applicable to instructional improvement. That is, through cooperative action the chances of making and sustaining important changes are greatly enhanced. (p. vii)

The suggestion of the application of scientific principles is not a random one. A school system is more than just a total of the assembled parts. When they fit together compatibly and cooperatively life is breathed into the processes and productivity.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) have proposed a necessary interdependence of three sets of variables: initiating (administrative and organizational), mediating (human organization), and school success (output of efforts). As these authors imply, the success of the school is determined to a large extent by understanding and fertilization of school climate factors.

> The success of any school activity is largely determined by the well-being, skill, and motivation of the human side of the school. Managing the human organization is central to school administration in that other aspects of school success are dependent upon how well this is done. (p. 9)

The authors state their point in unequivocal terms when they assert, "Emerging patterns of supervision are based on the premise that consistent and long-term achievement of school success is dependent upon the positive presence of the mediating variables (p. 17)." The mediating variables are characterized in part by the attitudes teachers have toward their jobs and toward others in the school; staff feelings of security, social relations, esteem, autonomy and self-actualization; the extent of staff commitment to school goals and purposes; levels of performance goals; levels of group loyalty and commitment; staff self-confidence and mutual trust; staff feelings of control over the work environment; ability to influence others; ease of communication. It should be noted that these variables also describe the rubric of school climate. In other words, successful or productive clinical supervision is dependent upon a supportive school climate. Eaker (1972), whose outstanding work on the assumptions of clinical supervision is cited earlier in this chapter, also recognizes the importance of the school climate or mediating variables. He mentions that "working to effect change in the mediating variables will in the long run increase the schools' effectiveness (p. 28)."

Another systems view of the school was offered by three men concerned with instructional supervision. Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975) state their theory as follows:

> One way of viewing the educational organization is as a social system. . . . As a beginning step in such a conceptualization, instructional supervision is viewed as *one* behavior system within the educational organization. Such a concept presumes the existence of a set of appropriate behaviors that can be identified, analyzed, and that lend themselves to the development of testable hypotheses. (p. 34)

These authors gleened pertinent research data from the fields of leadership, communication, organization, and change theories and divided them into three components which comprise what has been termed the Instructional Supervisory Behavior (ISB) Theoretical Model. The three components are the Interpersonal (relationships among persons), the Milieu (the relationships a person has with his environment), and the Intervention (the means by which either the interpersonal or milieu components are altered). Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975) suggest that the supervisor must sense and respond to the forces in the school environment in order to effectively apply his or her skills to instructional efforts in the school. They suggest that knowledge of the three components, especially the environmental factors, are critical to the process of instructional supervision.

> It is the effective use or altering of the milieu and interpersonal components of the school environment that makes ISB possible. The milieu components are especially helpful in understanding the impact of school environment on supervision. It is important to note that while the school

> environment--the milieu--is a major determinant of appropriate behavior, an analysis of the ISB Theoretical Model suggests that, through use of the intervention components, the milieu may sometimes have to be altered before teacher behavior can be influenced. (p. 286)

The point that the environment may need to be appropriate before teacher behavior can be influenced is a point that has been previously discussed. However, these authors came to that same conclusion only after a most expansive research effort. Furthermore, their approach was more systematic and systems theory oriented. The reader will note in Figure 1, that instructional supervision is conceptualized as a subsystem of the educational organization which is susceptible to influence from the outside. The figure appears in Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975, p. 36) and on the next page in this study. The explanation at the bottom of the figure is adequate to explain the figure and to emphasize the school climate relationship to clinical supervision. The authors expand on the point by saying that clinical supervision

> . . . does not exist in isolation, nor does it gain focus independent of the social system of which it is a part. The nature of the parent social system--the school environment--must be understood, and the design and implementation of any system of supervisory behavior must be in harmony with the expectations and possibilities of the school environment. (p. 271)

Likert (1967) also suggests that an organization must have compatible component parts if it is to function effectively. He suggests that there are basic types of organizations, or in other words,

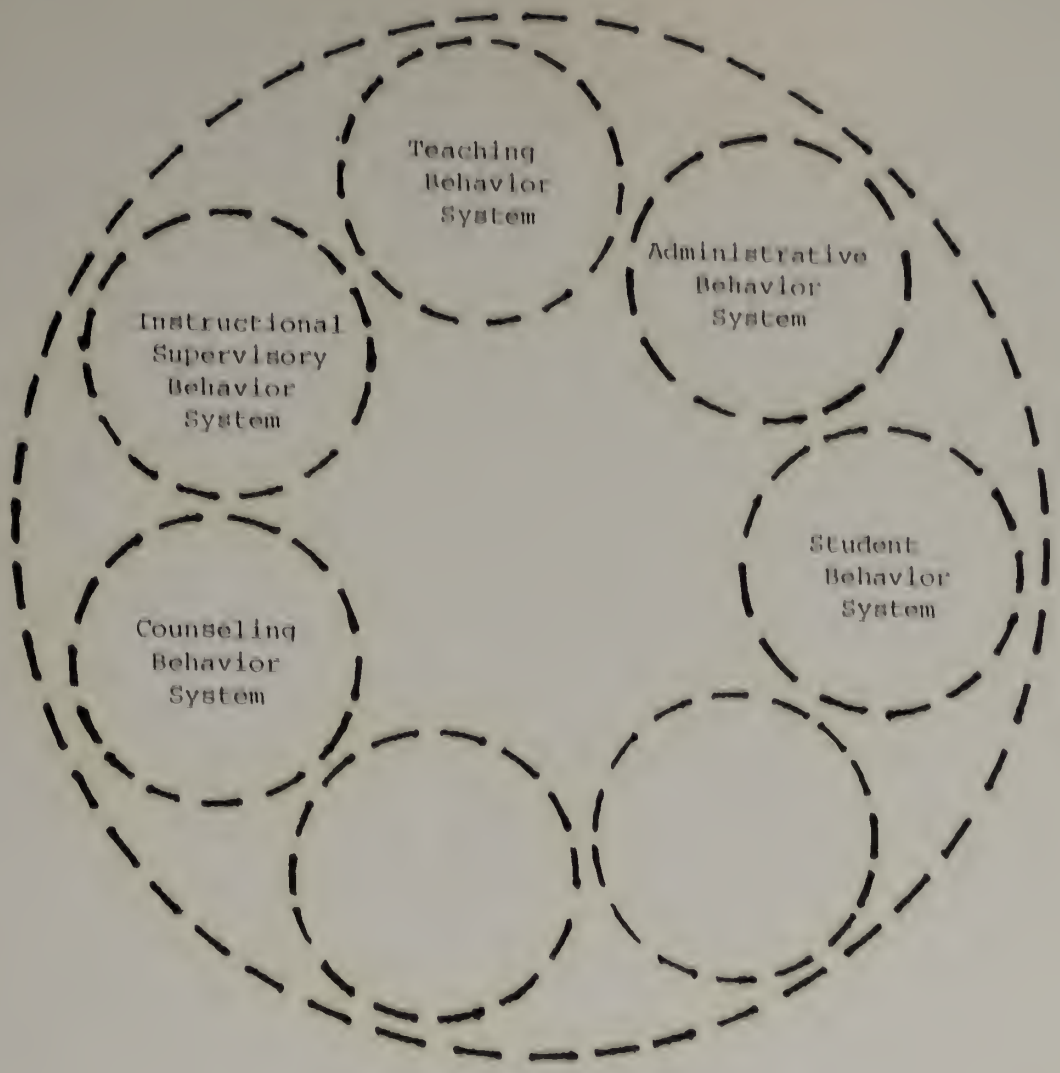

Figure 1. The Educational Organization as an Open System

This figure appears in Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975, p. 36). The authors describe the figure as follows:

> The broken lines in (Figure 1) indicate that the educational organization is an open system. Its purposes, activities, and values can all be affected by organizations and behavior systems from outside the perimeter of the formal educational organization. As a consequence, not only the organization but the interdependent subbehavior systems within it are impacted upon and affected by external values and behaviors. The unlabeled blocks serve as a reminder that other behavior systems also exist and ultimately must be embraced within a total concept. (p. 35)

four basic ways the component parts fit together. He terms the four types System 1 through System 4. This last type, System 4, is discussed in more detail later in this chapter because it comes closest to enabling a productive clinical supervision environment. Any aspect compatible with one system, is in Likert's assertion, not compatible with component parts of another system. It is as though System 1 was composed of a special set of gears not functional in another system. An obvious point is that one must be aware of the implications selecting one component part versus another may have in defining the type of organization to evolve. Without appropriate criteria for analysis, success is no more likely. As put by Sarason (1975):

> . . . most efforts to change the *classroom* have not started with a clear statement about what behavioral regularities, overt and covert, were to be changed, and it is small wonder that when the fanfare accompanying these efforts died down the old regularities were still very much alive: teachers and children were still doing the same things and feeling the same way. (p. 173)

Once a system has developed and the component parts have developed in a homogeneous pattern, changing one of them becomes difficult because of the forces militating against that one component. Likert (1967) suggests how to begin such an effort:

> When an organization seeks to apply the results of research dealing with leadership, management, and organizational performance, the application must involve a total systems modification and not an atomistic modification. When change is desired, it should be a shift from one coordinated system and its component parts. If a company wishes to shift its operations from System 1 or 2 to System 3 or 4, it should plan

> to modify *all* of its operating procedures: leadership, decision making, communications, coordination, evaluation, supervision, compensation, organizational structure, motivations, etc. *The change should start by altering first the most influential causal variables (see Chapter 8), and there should be systematic plans to modify in coordinated steps all of the operating procedures which now anchor the organization firmly to its present management system.* A well-integrated system of management should emerge. (pp. 123-124)

While Likert suggests starting with the most influential causal variables and then modifying the organization in coordinated steps, Doak (1970) suggests that the first task is to define the climate and then bring it into a state of readiness for open examination and selection of alternatives. The two approaches are similar. However, Likert has already defined what he feels is the most ideal environment, whereas Doak focuses mainly on the way one goes about a change no matter how the ideal is defined. Figure 2 portrays the approach outlined by Doak (1970) which indicates that defining and preparing the school climate is a necessary prelude to affecting a change in causal variables. As stated by Doak (1970):

> The model described has the unique feature of basic and initially strong consideration for organizational climate. This climate is the cornerstone for educational change. It provides the openness which allows psychological disquilibrium rather than defensive behavior. Without a supportive climate much time and effort will be spent in building high walls of defense, always to view alternative approaches to status quo as the enemy. What is desired instead is an openness and the courage to admit that clear, pat answers to highly complex issues do not now exist. (p. 371)

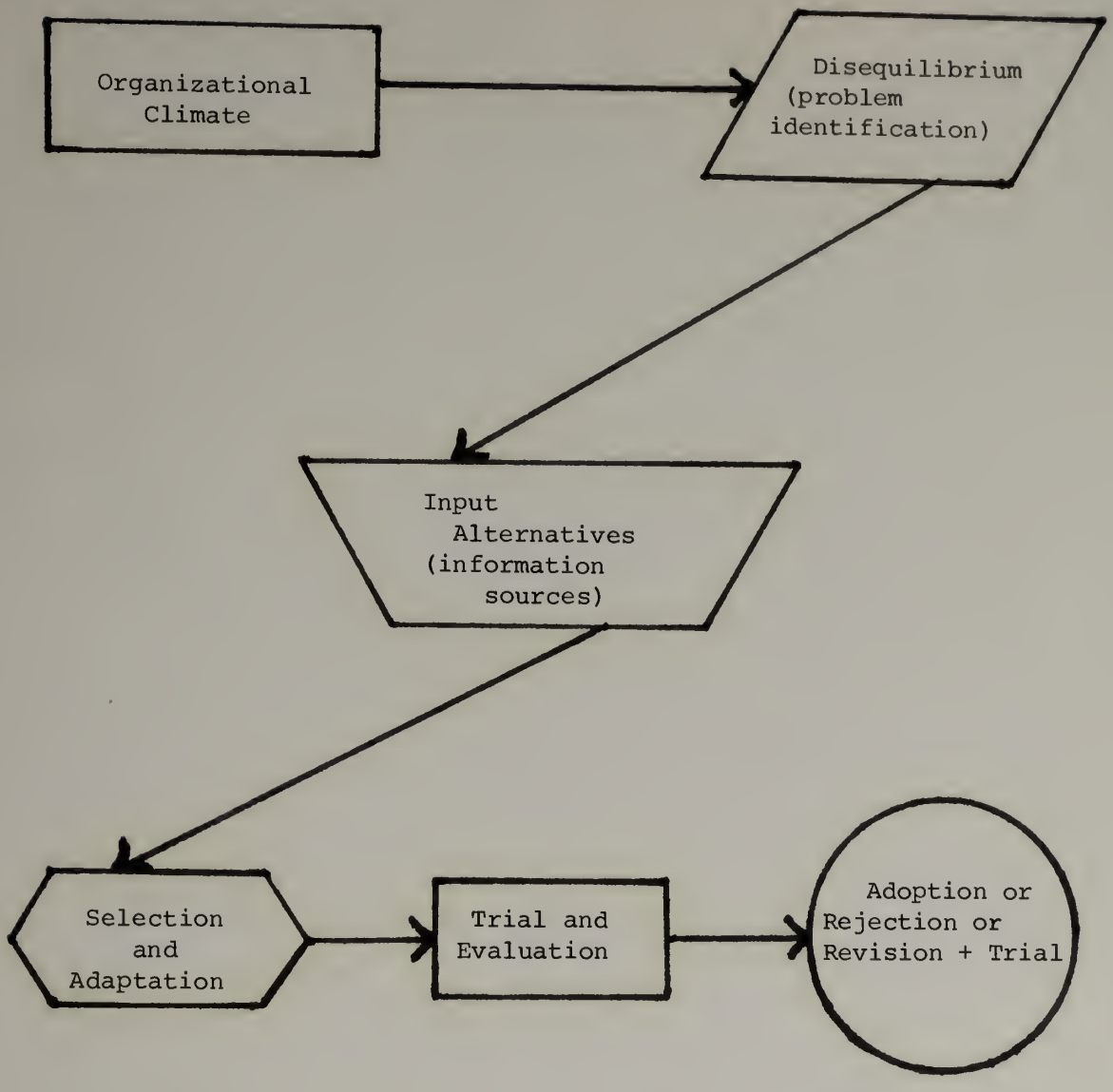

Figure 2. Organizational Factors Related to Change

The above is a simplified version of a model presented by Doak (1970, p. 368).

Briefly, to summarize the approach, the leadership of the school should begin by defining the school climate and assessing the existence, quality, and quantity of the school climate variables, feeding the data back to the appropriate members of the school community, and identifying problematic areas based on the disequilibrium created from an analysis of the data. At this point, the search for solutions becomes owned by the appropriate members of the school community who then begin to proceed with selection, trial, and evaluation of an alternative. A commitment to recommend and adopt an adaptive course of action results. The active involvement of the total organization increases the likelihood of bringing the complimentary components into a compatible relationship with a new alternative. The key point in the Doak (1970) model is the creation of disequilibrium (the second stage), which, the reader will remember, is the key point in clinical supervision. As Doak (1970, p. 371) states, "The thrust in this stage, then, is one of helping people to become uncomfortable with the status quo and activated toward establishing direction--priorities--and in seeking alternative modes of behavior." Dillon (1978) suggests that if this is not done, the effects are counter-productive.

> There is something demeaning about one individual or set of individuals deciding what another individual or set of individuals "needs", and proceeding to prescribe it for them. Such a process almost inevitably leads to frustration and resistance, if not open hostility, on the part of those for whom it is designed, and certainly does nothing but detract from the general climate. (pp. 37-38)

Sarason (1975) agrees with the arguments presented by the previous two authors and suggests that starting with the "target group" allows the school leadership to further assess what is necessary to effect change. In fact, he suggests there may be an indication to proceed with no change at all.

> I would suggest that where one starts has to be a problem that is presented to and discussed with the target groups--not as a matter of empty courtesy or ritualistic adherence to some vague democratic ethos but because *it gives one a more realistic picture of what one is dealing with. An obvious consequent of this is that in different settings one may very well answer the question of where to start rather differently,* a consequence that those who need to follow a recipe will find unsatisfactory because there is no one place to start. Still another consequence is that one may decide, indeed there are times one should decide, to start nowhere, that is, the minimal conditions required for that particular change to take hold, regardless of where one starts, are not present. The reader should note that the decision not to proceed with a particular change, far from being an evasion, forces one to consider *what other kinds of changes have to take place before the minimal conditions can be said to exist.* (p. 217)

Coming to the conclusion that one should "start nowhere" is frightening to some and disappointing to others who may have their heart set on the installation of a particular change. Nevertheless, barging ahead with a change, in the face of school climate data suggesting a start should be made somewhere else, may very well destroy the likelihood of the desired change ever being successful under any conditions, present or future. Perhaps the fear of discovering that an organization is not quite ready for a privately favored change is what stops school

leaders from heeding the warning signs that at times confront change efforts. Not only must a change fail in this situation, but at some future date, if and when the climate is ready for the change, the change may already have been labelled a poor idea because of a bad experience with it in the past. Not only can an otherwise good idea be lost, but it has been suggested by Likert that when an atomistic change is made and leaders return to their jobs with new training and find that the rest of the organization is not responsive nor ready to accept the changes, the leaders feel rebuffed or punished for using the training. Thus, the leader may build resistance to change and, in a sense, be vaccinated against change (Likert, 1967, pp. 125-126).

Sarason (1975) and Doak (1970) both refer to the fact that the climate assessment and readiness stages are frequently omitted by planners of school change. Doak (1970) suggests that this results in the leadership supplying answers to questions that do not yet exist in the mind of the practitioner, and consequently, the leadership does not end up activating committed problem-solving. Doak (1970) empathizes with practitioners as indicated in the following quote:

> Until the practitioner feels a need for answers, why should he receive information? Such information is only a small sampling of the masses of data that he must continually sift and sort for what is relevant. (p. 371)

Although it has been confirmed that a psychology of the individual is not a profitable mode of analysis for the change agent,

the change process itself must be initiated. Lobb et al. (1973) take the position that improved instruction begins with the school administrator, but not in a traditional role. By modeling (a technique previously noted as critical to productive clinical supervision), by recognizing the necessity for participatory processes among the many subcommunities in the larger school community, and by planning for meaningful involvement of all those affected by decisions, the administrator can establish processes productive in the continuing need for school improvement. Short term, shot gun ad hoc strategies tend to have effects that are transitory and superficial. As stated by Lobb et al. (1973),

> Processes tend to be long-term as contrasted with many techniques and organizational innovations which tend to be transitory with a relatively brief life span. The 1960's and early '70's have seen the rise and the demise of many such techniques and organizational innovations. Obviously if the results of efforts are to be enduring, primary attention should be given to processes. (p. 2)

It would seem that the change process needs to be initiated from some point, and the superintendent and the principal would appear to have an advantageous position to initiate change efforts. However, as Sarason (1975) demonstrates throughout his book, the most advantageous position can shift with a shift in the desired change, the hierarchical structure of the school system, or many other factors. Mapped out is an excellent example of how complex it can be to develop productive in-class supervision. The author discusses the possibility

that a new more effective teaching pattern may not be adopted by a teacher due to the negative impact of school climate factors (pp. 71-78). The reader might be helped by a more explicit explanation. Sarason suggests that a common pattern is for the teacher to ask questions and the student to answer, despite the fact that fostering student curiosity should lead to the opposite pattern. Most educators recognize the value of student initiation of questions, and when teachers become aware of their own more negative question asking patterns, through adept clinical supervision, they become able to change the pattern. However, in many schools, as suggested by Sarason (1975, p. 77), "the predetermined curriculum that suggests that teachers cover a certain amount of material within certain time intervals with the expectation that their pupils as a group will perform at certain levels at certain times is responded to by teachers in a way as to make for the fantastic discrepancy between the rate of teacher and student questions." Thus, the curriculum requirements encourage teachers to develop behavioral regularities generally considered as undesirable. Teacher concern over being evaluated on the basis of the amount of curriculum covered militates against what is normally considered an excellent teaching pattern. Whether one agrees with the value of student question-asking is, as Sarason notes, not the point.

To follow the example through to logical conclusion, it would seem that even if through clinical supervision the teacher became aware

of this or some other unproductive teacher-student interaction, neither the power of the supervision nor teacher ability to change would be adequate to produce a change because the school climate may militate against such a change. That is, a teacher may not change a question-asking pattern because it may result in covering less curriculum, which in turn could result in a poor evaluation. Especially in the days of reduction-in-force, few teachers feel they can afford a poor evaluation. Consequently, as productive as clinical supervision might be to improve performance, it will not result in new, more effective teaching/learning patterns in a school climate that may administratively punish the implementation of strategies resulting from clinical supervision (Sarason, 1975, pp. 77-78).

The correction of the above situation is complex. Where do the curriculum expectations come from? How were they derived? How are they changed? Can they be changed? What else is effected by the curriculum expectations or would be effected by a change in the curriculum guidelines? These are but a <u>few</u> of the questions that need to be asked--the tip of the iceberg. Suffice it to say that school climate factors must be systematically diagnosed before initiating change efforts. Many administrators have attempted to initiate change and been frustrated by a complex maze they did not understand nor see. This has resulted in limiting change efforts. Lobb et al. (1973) describe the situation well:

> Many administrators, having been clobbered by backlash a few times, are hesitant to promote or even to permit innovation. Some go through the motions of promoting change by launching a few pseudo-projects--projects with innovative titles which really don't change anything. Others just keep the place going and protect their flanks--a full time job in most schools. Our communities are complex mazes of relationships among people and groups, any combination of which can support or torpedo efforts to make schools better. (p. 15)

The complexity of the community and of the school yield a complex school climate. Thus, it is difficult to identify those forces that hinder and those forces that facilitate desired changes. The next two sections of background literature review the forces several authors have identified as either hindering or facilitating a productive clinical supervision program.

Hindering School Climate Factors

More than a half dozen pieces of literature are addressed in this section of hindering forces. The purposes of exploring this area are twofold: first, to confirm the assertion that factors external to the clinical supervision process do, in fact, have an effect on clinical supervision productivity, and second, to provide insight into the nature of some of the impacting external forces. The main point is not to exhaust the literature for every possible external factor as much as it is to solidify the notion that these factors exist and must be reckoned with.

Sarason (1975) discusses four factors as only a partial sample of the more general factors in the school culture that hinder both efforts at change and job satisfaction. The four factors outlined are: 1) It is generally assumed that few people question the programmatic regularities of the schools, and anyone who does demonstrates deviant thinking or a minority point of view. 2) Discussion and planning in schools is based on avoidance of controversy. 3) Individual impotence to effect change is a common pervasive feeling. 4) It is generally assumed that the public will oppose any meaningful or drastic change (pp. 70-71). Of special note is that Sarason has focused on the more psychological aspects, in part, because he believes that schools can be changed if it were possible to change thinking. There is a suggestion that other more structural or physical hinderances could be removed or minimized more easily than could thinking be changed. Sarason (1975) explains it as follows:

> Put in another way: the overt regularities that can be discerned in the classroom reflect covert pinciples and theories. If we wish to change the overt regularities, we have as our first task to become clear about the covert principles and theories: those assumptions and conceptions that are so overlearned that one no longer questions or thinks about them. They are "second nature", so to speak. If these assumptions and conceptions remain unverbalized and unquestioned, which is to say that thinking does not change, the likelihood that any of the overt regularities one wants to change will in fact change is drastically reduced. It would all be so simple if one could legislate changes in thinking. (p. 193)

Sarason's approach of dealing with the underlying thought processes and relationships parallels the Doak model of change. Both authors suggest dealing with the perceptions of the target group before attempting to change overt regularities. Danley and Burch (1978) conducted research on overt regularities with educational supervisors. The supervisors were asked to respond as to their perceived performance of ten various roles their jobs require them to fulfill. The role the supervisors ranked number one in priority was that of "Observation and Evaluation", yet the role most difficult for the supervisors to allott appropriate time to was that of "Observation and Evaluation." The role was perceived as not fulfilled due primarily to the following restraints: insufficient personnel, limited resources, too much paperwork, external regulations, poor time management, and unexpected demands. The researchers generally concluded that supervisors are affected by many forces external to any one particular role.

Lippitt et al. (1967) explored the ways in which school climate variables can be both hindering and facilitating forces for the innovation and diffusion of teaching practices. The results of the research are presented in table form by the authors in Lippitt et al. (1967, pp. 310-311) and are presented as Table 1, on the next two pages of this document. Lippitt and colleagues worked with numerous schools in the adoption of more effective teaching methodologies and found that the structure and arrangement of the school building, personal position

TABLE 1

FORCES RELEVANT TO THE FACILITATION AND HINDRANCE OF INNOVATION AND DIFFUSION OF TEACHING PRACTICES

	Facilitating forces	Hindering forces
1. Characteristics of the practice	A. Relevant to universal student problems	A. Does not meet the needs of a class
	B. Can be done a little at a time	B. Requires a lot of energy
	C. Consultant and peer help available, needed skills are clearly outlined	C. Requires new skills
	D. Clearly aids student growth	D. Requires change in teacher values
	E. A behavioral change with no new gimmicks	E. Requires new facilities
	F. Built-in evaluation to see progress	F. Won't work
	G. Innovation has tried a new twist	G. Not new
	H. Student, not subject, oriented	H. Not for my grade level or subject
	I. No social practice can be duplicated exactly	I. Effectiveness reduced if practice gains general use
2. Physical and temporal arrangements	A. Staff meetings used for professional growth, substitutes hired to free teacher(s) to visit other classrooms, lunchtime used for discussions, students sent home for an afternnon so teachers can all meet together	A. No time to get together
	B. Extra clerical help provided	B. Too many clerical duties to have time to share ideas

TABLE 1--Continued

	Facilitating forces	Hindering forces
	C. Staff meetings for everyone to get together, occasionally; grade level or departmental meetings	C. Classrooms are isolated
	D. Meetings held in classrooms	D. No rooms to meet in
3. Peer and authority relations	A. Sharing sessions or staff bulletins become a matter of school routine	A. Little communication among teachers
	B. Public recognition given to innovators and adapters; innovation-diffusion seen as a cooperative task	B. Competition for prestige among teachers
	C. Sharing ideas is expected and rewarded; norms support asking for and giving help; regular talent search for new ideas	C. Norms enforce privatism
	D. Area team liaison supports new ideas	D. Colleagues reject ideas
	E. Principal or superintendent supports innovation-diffusion activity	E. Principal is not interested in new ideas
	F. Principal helps create a staff atmosphere of sharing and experimentation	F. School climate doesn't support experimentation
	G. Staff meetings used as two-way informing and educating sessions	G. Principal doesn't know what's going on
	H. Teachers influence the sharing process	H. Teacher ideas don't matter

TABLE 1--Continued

	Facilitating forces	Hindering forces
4. Personal attitudes	A. Seeking new ways	A. Resisting change
	B. Seeking peer and consultant help	B. Fearing evaluation and rejecting failure
	C. Always open to adapting and modifying practices	C. Dogmatism about already knowing about new practices
	D. Public rewards for professional growth	D. Feeling professional growth not important
	E. See groups as endemic and relevant for academic learning	E. Negative feelings about group work
	F. Understand connection between mental health and academic learning	F. Mental health is "extra"
	G. Optimism	G. Pessimism
	H. Test ideas slowly	H. Afraid to experiment
	I. Suiting and changing practice to fit one's own style and class	I. Resistance to imitating others

Table 1 force field analysis presented by R. Lippitt et al., "The Teacher as Innovator, Seeker, and Sharer of New Practices" in Perspectives on Educational Change, ed. Richard I. Miller, New York: Meredith, 1967, pp. 310-311.

in peer social relationships, the way the peer group perceives a teacher or a teacher relates to a peer group, the way teachers interact with the principal on other matters, and practices the principal pursues with the faculty as a whole are variables all impacting on the innovation and diffusion of teaching practices. The authors highlight the critical role of the principalship in creating an appropriate environment. The reader will notice that sections two and three of the information in Table 1 deal entirely with school climate factors, and even in section four, titled "Personal Attitudes", frequent reference is made to school climate factors.

Cogan (1973) is also specific in identifying factors external to the supervisor-teacher relationship which may interfere with the productivity of clinical supervision. He suggests the possibility of many and varied negative influences that may have nothing to do with the supervisor himself, such as, previous supervision experiences, previous experiences with the supervisor in other settings, notions about what supervision means, the nature of the mini social system in the classroom, understandings of role and authority of school personnel, and so forth (pp. 78-86). Cogan's (1973) brief outline of one of these contributing factors is illuminating:

> Why is it so hard for the supervisor--even if we endow him with all the admirable qualities he needs--to gain acceptance as a nonparticipant in the classroom? From the teachers point of view the presence of the supervisor in class may represent a challenge to his power. The supervisor may upset the social

> equilibrium of the class. He comes and goes as he pleases, which may be interpreted to mean that he can override the teacher's power to determine who may enter and leave the classroom. (p. 84)

One can only conjecture that if in the school climate the roles, power structure, problem solving, etc. were defined in a collegial nature, a traumatic effect upon teacher would be less likely to occur by supervisor entrance into the classroom, thus creating an environment more productive for the analysis of teaching behavior. Mattaliano (1977), explores everyday school practices that limit the productivity of the environment and of clinical supervision. He suggests the existence of many thwarting factors such as compulsion, an evaluative atmosphere, the impact of crowds, living by rules with external values imposed, marking systems, promotion policies, competition, use of force, teacher overconcern for right answers, a non-trusting attitude toward students and rigidities and regulations that all serve to dehumanize or otherwise interfere with learning and self-actualization. The author focuses on the supervisor-teacher relationship and identifies two more key climate factors that thwart clinical supervision efforts: first, supervisor respect for the teacher as a professional is missing, and second, supervisor giving and teacher receiving is unsatisfying and unhelpful to the teacher (pp. 31-36).

Harris (1976) identifies a number of other factors he feels impinge on the process of clinical supervision. Time is a scarce

commodity yet it is important to have ample time for clinical supervision, cross pressures in schools can cause confusion, frustration, and alienation, peer pressure to behave in certain ways can limit alternatives, organizational structures confront the process with rules, procedures, and expectations inconsistent with underlying assumptions of clinical supervision, and finally, that working in isolated classrooms limits sharing of ideas and a high level of awareness of alternative methods of instruction (pp. 86-88). Suffice it to say that Harris has found it a challenge to implement clinical supervision. He further suggests alternative forms or modifications of the clinical supervision procedure as one way of dealing with the hindering forces and increasing productivity of supervision. However, there are also a number of forces in the environment that tend to support or facilitate clinical supervision efforts. These are explored in the next section.

Facilitating School Climate Factors

Bellon et al. (1976) point once again to the supervisor role in the productivity of clinical supervision.

> While many new instructional approaches are tried in the schools these days, too often, there is a lack of success in sustaining even the most promising innovation. Studies have suggested that the single most important factor in any major educational change is the presence of a strong leader who is committed to the new approach. (p. 11)

Perhaps this is so. If the reader refers to Table 1, the reader will notice that mention of the supervisor (or a direct connection to the supervisor) occurs frequently. The supervisor is also mentioned in a key role in the previously cited hindering factors according to the researchers. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971, p. 101), addressing the part the supervisor plays, conclude that a "significant direction for leadership-supervisory behavior is toward the development and maintenance of a climate most conducive to dynamic instructional leadership." After a review of research on supervisor-subordinate relations, the same authors assert that teachers respond best when they perceive that they and their principal are mutually influential, and the principal's power is derived from expertise. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971, p. 47) state, "It seems readily apparent that supervisory behavior which relies on functional authority and on expert and referent power bases will have positive effects on the human organization of the school." The supervisor is an important facilitating force in other ways too. According to Mattaliano (1977, p. 100), "it is necessary that the supervisor provide the teacher with protection during the change process by working to enhance the teacher's potentials for success, working to minimize the teacher's possibilities for failure, and by helping the teacher to feel assured that he/she will be supported no matter what the outcome (Blumberg, 1974, p. 44; Cogan, 1973, p. 73)." It is further suggested that the principal must take

measures which will assure a climate that promotes teacher growth toward teacher potential (Mattaliano, 1977, p. 34). The author suggests that in order for this to happen

> . . . the supervisor must organize the school so that individuals are:
> 1. trusted and respected
> 2. made to feel that they are an important part of the school
> 3. encouraged to communicate and behave openly
> 4. encouraged to behave spontaneously and creatively
> 5. valued for their individuality. (p. 33)

A great deal is ascribed to the supervisor by Mattaliano (1977) in order for clinical supervision to endure productively or to endure at all. Outlined are the enhancing school practices of actively promoting, encouraging, and maintaining climate conditions which enable productive clinical supervision (pp. 32-34).

Wiles (1967, p. 7) suggests that the supervisor must create the kind of structure or "the kind of climate in which people will help each other, in which people feel more adequate, more worthy, more self-directing, surer of what they believe, and equipped to become acquainted with a wider range of ways of implementing their beliefs." In other research it has been concluded that the principal would have at least partial success in manipulating the school climate (Sommers, 1971, p. 97). Research in other fields also suggests that the management can build and maintain a highly effective interaction-influence system (Likert, 1967, p. 100). Bellon et al. (1976) discuss the beliefs and attitudes a supervisor must hold.

> The leadership style of supervisors and administrators is crucial to the notion of synergism. They must hold assumptions about others in the organization which can be operationalized into cooperative working relationships. Attitudes about renewal are also central to the entire change process. Concerns about evaluation and performance must be dealt with. Out of this complex set of issues, we have had at least one important finding. The processes and procedures used in the supervision-evaluation program must provide opportunities for cooperative non-hierarchical, working relationships. Power and influence need to be shared by teachers and administrators if development and renewal activities are to succeed. (p. viii)

Argyris (1973, p. 63) suggests the supervisor must hold beliefs and attitudes consistent with Theory Y in order to promote organizational self-renewal, effective problem solving, and real and lasting change. McGregor's Theory Y is also suggested by Mattaliano (1977), Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971), and a host of other researchers in the field of supervision, as a necessary condition for productive supervision. For more in-depth information on the Theory Y assumptions, the reader is directed to Bennis and Schein (1979) annotated in the bibliography. However, the focus should not be limited strictly to the responsibility of the supervisor. While it is true that the supervisor is a key force, he or she is not the only force. Establishment of objectives and goals are critical for a positive school climate to develop (Jenkins and Tunney, 1975, p. 128), and these are not always within the power of the supervisor to affect. Organizational health is measured by congruence of organizational and individual goals (Doak, 1970, p. 369). While it is true that it is generally a supervisory

decision to include staff in decision making, it is up to people affected by decisions to participate openly and honestly. It takes two to be cooperative. Building a satisfying job requires efforts from both the supervisor and the staff. Morale plays a key role in the eventual productivity of clinical supervision. As Wiles (1967) put it:

> Industry has found a positive correlation between low morale and a high rate of absenteeism and tardiness. Loafing, taking excessive time away from the task at hand, and constant bickering are signs of dissatisfaction with the job. Cheerfulness, promptness, enthusiasm, dependability, and cooperation are indications of high morale.
>
> Morale effects the amount of work a person does. Low morale cuts down production. High morale increases it. If morale is high, a staff will do its best to promote effective learning. If morale is low, teachers will not live up to their potential ability, and the school will operate at far less than its maximum efficiency. High morale is built by making sure the job provides much of the satisfaction that an individual wants from life. (p. 227)

Constant institutional renewal, continual growth, and heavy involvement are also facilitating forces (Wilson et al., 1969, p. 54). Organizational viability based on a high priority for change, orientation toward teaching and learning rather than maintenance and control, insistence on quality teaching performances, clear objectives and expectations, and full support of a system of instructional supervision are necessary forces as well (Alfonso, Firth and Neville, 1975, p. 339). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971, pp. 101-104) suggest that necessary for productive supervision is a healthy climate characterized by goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and

problem-solving adequacy. Wiles (1967, pp. 286-290) states a similar list itemizing sixteen variables. But once again, the point is not to itemize every possible variable that facilitates productive clinical supervision, but rather, to make the point that certain variables in the climate do affect it. Perhaps the most outstanding piece of work on facilitating forces in a systematic relationship is The Human Organization written by Rensis Likert (1967). The author took fifty-one organizational variables and classified them by degree into the four management systems referred to earlier in this chapter. Clinical supervision is a supervisory process based on a collegial relationship of full participation and problem solving. This process is consistent with Likert's portrayal of a System 4 organization. Such an organization is characterized by mutual confidence, trust, influence, and support between superiors and subordinates; accurate, open, two-way communication both upwards and downwards as well as amongst peers; full opportunity for input and decision-making by all involved; positive motives and attitudes toward the organization and its goals; high satisfaction with the organization and personal achievements; cooperative teamwork and empathetic interaction; high expectations and goals; availability of self-renewal opportunities; and an informal organization supportive and complimentary to the former. This description of a System 4 organization very closely parallels the School Climate Profile utilized in this study. Just as each of the component

parts of System 4 fits with the other parts but not with parts from another system, so too, it is suggested that clinical supervision fits with a high quality school climate and not with a low quality school climate. This point was explained in unequivocal terms by authors interested in the development of more effective educational supervision methods. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) conclude:

> The hard facts of the matter suggest that a system 2 supervisor who wishes to adopt one dimension of system 4 will not have success without adopting each of the other dimensions. By the same token, a supervisor who tries to adopt all of the system 4 dimensions with the exception of one or two (for example, he still lacks confidence and trust in subordinates--a system 1 characteristic) will experience failure. (p. 123)

In summary, it would seem that a case could be made for the importance of many variables of the school climate in facilitating a productive supervisory environment. The principal or supervisor plays a key role, but not the only role, in the development of a productive climate and of productive clinical supervision. The critical concept in this discussion is that these variables must function as complimentary component parts consistent with the underlying assumptions of clinical supervision if clinical supervision is to be productive. Each part of the organization must be analyzed and chosen wisely. The School Climate Profile, the last section of the questionnaire used in this study, was selected because of its potential to help analyze the school climate and begin a productive change sequence.

Selection of the School Climate Profile

The participative management approach inherent in the clinical supervision process also characterizes the C.F.K. Ltd. School Climate Profile developed in 1973 by the C.F.K. Ltd. Task Force. The notion of participative leadership is widely accepted. Greiner (1973, p. 117) came to that conclusion a number of years ago: "The implied message from managers in this study is: Let's stop beating our chests over the abstract virtues of participative leadership and settle down to defining its more specific uses and limitations in actual practice." The School Climate Profile aims to clarify the climate regularities to enable leadership to be productive. Clarity is necessary as indicated by Sarason (1975, p. 72): "It is, I think, only when one is confronted with a clear regularity that one stands a chance of clarifying the relationship between theory and practice, intention and outcome." Introducing a change into a setting, without climate knowledge, is likely to misfire. However, familiarity with the setting is not a guarantee against failure (Sarason, 1975, p. 58). With that warning in mind, a closer look at the School Climate Profile is warranted.

The primary aim of the profile is similar to that of clinical supervision--to improve student learning. The validity of the School Climate Profile to function productively toward this end is confirmed by Roth (1978):

> There is ample evidence to prove that climate in a school has a direct bearing on achievement of learners. Both Michigan and California, to name but two studies, have done research to prove this. Our own experience with the School Climate Profile compared to test results and student behavior is a modest affirmation of the value of climate's effect on achievement. (p. 33)

The C.F.K. Ltd. School Climate Profile is presented in Fox et al. (1973), School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator. This book is based on the practices of over twenty-five school systems across the nation which have actually been operating school climate improvement programs since 1968 (Fox et al., 1973, p. 25). Jenkins and Tunney (1975) give additional information on the development of the profile:

> It should be noted that this task force used many of the concepts of an earlier (1971) CFK Ltd. publication, The Principal as the School's Climate Leader: A New Role for the Principalship. This publication was developed by Charles F. Kettering II (deceased), George Larnie, William Georgiades, and Eugene Howard along with some of those mentioned above.
>
> About 200 school administrators involved in school climate improvement endeavors throughout the United States provided ideas and suggestions for drafts of the document. (p. 70)

The profile data is designed to be used in many ways. Three of these ways are itemized by the developers:

1. Climate factors or determinants that are lowest and highest. The lowest factors may be a source for climate improvement projects.
2. Discrepancies between how one role group ranks a climate factor or determinant versus how another group ranks it may furnish a stimulus for discussion and examination.

3. Large discrepancies between "what is" and "what should be" may serve as a stimulus for organizational goal reorientation. (Fox et al., 1973, p. 52)

The usefulness of the profile is to be highlighted. Having been developed by practitioners and used out of need rather than purely for research purposes, places it in a special class. As noted by Howell (1978, p. 5), "Providing a general description of school climate can be helpful only if it is associated to a plan of implementation."

The plan of implementation is, in all cases, guided by the two major climate goals of productivity and satisfaction. One without the other is not possible (Shaheen and Pedrick, 1974, p. 7). Productivity pertains to academic, social, and physical development of skills, knowledge, and attitudes. Productivity is critical to student development, particularly because of the large portion of their life students spend in school. Consequently, the second goal of satisfaction is equally important--gaining personal worth, enjoyment of a pleasant place to live and work, and gaining rewards from being involved in worthwhile activities (Fox et al., 1973, pp. 5-7).

It is suggested that productive and satisfied adults tend to promote productivity and satisfaction in students (Howell, 1978, p. 3). Lobb et al. (1973) have enlarged the notion of productivity and satisfaction beyond a student focus to a goal focus for staff as well:

> Larger school or school district goals may concern such factors as:

1. Productivity.
   a. continuous academic and social growth on the part of students.
   b. continuous professional growth on the part of school district employees.
   c. continuous institutional renewal.
2. Satisfaction in the school as evidenced by:
   a. high morale on the part of all communities.
   b. cohesiveness.
   c. gaining a sense of achievement and worth on the part of individuals and groups.
3. Improving the school services to the larger community.

(p. 34)

Achievement of productivity and satisfaction are assessed through eight factors which determine the quality of the climate. These are the ways in which the positiveness or negativeness of a climate is judged. Interaction of the school's programs, processes, and physical conditions yields evidence of the existence of the eight general climate factors (Fox et al., 1973, p. 7).

Ideally, evidence should reveal:

1. Respect. Students, teachers, and administrators should feel as persons of worth and of worthwhile ideas that are listened to and count. Staff and students should be self respecting, respecting of others, and free from put-downs.
2. Trust. There is confidence that others behave honestly, by doing what they say they will do, and by not letting people down.
3. High Morale. People feel good about what is happening.
4. Opportunities for Input. Although not all persons can be involved in making important decisions nor be as influential as one would like, every person should have the opportunity to contribute his or her ideas and know they have been considered. The school should benefit from every person's resources.
5. Continuous Academic and Social Growth. Students develop academic, social, and physical skills, knowledge, and attitudes. Staff, too, develop continuously their skills,

knowledge, and attitudes in regard to their assignments and to the cooperative membership of a team.

6. Cohesiveness. Staff and students should feel a part of the school, want to stay with it, collaborate with others, and exert influence on it.
7. School Renewal. The school as an institution should develop improvement projects and be oriented toward growth, development, and change rather than routine, procedure, and conformity. Differences and the "new" are regarded with interest rather than as a threat. Diversity and pluralism are valued. The school is able to adjust and organize movement toward goals rapidly and efficiently, with an absence of stress and conflict.
8. Caring. Every person feels some other person or persons in the school are concerned about him or her as a human being, and that it will make a difference if he or she is happy or sad, healthy or ill. Teachers should feel the principal cares about them whether or not they make mistakes or disagree. The principal should feel that the teachers understand the pressures experienced by the principal and that help is available.
9. The authors suggest that factors may be added or deleted to this list of eight factors describing the school's climate. (Fox et al., 1973, pp. 7-9)

In order for a school to approach climate goals, students and staff must be able to fulfill their basic human needs. When there is an opportunity to fulfill basic human needs through the interaction of the programs, processes, and materials of the school, the eight quality indicators (discussed above) will be positive. Thus, an effective facilitating climate must evidence the satisfaction of the following basic human needs:

1. Physiological.
2. Safety.
3. Acceptance and Friendship.
4. Achievement and Recognition.
5. Maximizing One's Potential. (Fox et al., 1973, p. 9)

These factors are interrelated as represented in Figure 3. This figure appears in Fox et al. (1973, p. 17) and on the following page of this study. Theory proposed by Maslow (1954) underlies the concept of basic human need fulfillment. This theory has been stated as basic to clinical supervision (Mattaliano, 1977; Eaker, 1972) as well as to school climate (Fox et al., 1973; Shaheen and Pedrick, 1974) practices. Furthermore, theory of Getzels and Guba (1957), suggesting the necessity of the integration of personal and organizational goals to achieve productivity and satisfaction, underlies both clinical supervision (Mattaliano, 1977) and school climate (Fox et al., 1973; Shaheen and Pedrick, 1974) practices. The same is true for the theory of McGregor as noted by the same group of authors. Shaheen and Pedrick (1974, p. 27) state that, "McGregor's insights regarding the importance of expectations, support systems, and peer work/professional growth groups may help the administrator develop an effective organizational climate." Furthermore, the authors suggest that the work of Maslow, Likert, Sergiovanni, and others contribute to the development of a healthy, productive and satisfying climate. To quote Shaheen and Pedrick (1974):

> These theories have many commonalities. They reach into and utilize business and management processes. They accept and value the importance of effective communications, clarity of goals and objectives, shared decision-making, concern for human feelings, and the power of the superintendent to contribute significantly to an enterprise. (p. 28)

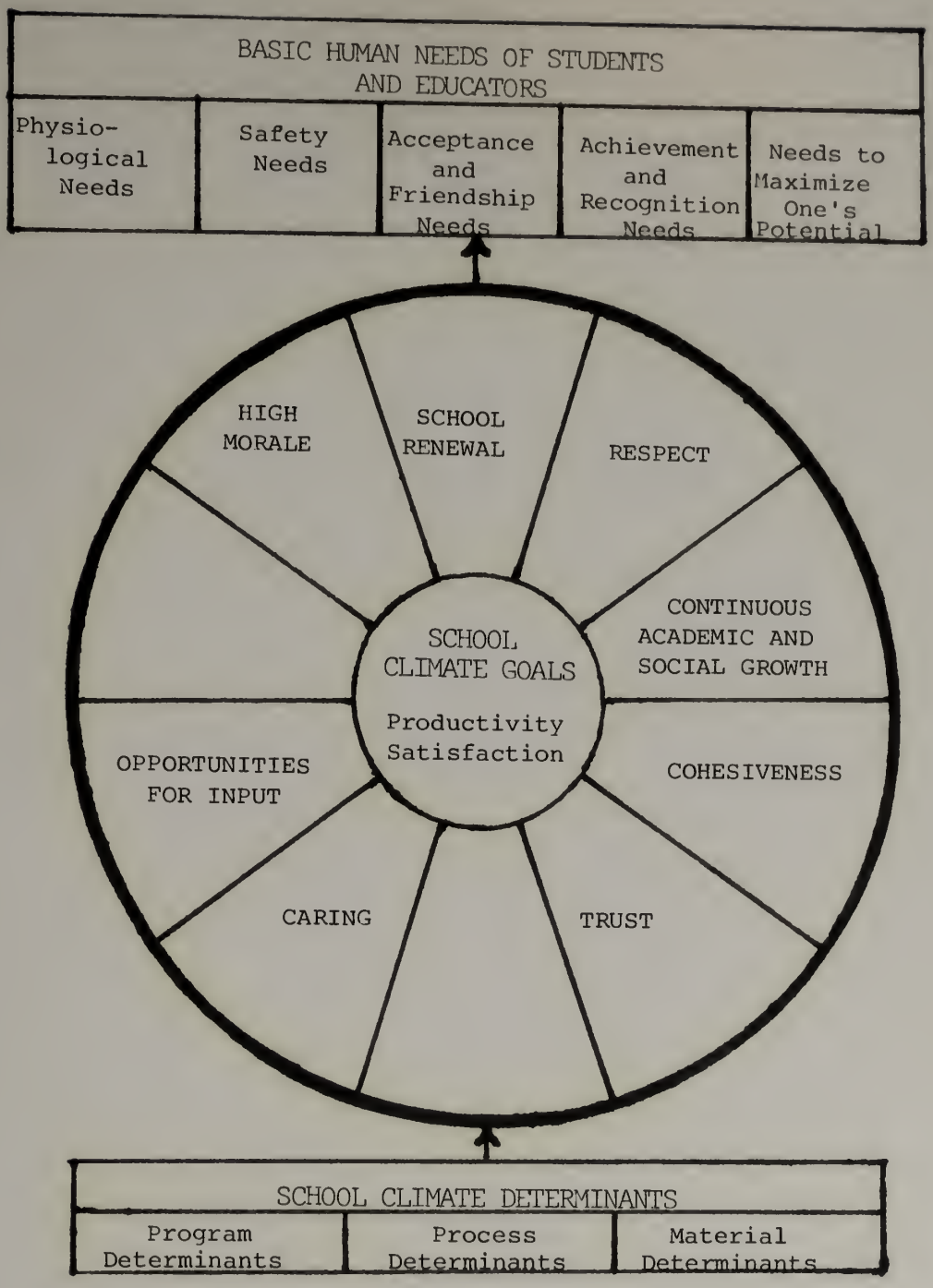

Figure 3. The School Climate

This figure is presented in Fox et al. (1973, p. 17).

It is not likely that the school or school district can improve the climate factors through direct means (Fox et al., 1973, p. 11; Shaheen and Pedrick, 1974, p. 13). As Fox et al. (1973) point out:

> They (the eight general climate factors) are universal, and their quality is actually a result of the practices and programs of the more specific school operations within the areas of program, process, and material determinants described in the following section. (p. 11)

Shaheen and Pedrick (1974) suggest that the principles true for specific school operations are applicable for school district operations as well:

> It is through the activities of the people of the school district that the climate improves. It is through the foresighted practices of program, process, and availability and use of materials that the school district climate better serves the community. The improvement of the general climate factors comes best through the improvement of programs, processes and materials. (p. 13)

The programs, processes, and materials of the school are determined by eighteen features of a school's operation. The eighteen features are not meant to be completely exhaustive. They are quite comprehensive, as the reader will see, yet features may be deleted or added depending on the need and use of the School Climate Profile. The features are outlined as follows:

> A. Program Determinants--1. opportunities for active learning, 2. individualized performance expectations, 3. varied learning environments, 4. flexible curriculum and extracurricular activities, 5. support and structure appropriate to the learner's maturity, 6. rules cooperatively determined, 7. varied reward systems.

B. Process Determinants--1. problem solving ability, 2. improvement of school goals, 3. identifying and working with conflicts, 4. effective communications, 5. involvement of decision making, 6. autonomy with accountability, 7. effective teaching-learning strategies, 8. ability to plan for the future.

C. Material Determinants--1. adequate resources, 2. supportive and efficient logistical system, 3. suitability of school plant. (Fox et al., 1973, pp. 13-16)

For additional information on each of the eighteen features the reader is referred to Fox et al. (1973). Each of the features is defined and detailed to give "a picture of what each determinant might look like in a school where the climate for that particular determinant is exemplary (p. 73)." Indicators of each of the features are pictured for administrative, student, staff, and parent behaviors. A comprehensive picture is yielded by the School Climate Profile. However, as Fox et al. (1973) indicate:

> It is important to note that the profile instrument does not pretend to include an item on every factor that might be significant. The value of the instrument is more as an overall school climate assessment tool rather than as a definitive or exhaustive survey. It can provide data to help in deciding what elements of the climate should be looked at more intensively. Further, the instrument is designed to obtain data concerning people's perceptions of each climate element and factor and how they believe each might be. (p. 18)

In addition to the theoretical notions and underlying assumptions of the School Climate Profile that have already been discussed, Fox et al. (1973) suggest additional assumptions behind its development:

1. School climate improvement is an ongoing task beneficial to individual schools as well as school systems (p. x). (Clinical supervision is a similar type of effort.)

2. It may not be possible or desirable to attempt to improve all climate aspects simultaneously (p. x). (Clinical supervision is also intended to have a focus.)

3. An administrator should examine his/her own values and motivation before deciding what he/she wants to do to provide leadership for climate improvement (p. x). (In much the same way, it is suggested that clinical supervision participants must begin by examining personal beliefs and values.)

4. The school administrator must model expected teacher behavior by setting out his/her own self improvement plan (p. 24). (The parallels to clinical supervision are critical: modelling, goal setting, and risk-taking by attempting to develop strategies for improvement.)

5. The supervisor is capable of setting own self-improvement goals through analysis of own strengths and weaknesses (p. 24). (The belief in the capability of personnel to improve through rational analysis is common to clinical supervision as well.)

6. The administrator has the responsibility to provide leadership for climate improvement (p. x). (Advocates of clinical

supervision also suggest the principal plays a key leadership role.)

7. "A positive school climate is both a means and an end (p. 1)."

8. A humane climate is desirable (p. 1). (Clinical supervision is a humane process.)

9. Humaneness of a school's climate can be measured (p. 1).

10. Schools should provide a designed and humane environment for students and staff (p. 23). (Clinical supervision can and should be a part of that design.)

11. Many perennial school problems are symptoms of deeper climate concerns (p. 3). (So, too, are patterns revealed in clinical supervision part of a larger picture.)

12. School programs must deal with the human needs of students, faculty, and administrators to be effective (p. 3). (Clinical supervision is one way to deal humanely with human needs in the supervisory subsystem)

13. A school can have trust and effective communication between administrators and teachers, between teachers and students and parents, and still retain respect for individuality and diverse value positions (p. 5). (It is also suggested in clinical supervision that a similar type of relationship can exist and still retain respect for individuality and diverse teaching approaches.)

14. The principal provides basic leadership for school climate improvement, assessing, evaluating, goal setting, strategizing, implementing, and improving school climate improvement projects (p. 24). (A similar sequence of events characterizes the clinical supervision process.)

15. The school administrator should gain an understanding of school climate by diagnosing climate strengths and problems (p. 33). (It has already been asserted that clinical supervision should not be implemented unless a climate analysis has been conducted.)

16. Collegial teamwork should be organized to solve problems (pp. 33 and 35). (The aspect of collegial teamwork is a cornerstone of clinical supervision.)

17. Staff members benefit from individual personal/professional growth programs (p. 35). (Clinical supervision is designed to be just that.)

18. The School Climate Profile is designed to serve two larger purposes: 1) assessment of climate factors and determinants to aid decision making about priority targets for improvement projects, and 2) formation of a baseline against which climate changes can be measured (p. 51). (Similarly, clinical supervision is also a means of assessment for the purposes of decision making on future teacher behavior, and also a means by which a baseline can be taken on teacher skills.)

19. "Data based on people's perceptions of how things are or how they feel about them are important. Most behavior is motivated by the individual's perceptions of reality (p. 52)." (Clinical supervision is also based on tenants of perceptual psychology.)

The basic approach of the School Climate Profile methodology suggests a rational, planned, self renewal process through methods of organizational self-confrontation. Clinical supervision is also a method of self-confrontation, but on the level of the individual. The two processes are supportive of one another. The notion of change is embodied in both processes as a natural and healthy phenomenon. As pointed out by Lobb et al. (1973):

> Change becomes somewhat less threatening if it is considered as a necessary ingredient to life and growth. All biological and sociological organisms, groups, individuals, and institutions must change or they die. Change is the only true constant and disequilibrium is a precondition for learning. (p. 6)

Thus, examination of the School Climate Profile revealed a methodology, social psychological premises, and change and organizational theory similar to the underlying assumptions of clinical supervision. Furthermore, the profile was designed, in part, by practitioners, used by practitioners, and was readily useful to schools interested in participating in this study. Results from the study would more likely be useful to other schools, especially in view of the very specific data about program, process, and material determinants

yielded from completion of the instrument. The actual document used in this study is a revision of this original. Jenkins and Tunney (1977) utilized the School Climate Profile in nine schools, and through factor analysis of the results, reduced the number of items from 130 to 50. This reduction in the number of items resulted because some items tended to measure the same thing over and over again. The resulting shorter instrument (listed in the appendix) with its seven groups appears to be particularly useful for this study because questions of a dubious nature were eliminated and the shortness allows completion of the instrument in only ten to fifteen minutes. Both features are critical to a study which solicits as much data from respondents as does this one. The seven groups were named by the authors as follows: 1. Humane Teachers, 2. Opportunity for Input, 3. Caring, 4. Individualization, 5. Supportiveness, 6. Innovativeness and 7. Suitability of School Plant.

Summary

It can be said that there is a necessary relationship between clinical supervision and school climate, between one subsystem and its suprasystem, and between underlying values, relationships, and interpretation of human behavior in both clinical supervision and school climate literature. Assessment of one would appear to be helpful in the assessment of the other. Improvement of one would appear to be helpful

in the improvement of the other, but, improvement of one without the other probably will not work in the long run. As Grahlman (1978) put it,

> Effectiveness of the educational process of the school can only be improved by changes in the classroom; materials, facilities, and student or teacher behaviors. All of these variables are directly related to school climate. (p. 10)

In many schools and school districts the school climate exists because the school exists. The school climate exists by default rather than by design. As such it is a matter of luck as to whether clinical supervision or some other innovation or change will accomplish what is hoped. The assessment, analysis, planning, and strategizing of school climate should be the first effort to be undertaken before efforts to change a subsystem are initiated. Both the School Climate Profile-Revised Edition and clinical supervision are approaches to change within the organization that are humane and optimistic. They are based on the belief that there exists a number of strengths upon which any staff development effort can be built. As Dillon (1978) suggests:

> Although staff development in some schools or school districts is based on remediating inadequacies or shoring-up weaknesses, it is very unlikely to enhance the climate of either the individual building or the district if it has that connotation.
>
> For the purpose of this article, staff development is defined as, "those activities in which staff members at all levels participate which enable them to grow continuously as persons and as capable educators of young people." The emphasis is on <u>growth</u>, rather than repair! (p. 37)

The approach that is taken must be based on humane, optimistic, supportive efforts. As Sarason (1975, p. 167) suggests, inherent in teaching is giving of onself both intellectually and emotionally. Children need, want, require, and demand giving by the teacher which, in turn, is demanding, draining, and a taxing affair not easily sustained. In order for a teacher to continue giving they must experience getting. But,

> The sources for getting are surprisingly infrequent and indirect. One can get from children but this is rarely direct; one can get from colleagues and administrators, but this is even more infrequent. One can get from oneself in the sense that one feels one is learning and changing and that this will continue, but this crucial source of getting is often not strong enough to make for a better balance between giving and getting. One of the consequences of a marked disparity between giving and getting is development of a routine that can reduce the demand for giving. (p. 167)

The question to be answered by this study is whether a public school climate impacts on the outcomes of clinical supervision. But, an even more critical way of looking at the same question, is whether it is possible for a public school climate to facilitate a productive balance between giving and getting for all individuals involved in the school. The next chapter gives information on how these questions were explored in this study.

C H A P T E R I I I

ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter includes a description of the instrumentation, the sample, data collection, analysis methodology--statistical, and analysis methodology--content. The analysis sections vary in nature from traditional, widely accepted statistical methodology to modes of analysis not usually presented in a dissertation but more likely used by practitioners in the schools. A wide range of methods is used in an effort to yield results readily applicable by school personnel. The analysis of results follows in Chapter IV.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study are delineated in this section. The order in which they appear in the questionnaire (printed in the appendix) is the order in which they are discussed below.

The initial component comprised of six responses includes information about experience and duration factors of the supervision, the supervisees, and the supervisor. The information is basically descriptive in nature and helpful in limiting analysis to full time teachers with more than one year of experience with the clinical supervision process.

The second component of the survey, titled Survey Assessment of Teacher Supervision, is labeled Q.S. because this component represents an assessment of the quality of supervision. Research from the clinical supervision literature was utilized to develop a concise but comprehensive teacher assessment of the teacher perceived occurrence of quality determining elements and processes in the supervision. This was accomplished by selecting the most important assumptions of the model relating both to design factors and quality determining elements, and then phrasing each assumption as though it were an event in actual practice in the school. Participants were asked to comment on the occurrence of the selected statements in their own supervision experiences. For example, an important assumption noted by Eaker (1972) and cited as assumption number three in Chapter II, is that supervisor and teacher must meet before any classroom observation is attempted in the clinical supervision cycle. Thus, for use in this study, the assumption was rephrased, and the participants were asked to respond in the following manner:

	Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
2. Classroom observation is preceded by a conference with the teacher:	1	2	3	4

The number of concepts necessary to explore in this section and in the following sections of the questionnaire are many. Because of the requirement to solicit a large number of responses from each teacher, the necessity to limit the number of required responses in any one section arose. Thus the number of responses solicited in the Q.S. component were limited to twenty-four. Decisions as to the relative importance of including one statement and not another were based on the criteria of including the works of several researchers, of soliciting information on each of the five steps in the clinical supervision process as defined in Chapter I, of checking for the existence of significant elements that are sometimes omitted in an attempt to abbreviate the supervision process, of including elements that warrant thoughtful implementation due to their strategic nature, and of including elements that seven years of experience with the model have proven to me to be critical to the efficiency and effectiveness of it. The twenty-four statements are derived directly from the works of one of three authors (although indirectly the questions represent the works of many authors). Questions one through seven, twelve, thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, nineteen, twenty-two, and twenty-four are derived from previously cited research by Eaker (1972). Questions eight to eleven, fourteen, fifteen, and eighteen are derived from previously cited research by Champagne and Hogan (1977). Questions twenty, twenty-one, and twenty-three are derived from previously cited research by

Champagne and Morgan (1971), found in Shuma (1974). This twenty-four question component comprises pages two and three of the questionnaire.

Page four of the questionnaire, titled Assessment of Supervision Outcomes, is coded as S.O. in the data analysis and comprised of questions to assess teacher perceptions of the outcomes or results of the clinical supervision. The assessment of the results, outcomes, or, in other words, productivity of the supervision serves as a measure of the dependent variable.

Shuma (1974) developed an instrument appropriate for a similar assessment. She studied changes effectuated by a clinical supervisory relationship and designed an instrument to measure participant perceptions of supervisory conferences as one indication of resultant changes. The instrument is based on the work of Champagne and Hogan (1972), and although Shuma's objectives were slightly different than the objectives of this research, the instrument serves a useful purpose. The reader will note slight changes from the Shuma document to the document used in this study. The most significant departure is the addition of question number five for the purpose of adding greater depth and strength to the measure. The eight questions solicit perceptions of participants on both affective as well as cognitive measures. Both the Shuma instrument and the instrument used in this study are listed in the appendix.

The final section of the questionnaire, titled Questionnaire Developed From Factor Analysis of the C.F.K. Ltd. School Climate Profile (Jenkins and Tunney, 1977), was included in its entirety as it appeared in the Jenkins and Tunney (1977) dissertation. Questions one to fifty yield a score which serves as a barometric reading of the overall school climate, labeled S.C. Questions seven through ten (S.C.2.) focus on the variable of "Caring" as one aspect of the overall S.C., and questions eleven through fifteen (S.C.3.) focus on the variable of "Opportunity for Input" as a second component of the school climate. (Definitions of these two variables can be found in Chapter I.) Each of the seven parts of the total school climate survey is not treated individually. However, S.C.2 and S.C.3 were "areas of concern to the participants" in the Jenkins and Tunney (1977) dissertation as noted on page 129 of that document. It is because of this special notation that the two subunits are singled out for individual treatment while the remainder of the S.C. subunits are not.

Sample

Seven elementary and two middle school staffs participated in this study. Ninety-six percent or two hundred forty teachers completed the documents yielding a total of two hundred seven eligible respondents. Eliminated from analysis were responses of part time teachers or teachers with only one year or less experience with the

clinical supervision process. The nine participating schools are located in one school district in New York and one in Connecticut.

Data Collection

Each school district was contacted by telephone to determine participation. The Connecticut district decided to participate upon favorable consideration by the central office administrators, building administrators, and teacher council representatives. The process by which participation was determined is characteristic of the type of input encouraged on decision making throughout this district. In the New York district participation was decided by central office administrators and the building administrators. In all cases, teacher participation was mandatory once the initial decision to participate was made.

The questionnaires were mailed to each school, administered at a faculty meeting by either the building principal or a teacher representative, and put directly into mail envelopes upon completion. This process was followed to insure a high percentage of responses as well as anonymity of both individual and school participation.

Analysis Methodology—Statistical

The first step in analysis was to test the reliability of the Q.S. and S.O. scales because they were newly developed by the author as

ad hoc measures. As summarized by Kolstoe (1974) reliability must first be established before any attempt is made to determine a relationship between variables. There can be no validity without reliability. The tests of reliability selected were from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program. The results are reported in Chapter IV.

Another preliminary mode of analysis was the application of the Pearson Correlation technique to the interrelationship of the independent variables. Ideally the independent variables will not correlate so highly as to suggest that they are measuring substantially the same factor. However, given the system-subsystem theory, it is expected that some correlation does exist among the variables. As suggested by Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973), on page 46, "it seems that much of the world is correlated." But, as the correlation approaches 1.00 between independent variables, the integrity of the measures is questioned.

It has been suggested that not only does the Q.S. variable but the S.C. variables have an impact on the S.O. score. It is also within the realm of possibility that variables characteristic of other factors in any or all of the nine school sites have an impact on the S.O. score. Thus, in order to examine the possible effects of the independent variables on S.O., especially given continuous Q.S. and S.C. measures, multiple regression analyses with dummy variables is indicated. Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) point out on page 114, that in a

case of this type the multiple regression technique is the "superior or only appropriate method of analysis." The same authors also caution on page 71, that in the application of the technique "the relative efficacies of the variables are affected by the order of the variables in the equation." The impact of the order of introduction of the variables into the equation is magnified by the amount of correlation between the variables. The impact of the variable introduced second will appear to be less if it is correlated with the variable introduced first because the correlated impact is already reflected in the statistic of the first variable. Thus, only a smaller amount of variance will <u>appear</u> to be added to prediction by the second variable. Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) state the case as follows:

> It is quite possible for a variable to be by itself a significant predictor of a dependent variable, but, when added to another variable, which is itself a significant predictor of the dependent variable, not to add anything to the prediction. . . .
>
> The order in which variables are entered in a regression equation, then, is highly important. A variable entered as X_1 may act quite differently when entered as X_2 or X_3. The higher the correlation between X_1 and X_2, the more pronounced will be the difference. (p. 71)

Because of these complications, it was necessary to introduce the variables in two different orders to clarify the relationships and consequently help clarify conclusions drawn from the analysis of data. The following equations represent the analyses conducted:

1.

A.) $S.O. = Q.S. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + S.C. + Q.S.xS.C.$

B.) $S.O. = Q.S. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + S.C.2. + Q.S.xS.C.2.$

C.) $S.O. = Q.S. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + S.C.3. + Q.S.xS.C.3.$

2.

A.) $S.O. = S.C. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + Q.S. + Q.S.xS.C.$

B.) $S.O. = S.C.2. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + Q.S. + Q.S.xS.C.2.$

C.) $S.O. = S.C.3. + D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5 + D_6 + D_7 + D_8 + Q.S. + Q.S.xS.C.3.$

In 1. A.) above the Q.S. variable was introduced into the equation before S.C., before S.C.2. in B.), and before S.C.3. in C.). In the second group of equations S.C., S.C.2., and S.C.3. were introduced before Q.S. This reversal in procedure is designed to sort out the relative impact of each of the independent variables on S.O.

The effect of other factors associated with each school in addition to those measured by S.C. were controlled in these analyses by introducing school site as an additional independent variable. With nine schools in the sample, eight dummy variables were needed to control for the impact of school site (see Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). Even though the S.C. variable is designed as a comprehensive assessment of all environmental variables of significance, the inclusion of school site as an independent variable serves as an excellent check on the comprehensiveness of S.C. If this variable does not have a significant impact on S.O., such a result would lend confidence to the ability of

the S.C. measure to account for significant factors from the environment.

The Q.S. x S.C., Q.S. x S.C.2., and Q.S. x S.C.3. variables test the impact of the interaction effect of each pair of variables on S.O. They are included to determine whether the interaction of each set of variables yields a significant increment in the ability to predict S.O. after considering each variable alone.

In addition to the reversal of the sequence in which the variables were introduced into the equation, the variables were also introduced one at a time in a hierarchical regression analysis. In this way, it is possible to determine the impact and statistical significance of each variable as it was added to the equation. The formula for examining the statistical significance of the increment in the Multiple R for each variable added to the equation is cited in Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) on page 70. Results of the application of this test of significant difference are presented in Chapter IV.

The final piece of data presented in Chapter IV is the mean response for each school in each of the Q.S., S.O., and S.C. variables. This information is offered to help the reader gain a perspective of the average response on the questionnaire. These results will conclude the more statistically oriented presentations and provide a solid foundation for the information to follow it.

Analysis Methodology--Content

The preceding analysis methodology yields powerful statistical information useful for examining the hypotheses. However, the hypotheses are somewhat general in nature because they deal with the impact of the overall variables. This section of methodology attempts to delineate procedures which will yield more specific information useful to application in specific situations in schools. Thus, details from within the overall variables are explored in this section.

The first procedure is an informal and subjective analysis of the open-ended questions from the S.O. scale (questions six, seven, and eight of the third component of the questionnaire). These questions comprise a small portion of the responses and will be used as a validation of the numerical S.O. results as well as a clue to some of the "why's" of the S.O. results. All of the S.O. responses are available in the appendix, but they will be summarized in Chapter IV. The percentage of positive responses as well as analysis of facilitating and hindering forces in S.O. productivity are provided in this summary.

The last analysis attempts to analyze the variances of the numerical responses in the Q.S. and S.C. components of the questionnaire. An assumption that some items are more important than others in creating productive S.O. results is an assumption necessary to legitimize this type of analysis. The method is based on the concept

of uncovering facilitating and hindering forces within the variables by determining the mean score of the responses school by school and question by question.

Theoretical interpretations of how individual variables may be interconnected can be analyzed through this method. The results are intended to be consistent with and supportive of analysis drawn from other methods. It is also suggested that such an analysis may prove extremely useful on a practical basis. In fact, the school climate profile was designed to be used in item analysis with application to specific situations. It is used for this purpose in public schools in several modified forms as identified in the Jenkins and Tunney (1977) dissertation and the C.F.K. Ltd. Occasional Paper (1974) titled Two Adaptations of the C.F.K. Ltd. School Climate Profile. The suggestion is that responses to one or more questions may yield information useful in modifying existing school regularities in such a way that future responses to the same questions will become more positive, and thus the supervision more productive. More positive is defined as closer to four on the one to four scale. One caution is that any single item change in the existing regularities must be evaluated from an overall perspective, i.e., one question may retest higher while other questions may retest lower thus yielding an overall decline in the positive trend. A change would be positive only if the overall trend moved in a positive direction coupled with positive movement of the specified variable.

Through the use of confidence intervals, the two schools with the lowest mean scores on the total S.O., S.C., and Q.S. variables were selected and compared to the two highest mean score schools. Finally, new mean scores were established by computing the mean of the two low score means versus the mean of the two high score means. Those survey questions were selected in which comparison between low and high scoring results showed the greatest discrepancies on a question by question basis. It is hoped that this method may provide insight as to possible crucial points in the relationship between the subset of clinical supervision and the larger school climate. This analysis is not offered as a scientifically accurate method of determining specific strengths and weaknesses in order to prescribe a specific plan of improvement. Rather, this analysis is offered as a method of uncovering possible clues to a comprehensive and complex puzzle and of identifying possible areas in which future study may prove fruitful.

The presentation of results follows in Chapter IV.

C H A P T E R I V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The presentation of results follows the same order as the presentation of methodology in Chapter III. The stringent significance level of $p < .01$ for the regression analysis results was met in each of the tests performed on the data. Furthermore, all the results were significant in the predicted directions.

Analysis--Statistical

The first procedure was to test the reliability of the Q.S. and S.O. scales. A high degree of reliability is necessary before valid results can be yielded. Statistics 1, 3, 5, and 9 from the SPSS Reliability Analysis for Scale Reliability demonstrated high reliability for both the Q.S. and S.O. scales. The Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Q.S. was .948, and for S.O. it was .887.

The next results to be reported are the Pearson Correlation statistics on the interrelationships among the variables. On an individual by individual (N=207) basis, Q.S. correlated to S.O. with $r. = .6126$, S.C. correlated to S.O. with $r. = .5202$, and Q.S. and S.C. correlated to each other with $r. = .5367$. These results indicate high correlations with S.O. (especially Q.S.). The correlation of Q.S. to

S.C. is high, thus emphasizing the necessity for reversing the sequence of introduction of variables into the regression equations. The correlation between Q.S. and S.C. is understandable and supportive of the system-subsystem theoretical relationship discussed earlier. However, the Pearson correlation technique is too simplistic to fully explore a complex and comprehensive interdependence of variables such as that suggested by the hypotheses in this study.

A more sophisticated, rigorous, and revealing procedure is the hierarchical multiple regression discussed in Chapter III. A summary of the results of these tests is reported on the next pages in Table 2 and Figure 4. Only results significant to $p < .01$ are reported.

The analysis is simplified by the fact that the variable of school site (D_1 to D_8) did not meet the criterion for the test of significance. Since school site was discounted as a significant predictor of S.O., the remainder of the analysis must rely on the remaining independent variables. Thus, at least part of the unknown in the search for the cause of productive S.O. results has been eliminated, and the analysis can therefore be more narrowly focused through consideration of the hypothesized variables alone. This is not to say that only the hypothesized variables account for changes in S.O. Such an analysis would be incorrect because even the highest reported R factor indicates that additional variables may be impacting on S.O. However, the results indicate that at least one of the unknowns has

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF THE HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION FOR THE EFFECTS OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ON S.O.

Equation	Variable	Multiple R	R Square	R Square Change	F(1,195) =
1. A.	Q.S. to D_8	.65878	.43399		
	S.C.	.68891	.47459	.04061	15.08
	Q.S. x S.C.	.68901	.47473	.00014	
1. B.	Q.S. to D_8	.65878	.43399		
	S.C.2.	.68118	.46400	.03002	10.95
	Q.S. x S.C.2.	.68226	.46548	.00147	
1. C.	Q.S. to D_8	.65878	.43399		
	S.C.3.	.67497	.45558	.02159	7.73
	Q.S. x S.C.3.	.67501	.45564	.00006	
2. A.	S.C. to D_8	.59605	.35527		
	Q.S.	.68891	.47459	.11932	44.36
	Q.S. x S.C.	.68901	.47473	.00014	
2. B.	S.C.2. to D_8	.58255	.33936		
	Q.S.	.68118	.46400	.12464	45.49
	Q.S. x S.C.2.	.68226	.46548	.00147	
2. C.	S.C.3. to D_8	.56106	.31479		
	Q.S.	.67497	.45558	.14080	50.46
	Q.S. x S.C.3.	.67501	.45564	.00006	

NOTE: The F value is an indication of the statistical significance of variables added to the equation. For $F(1,195) = p < .01$, the F value must exceed 6.76. (The F value is not listed for the interaction variables because it is not significant.)

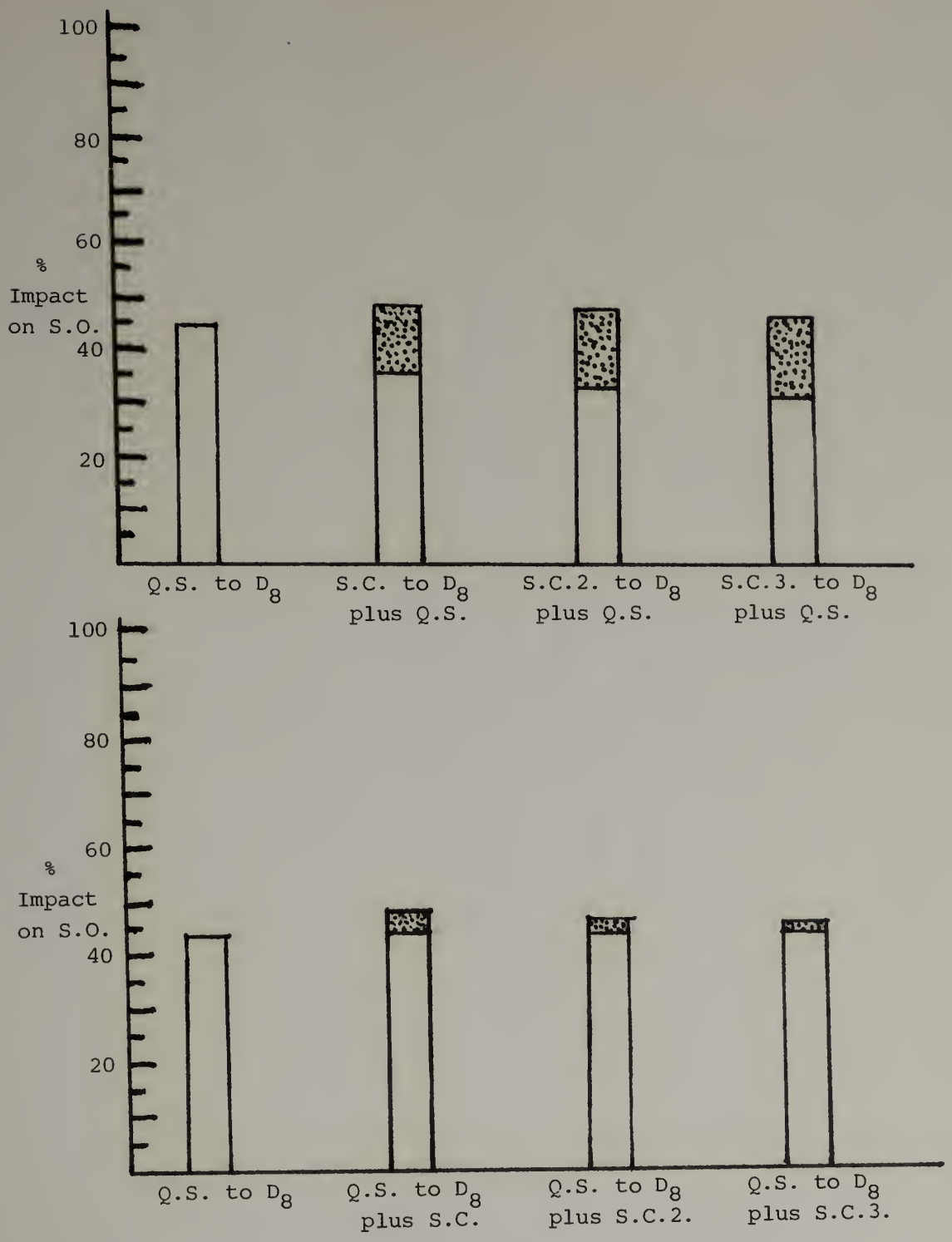

Figure 4. Graph of the Multiple Regression Results

NOTE: The variables added to the equations are represented by the dotted areas.

been eliminated, and the analysis can depend more heavily on the Q.S., S.C., S.C.2., and S.C.3. variables and their interactions.

However, inclusion of the interaction variables did not lead to significant increments in prediction as is readily apparent from the miniscule R Square Change factors in Table 2. Knowledge of the impact of Q.S. x. S.C., Q.S. x. S.C.2., or Q.S. x S.C.3., does not significantly add to prediction of S.O. Thus, the results continue to reduce the number of factors that must be taken into account, and the analysis is further simplified.

From the range of R Square factors of .31479 to .47473, it is evident that not only are the variables significant, but they are of strong impact. Table 2 also reveals the F value for the statistical significance of variables added to the regression equations so that the relative efficacies of the variables can be analyzed. From the information supplied in Table 2 it is evident that the variable to have the most impact on S.O. is Q.S., and that S.C., S.C.2., and S.C.3., have strong impact on S.O. as well. In this particular sample S.C. accounts for more impact than S.C.2., which accounts for slightly more impact than S.C.3. The difference in predictive power among the three variables is, however, small, and consequently, the words "in this sample" must be emphasized.

The 1. A., 1. B., and 1. C. results indicate that the impact of Q.S. to D_8 accounts for approximately forty-three percent of the

variance in S.O. When knowledge of S.C., S.C.2., or S.C.3. is added, predictive powers are increased approximately four percent, three percent, or two percent (respectively), over and above predictive power gained by using Q.S. alone. On the other hand, the 2. A., 2. B., and 2. C. results indicate that the impact on S.O. of S.C. to D_8 accounts for approximately thirty-six percent of the variance, S.C.2. to D_8 for approximately thirty-four percent, and S.C.3. to D_8 for approximately thirty-one percent. When knowledge of Q.S. is added to each equation, predictive power of S.O. increases by approximately twelve percent in 2. A. and 2. B., and by approximately fourteen percent in 2. C. Thus, knowledge of S.C., S.C.2., or S.C.3. alone is powerful, but not quite as helpful in prediction of S.O. as is initial knowledge of Q.S. The addition of Q.S. after the S.C. variables adds greater increases in predictive power than in the reversed situation in which the S.C. variables are added. Conclusions about why the results are helpful and important, and conclusions as to how the results can be used are offered in Chapter V.

The final presentation in this section of analysis is a report of the raw scores on the Q.S., S.O., and S.C. scales on a school by school basis. Table 3 reports the mean individual score within each school of the total number of points for each scale. Table 4 reports the mean individual score of the total points for each scale divided by the number of questions. From this information the reader can refer

TABLE 3

A SCHOOL BY SCHOOL COMPARISON OF THE MEANS OF EACH SCALE

School	S.O.	Q.S.	S.C.	S.C.2.	S.C.3.
1.	15.24	80.24	118.67	8.62	16.62
2.	16.84	81.63	149.26	10.63	16.00
3.	16.57	84.14	146.14	11.86	18.21
4.	18.32	88.40	172.60	13.56	19.12
5.	15.35	75.41	135.76	10.41	16.65
6.	16.75	89.81	168.25	13.06	18.75
7.	13.96	73.96	136.88	10.64	16.60
8.	13.39	74.10	133.16	8.42	15.52
9.	14.51	79.18	146.23	12.54	17.15
TOTAL	15.41	80.08	144.65	11.06	17.07

NOTE: The range for each scale is as follows: S.O. = 5 to 20, Q.S. = 24 to 96, S.C. = 50 to 200; S.C.2. = 4 to 16, S.C.3. = 5 to 20. An analysis of variance performed on the data in Table 2 indicated significant differences amongst school means were produced within every scale.

TABLE 4

THE MEAN QUESTION RESPONSE
FOR EACH SCALE BY SCHOOL

School	S.O.	Q.S.	S.C.	S.C.2.	S.C.3.
1.	3.05	3.34	2.37	2.16	3.32
2.	3.67	3.40	2.99	2.66	3.20
3.	3.31	3.51	2.92	2.97	3.64
4.	3.66	3.68	3.45	3.39	3.82
5.	3.07	3.14	2.72	2.60	3.33
6.	3.35	3.74	3.37	3.27	3.75
7.	2.79	3.08	2.74	2.66	3.32
8.	2.68	3.09	2.66	2.11	3.10
9.	2.90	3.30	2.92	3.14	3.43
TOTAL	3.08	3.34	2.89	2.77	3.41

NOTE: The range for each scale is 1 to 4. An analysis of variance performed on the data indicated significant differences amongst means within scales were produced in each scale.

back to the questionnaire to determine the mean response to questions in each of the Q.S., S.O., and S.C. scales school by school. It also helps to give perspective to the information in Table 3.

It is readily apparent from the raw scores that on the average the teachers perceived of their supervision as effective. Six of the nine schools assessed the supervision outcomes as helpful somewhere between "some" and "much." Nine of the nine schools rated the overall quality of the supervision highly. These are results of which each of the schools should be proud. As noted in Chapter I, it is unusual for teachers to perceive their supervision to be of high quality as well as beneficial. These are remarkable results.

Summary of Analysis—Statistical

It has been shown that both Q.S. and the three S.C. variables are useful tools in the prediction of S.O. The results of the hierarchical multiple regressions indicate that conclusions drawn from the results can be strongly asserted. The most powerful predictor of S.O. is Q.S., but S.C., S.C.2., and S.C.3. are also significant and powerful predictors. The total multiple regression equations yield a Multiple R of .68901 at the fullest and an R Square of .47473, both significant and impressive figures. S.O. can be reasonably approximated by utilizing knowledge of either Q.S. or S.C. variables. Also lending strength to predictive powers is the fact that neither the school site

nor the interaction variables have a significant impact on S.O. The fewer the variables affecting a change in S.O., the more simplified is the analysis in the sense that fewer variables require measurement in order to predict S.O.

Finally, the perception of the participants about the supervision in which they take part is remarkably positive, and the context in which this study is conducted is a positive one. Any "low" mean scores are "low" only in relation to the other mean scores in this study. Practically speaking, even the "low" scores are higher than what one may normally expect in a less positive environment utilizing less productive supervision of a lower quality.

The summary has suggested strong relationships, but thus far these relationships have been defined in a categorical nature. The next analysis attempts to define the overall variable effects in more detail. The added detail is intended to be useful to the practitioner and focus the possible interpretations of the results.

Analysis--Content

The responses to open-ended questions six to eight reveal that the theoretical assumptions that defined the ideal model of clinical supervision in Chapter II, do in fact characterize productive supervision in the participating schools. Each of the responses was numbered according to the individual making the response. For example,

in school number one, participant number seven answered questions six, seven, and eight, whereas in school number eight, participant number one hundred thirty-seven answered questions six and seven but not question eight. Generally speaking, an informal survey of the responses reveals that a participant answered as favorably in writing as he or she did in the first five questions. Furthermore, on a school by school basis, the highest scoring school (number four) had the highest percentage of favorable comments of those responding and the lowest scoring schools (numbers seven and eight) had the lowest percentage of favorable responses. All of the responses are listed in the appendix, but the following analysis summarizes the listing. Only those comments are represented that appear as a pattern. The patterns listed represent both cognitive and affective factors.

Facilitating forces in productive supervision as noted by participants are:

1. The supervision leads to better classroom management and/or planning.
2. The teacher is aided in focusing on objectives.
3. Classroom materials have been improved due to the supervision.
4. Various changes in teaching technique and curriculum implementation have resulted.
5. New methods and innovations have been stimulated and encouraged.

6. A sharing or consideration of alternative ideas and future strategies occurs.

7. Weaknesses are revealed for remediation.

8. The teacher is able to take advantage of suggestions made in the supervision sessions.

9. The supervision leads to improved teacher-supervisor relations.

10. Classroom atmosphere, teacher relations to students, and student to student interactions are improved or enhanced.

11. The positive is accentuated.

12. The supervision is positive in nature.

13. The supervision is supportive, caring, and reinforcing.

14. Good teaching is maintained.

15. Teacher self-confidence is bolstered.

16. Teacher awareness of self, students, and teacher-student interactions is increased.

17. Teacher is helped to reevaluate perceptions and develop analytical skills.

18. The observation of a third person or the objectivity of another perspective is helpful.

19. The teacher has a feeling of control and direction.

20. The supervisor attitude or approach has a positive impact on teacher.

21. Increased professionalism results from the practice of clinical supervision.

22. Clinical supervision is a useful tool for teacher.

23. The supervisor can be used as a resource.

Hindering forces or characteristics occurring when supervision is perceived of as hindering teacher efforts are:

1. The supervision is of very little or no help.
2. The supervision is repetitive.
3. The supervision is stifling, inhibiting, or providing pressure to conform in various ways.
4. It is the system's need to have the supervision.
5. The supervision is obligatory and creates extra work for the teacher.
6. The supervision effectiveness is limited to the particular time the supervision occurs.
7. Supervision sessions create teacher feelings of nervousness, tenseness, being threatened, or a desire not to be open.
8. The process tends to be negative rather than positive and supportive.
9. The supervision is evaluative rather than supervisory in nature.
10. The supervisor is out of his or her area or otherwise unqualified in the content area of the teacher.
11. There is not enough time for the supervisor to conduct adequate sessions because of the work load placed on the supervisor.
12. There have been too many changes of supervisors.
13. Teachers feel supervision is not necessary because of their facility to grow on their own.

In general, the facilitating items coincide with what is expected to happen in theorized models of clinical supervision. The participants in this study have indicated that at least for most of

them, clinical supervision does function in the public schools as it is designed to function. A high percentage of positive responses indicates that the facilitating forces are stronger than those hindering supervision productivity. For each negative characteristic mentioned there was mention of a greater number of positives. For example, there was far more mention of the positive and supportive nature of the supervision than there was of a negative or threatening effect. There was far more recording of the ways in which supervision acts as a resource for teacher rather than the perception that the supervision is obligatory or solely the system's need. Furthermore, not all of the items mentioned in the hindering section dealt strictly with the supervision as much as with the school climate. For example, the mention of a supervisor work overload is related to external time demands on the supervisor rather than on what directly transpires in the supervision sessions themselves. The mention of the number of changes of supervisors is a similar external variable. It should be noted that factors on the positive side of the ledger also link to factors out in the larger school climate. For example, the frequent mention of improved classroom materials suggests a budget system supportive of supervision efforts. The development of teacher analytical skills would logically have an impact on the school climate as would increased professionalism and self confidence. The fact that new methods and changes in curriculum have resulted from supervision

efforts suggests a school climate in which there is a place for innovations and changes to be supported. In other words, the relatively high correlation between Q.S. and S.C. may result from a reciprocal impact of these variables on each other, that is; the quality of supervision influences the school climate but also the school climate influences the quality of supervision.

One important factor should not be lost in the dialogue. It is evident from participant responses that clinical supervision is a highly personalized process with a variety of responses possible from any one faculty group. Although the majority of responses may be positive, there remains a need for the supervisor to personalize supervision efforts to meet a variety of teacher needs. Results from school number four suggest that in the best of efforts negative responses still occur, but that the negatives can be limited and the supervision productivity enhanced by such responsiveness. However, more than a flexible and responsive supervisor is required for productive supervision outcomes to occur. The next section of data analysis reveals other key variables in developing excellence of supervision outcomes.

Seventeen Q.S. or S.C. statements registered at least an eighty-five hundredths point spread or higher on the Q.S. or S.C. scales. The point spread criterion is an arbitrary one selected because only the widest discrepancies among variables are sorted out, or in other words, approximately the top twenty percent of the statements are

included in this grouping. To remind the reader, the point spread represents the difference in mean scores of schools in the highest scoring category versus the mean scores of the schools in the lowest scoring category.

From the data yielded in Table 5, it can be said that the statements in the Q.S. assessment lead to two patterns substantially different in the higher scoring schools than in the lower scoring schools: 1) teacher and supervisor are co-equals in the supervision events including planning of alternative strategies, and 2) as a result of the supervision, alternatives are uncovered and examined to select for trial. In other words it is important that the supervision be a collegial venture that yields a result.

A close look at the S.C. results indicates four basic differences between the higher and lower scoring schools. The reader is referred to the appendix to review each of the thirteen S.C. statements selected for analysis. What is represented below is a distillation of the thirteen statements.

First, it is suggested that in the most productive schools each teacher feels their participation in school affairs in wanted and needed on both a personal and a professional level. Second, in such schools the principal and "the system" encourage and help teachers to grow and implement new ideas in the school. It also appears important that the school program be responsive to ethnic and minority groups and

TABLE 5

QUESTIONS OF THE LARGEST DISCREPANCY BETWEEN HIGH SCORING VERSUS LOW SCORING SCHOOLS

Question Number	Point Differential
Q.S. 8.	.85
Q.S. 20.	.94
Q.S. 21.	1.31
Q.S. 22.	1.03
S.C. 7.	.85
S.C. 9.	.97
S.C. 10.	1.00
S.C. 14.	.92
S.C. 18.	.87
S.C. 27.	1.12
S.C. 38.	1.33
S.C. 40.	.89
S.C. 42.	1.11
S.C. 43.	1.09
S.C. 44.	.92
S.C. 46.	.98
S.C. 48.	1.03

the active participation of all students in the learning process. Finally, it is also revealed that in the most productive schools, the building is a pleasant place to be because it is clean, in good repair, and helped to stay that way out of pride from staff and students. Whether this last statement and for that matter, any of the previous statements are simply symptoms or causes of a more productive school climate cannot be easily answered. What can be said is that each of the four statements is different in the higher scoring schools than it is in the lower scoring schools. Perhaps they are part of the key to a productive climate that fosters productive supervision.

A logical relationship between statements about supervision and statements about school climate can readily be seen. For example, a collegial supervisory relationship would certainly be more easily accomplished in a school climate in which staff felt their participation was wanted and needed on both a personal and professional basis. Furthermore, supervision is more likely to lead to the selection of an alternative in a climate in which the principal and school system encourage the implementation of new ideas or experimentation. Although both S.C.2. and S.C.3. proved to have an important impact on S.O., several of the Q.S. and S.C. statements appear to be more important than others in relation to clinical supervision experiences (at least according to the nine schools surveyed). These seemingly more important variables are supported by construct validity derived from theoretical

notions discussed in the first two chapters. This analysis in conjunction with the remainder of the content analysis plus the more purely statistical analysis strongly supports the hypotheses asserted in Chapter I.

Response to Hypotheses

1. It can be asserted that among the schools responding to the questionnaire the higher the quality of the school climate, the higher was the quality of the outcomes of supervision. Some statements detailed in the analysis appear to be more important than others in effecting supervision outcomes, but the analysis is not conclusive as to the importance of each of the statements.

2. It can be asserted that among the schools responding to the questionnaire, the higher the quality of "caring," the higher was the quality of the outcomes of clinical supervision.

3. It can be asserted that among the schools responding to the questionnaire, the higher the "opportunity for input," the higher was the quality of the outcomes of clinical supervision.

4. The variable with the greatest impact was not included in the original hypotheses. Q.S. was the one variable most highly related to S.O. It can be asserted that among the nine surveyed schools, the higher the quality of supervision, the higher was the quality of the outcomes of supervision. Although each of the S.C. variables were

significant and potent predictors of S,O., Q.S. was stronger than each of them.

However, it should be recognized that although Q.S. was most highly related to S.O. it is not necessarily true that Q.S. is the most important variable. This issue will be addressed in Chapter V. Among other issues addressed in the next chapter are questions relating to the generalizability of the results, a possible complimentary relationship between Q.S. and S.C., and the use of the results for the purpose of implementation of clinical supervision.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND THE FUTURE

Summary

The purpose of this dissertation was to analyze the interrelationship between clinical supervision and school climate, and the impact of this interrelationship on the teacher perceived outcomes of clinical supervision as it is practiced in selected public schools. Clinical supervision is a promising supervision process in a time when productive supervision is greatly needed. The implementation alone of clinical supervision may very well not, despite its great promise, yield the desired results. In fact, harm is likely to be done if implementation is thrust into the schools. School climate must be assessed, diagnosed, and possibly manipulated so that productive clinical supervision outcomes will be afforded a reasonable opportunity to develop if clinical supervision is implemented. This study found a connection between the outcomes of clinical supervision, the quality of the clinical supervision, and the school climate.

The review of the literature revealed strong arguments for concluding that school climate affects the outcomes of clinical supervision. Both school climate and clinical supervision are based in enlightened and similar notions of psychological, organizational and change theories of how people behave and how people and institutions

interrelate. As one subsystem of the school climate, clinical supervision is enhanced by the facilitating forces in the environment and thwarted by hindering ones. The school climate creates limits and permits certain behaviors to occur. However, school climate is also created in part by the very people in the organization who are limited by it--by people striving to fulfill institutional roles and simultaneously to satisfy their individual needs. This dual pursuit transpires through the interaction of the program, process, and material determinants of the organization. It is the outcome of the interaction of the determinants that, in turn, facilitates or hinders clinical supervision outcomes. Because clinical supervision is an open-ended, dynamic process that encourages a variety of teaching behaviors, its real strength is derived not from preordained outcomes but rather from outcomes that are an outgrowth of a firm foundation of humane, optimistic, and theoretically sound processes and relationships. However, because of this foundation, clinical supervision is all the more susceptible to the human behaviors and values which already pervade the organization and characterize the school climate. Implementation of clinical supervision often occurs because of the seeming virtues of the process, and school climate is not usually taken into account until after implementation. Unfortunately, in most instances school climate exists not from preplanning and design, but rather, by default. Thus, thrust into the school climate is a promising form of supervision

susceptible to severely hindering, if not dooming, obstacles. Clinical supervision may, in fact, strengthen the school climate in a complimentary relationship. But whether one such subsystem can productively function in a negative school climate, overcome obstacles in the school climate, or strengthen or change the total school climate, without other concomitant efforts to change the school climate, is doubtful. Likert (1967) addresses the impact of making atomistic changes in an organization (such as attempting to implement the one subsystem of clinical supervision):

> As a consequence, the improvement in the results achieved by the change is significantly less than that which is potentially possible, and often the improvement which does occur may last for only a relatively short time. (p. 125)

Conclusions--General

The data gathered in this study generally support the contention that higher school climate scores lead to more productive outcomes of clinical supervision. The subunits of "caring" and "opportunity for input" also lead to more productive outcomes of clinical supervision, although in this sample to a slightly lesser degree of prediction than the overall S.C. variable. The strongest predictor of S.O. was Q.S. as measured by the instrument developed by the researcher. This last conclusion is exciting and revolutionary, yet not necessarily the most important to the innovator. It is exciting to find that Q.S. is a

strong predictor of S.O. because this suggests that at least to some degree it is within the power of the supervisor to conduct fruitful supervision. Supervisors are not helpless in the matter of staff improvement. Clinical supervision, when implemented as designed, does yield productive results. This is a revolutionary finding because the history of supervision has been painted as a rather depressing picture. Blumberg (1974) described this picture best when he titled his book Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War. But the future holds promise for something better. The supervisor-teacher relationship need not be a cold war. In fact, as indicated by the data, very satisfying and productive outcomes have resulted. There is every reason to believe positive results could be reproduced in another setting. Nevertheless, the relationship of Q.S. to S.O., although exciting and revolutionary, is not the most important result.

To the educational leader interested in implementing clinical supervision, the most important data is that yielded from the School Climate Profile-Revised. Healthy school climate may facilitate both Q.S. and S.O. Therefore, knowledge of school climate could be valuable in predicting S.O. before clinical supervision is implemented. The school climate scores would be the only data available before implementation took place.

It is suggested that the schools in this sample evidenced such highly positive responses that they may be quite atypical of a larger

sample of schools. Thus, generalizations of the conclusions to schools outside the sample must be cautiously suggested. One possible explanation of the overall positive results is a complementary relationship between S.C., Q.S., and S.O. such that the variables fit so systematically well together that they would usually be evidenced by parallel results across the board. This inference tends to support the system-subsystem theory. However, other factors may also be contributing to create the results. One such factor is a problem in methodology that is addressed later in this chapter. Another factor contributing to the results is the very fact that an especial supervision process--clinical supervision--was selected at all to be used in these two school systems. Its practice is rare and the fact that humane school leaders sought special in-service training by highly regarded experts (David Champagne and Jerry Bellon) for special supervision methods gives rise to a support system that would tend to nurture any attempted innovation. However, the very fact that it is possible to yield such high scores in any sample of nine schools is, in and of itself, heartening news. Furthermore, the unusually humane processes of clinical supervision are such a drastic departure from the type of supervision common in most schools in this country today, that the success of it suggests not only special efforts by special people but also especial strengths of the clinical supervision process itself.

Although the school climate data are somewhat less powerful than Q.S. as predictors of S.O., they are nevertheless significant and powerful in their own right and revealing of useful information. Should an educational leader wish to implement clinical supervision, the school climate scores lend a helpful degree of prediction to the possible future success of clinical supervision. This advance information can be useful in several ways:

1. As an overall indicator to aid in the prediction of the likelihood of success of clinical supervision if it were implemented. As an overall assessment of the system of interrelationships currently defining the organization, this information could be useful in deciding whether the system will support a change in the desired direction or whether it would be best to hold off on implementation until a plan is formulated to address possible changes in other subsystems of the school as well. This can help eliminate the role unknowns usually play in the implementation of clinical supervision and other innovations.

2. To reveal possible hindering forces that should be diminished to help insure success of clinical supervision. The specific S.C. questions outlined in the analysis--content could be critical indicators useful in this effort.

3. To reveal possible facilitating forces that should serve as a basis for implementation by building on existing practices and strengths in the organization. The specific S.C. questions outlined in

the analysis--content could be critical indicators useful in this effort.

4. As a baseline indicator of the climate so that once implementation occurs, there will be some means of assessing the increase or decrease over time of climate support for clinical supervision, and the impact clinical supervision may exert over time on the school climate. Not only is there a need for a receptive climate to accomplish implementation, but supportive and complimentary forces must continue to be regenerated if support for the outcomes of clinical supervision is to help clinical supervision be productive over time.

5. As a means of helping people in the organization determine the current state of affairs for goal derivation and focus. The comparison of the "what is" of school climate data as opposed to the "what should be" can provoke a disequilibrium leading to the development of school climate goals, which in turn, may serve as a goal thrust for teacher efforts in the classroom. Teachers may alter or focus or develop their perspectives and goals in clinical supervision in part because of directionality derived from initial school climate data.

What is not clear from the data is an assessment of the impact on S.O. when either Q.S. or S.C. or both are low. Only further study will reveal whether the relationships will hold true in these circumstances. However, there is an indication that they will, and the best guess of this researcher is that the relationships will become stronger

once either Q.S. or S.C. drops below levels at least minimally supportive of productive clinical supervision. At that point the supervision becomes susceptible to external forces and even the especial strengths of clinical supervision would be inadequate to prevent failure. The converse of this notion is that there may be times when the climate must be changed before teacher behavior changes. These both seem plausible, however, they are conjecture because the data does not allow such conclusions to be directly asserted.

While it is true that S.C.2. and S.C.3. were significant predictors to a slightly lower degree than the overall S.C., the difference in predictive power is small and may be an artifact of this sample not found in another sample. Even though the difference is small, the overall S.C. remains the most useful variable because it yields information about the entire field of climate variables peculiar to a single school. If Likert (1967) is right, the interlocking relationship of all the subsystems within a school is critical to the success of any one change or innovation introduced into the organization. Utilizing knowledge of either S.C.2. or S.C.3. alone may limit and thereby distort the field of vision. The implementation of clinical supervision without the full knowledge of climate variables increases the role ignorance may play in the process. Having full knowledge not only reveals variables that may, despite a lack of other evidence, have a special significance to the success of clinical supervision. As such they would be the

preliminary starting point for the initiation of a change effort. However, this knowledge may also be useful as a full baseline for future reference or as a tool useful in the implementation of other innovations. Whereas selected S.C. questions appear they may have more direct implications for clinical supervision, other S.C. questions may be more directly useful in the implementation of yet still other new programs. Why not gather the total S.C. information since there may be unforeseen benefits as well as a possible necessity for doing so?

The interaction of the Q.S. x S.C. variables did not add significant increments of prediction to the equations. Thus, knowledge of the interaction of Q.S. and S.C. does not help the innovator any more than knowledge of Q.S. and S.C. alone. Even though this was revealed in the study, there is also evidence to suggest that a special relationship may exist between Q.S. and S.C. variables. The analysis--content section of Chapter IV reveals a similarity among and logical connection between selected Q.S. and S.C. factors. The specific relationships are addressed later in this chapter, but it is important to note that although the interaction variable proved to be an insignificant factor, conclusions made from the analysis--content data may still prove useful. Since only knowledge of S.C. is available before the time of implementation, clues provided by the relationships suggested in the analysis--content may alert the innovator to factors crucial to successful innovation and lasting change. More study is

needed to assess the usefulness of the thirteen Q.S. and S.C. items, but evidence suggests they deserve attention. Multiple regression data support this notion because, taken as a whole, it can be asserted that school climate does have an effect upon teachers, and that the school (or any other organization) must be thought of in terms of a supra-system defined by interdependent subsystems and not as a number of discrete, self-contained, and individually viable parts. An analogy to the problems and theory of introducing clinical supervision into the suprasystem can be found in the field of medicine.

When a patient suffers kidney failure, transplantation of a new kidney is not the first step. The doctor must check for blood and tissue compatibility between the donor and the recipient. As much as a new kidney may be necessary, transplantation without analysis of the receptivity or support factors present in the receiving organism, could end in death for the patient. Without the proper preparation, the chances of success do exist, but the potential negative effects loom large and ominous. Proper analysis does not guarantee a successful operation. Even with our current knowledge, transplants are still adopted for only brief periods of time or are rejected, not because that which has been offered is not worthwhile or useful to the adoptee, but because the environment just will not accept or support the adoption no matter how helpful. And so it is with clinical supervision or other new programs that may be beneficial to a school or even needed

by a school--assessment of school climate remains a critical first step.

Conclusions--Instruments

The conclusions in this section relate directly to the instruments and the way they were used in the study. The exploration of problem areas as well as the more positive aspects of the research mechanics follows:

1. The ad hoc construction of the Q.S. and S.O. scales was a viable approach to the problem investigation. The strong construct validity lent sufficient power to the instruments and, in turn, to the conclusions. Furthermore, the results of the tests of reliability justify use of the scales in other efforts to determine the extent of the quality and outcomes of clinical supervision by schools already involved in the practice of clinical supervision.

2. Some revision of several items of the Q.S. and S.O. scales may be indicated. Although none of the respondents indicated experiencing any difficulty in completing the questionnaire, at least one researcher (in response to my inquiry) indicated that several questions posed problems for him. Jerry J. Bellon, Chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The University of Tennessee, responded with specific suggestions which were appreciated by this researcher. Unfortunately, his response was not received until

after the questionnaires had been mailed to the schools.

3. One possible reason why scores and relationships are as strong as they are could be the "response set" reaction. Likert (1967) suspected the same problem could have influenced his initial research, and thus he altered the pattern in which positive responses were displayed when he repeated his research. As suggested by Likert (1967), when the alternatives presented to the respondent are displayed for every item

> in the same general relationship or from left to right, this might lead some respondents to develop a general orientation and cause each to place his answers at about the same point from left to right on each item on the answer sheet. Methodological studies have shown that this response set may occur when the content of the items from left to right in a test all display the same general relationship. (p. 118)

4. Based on data from two school systems that have well established clinical supervision programs, significant results were obtained. These results suggest that practitioners who may wish to implement clinical supervision would be well advised to heed school climate data before attempting implementation. However, no matter how plausible this conclusion may be, it must be tempered with the knowledge that this study was not a time study including information about pre and post implementation stages. There is a possibility that conditions existing before implementation are very different than anticipated or that once implementation has taken place, conditions are

greatly transformed and generalization of the data to a preimplementation stage is inappropriate.

5. A clear definition of what is a high or a low score on each of the scales cannot be determined from this sample. This will need to be determined over time through repeated usage.

6. The analysis--content yields useful and insightful data but it is only suggestive in nature. When opposing the results of the highest scoring schools against the lowest scoring, the entire middle range of responses is omitted from the analysis. Thus, the conclusions drawn from the analysis--content must be drawn in light of the multiple regression results to help protect against the omission of significant factors from the middle range. There is no way to be sure of the picture drawn from this analysis, and thus, only clues are provided.

Conclusions--Other

Review of the data suggests additional conclusions can be drawn.

1. Despite the possible impact of forces external to the school and school system, public schools can develop a positive, supportive climate and productive supervision. This is not easily accomplished and rarely occurs without planning and design. The very fact that most of the schools decided to participate in the study only upon consultation with both administrative and teacher groups is one

indication of the type of planning and design necessary to create a healthy climate.

2. Despite whether the responses offered in the analysis--content were positive or negative, many varying and, at times, seemingly conflicting points of view about the nature of the clinical supervision process were expressed within the same school by people in similar roles working with the same supervisor. Clinical supervision is a highly personalized process. Thus, step five, the post conference, assumes strategic importance as a means of adapting supervisor skills and efforts to meet the needs of each teacher. In light of the data, the post conference should be viewed as a critical part of the clinical supervision process.

3. A large number of the hindering forces cited in the data analysis relate to climate factors rather than Q.S. factors (factors nine through twelve are especially pointed). Thus, the school climate is an important source of hindering forces. These hindering forces are usually within the power of school personnel to effectively minimize.

4. As revealed in the analysis--content, forces facilitating productive clinical supervision outcomes are derived not only from the way in which the supervision is conducted, but from the larger school climate as well.

5. The School Climate Profile-Revised can be used productively as an indicator of the possible success of clinical supervision or the

introduction of some other new program into the school. However, the profile provides only a crude assessment and leaders must delve into the "why's" and "specifics" of the assessment through discussion with staff and/or the target group in order to initiate a course of action.

6. Just as school climate affects the outcomes of clinical supervision, so too do the outcomes of clinical supervision affect the school climate. Just as availability of materials and teacher input into budgeting are supportive of clinical supervision when supervision outcomes lead to the need for new teaching strategies requiring new materials, so too do clinical supervision outcomes of increased self confidence and analytic skills bolster school climate through teacher contributions to school wide problem solving and productive faculty meetings. A school climate that encourages innovation will also encourage teachers to take risks and experience growth in clinical supervision. On the other hand, the establishment of a truly non-evaluative supervision process will enhance the dimension of caring in the school climate.

7. It is evident from the data that it is important to teacher for the purpose of clinical supervision to be clearly established through practice. It is important that teachers feel the purpose is supervisory (to help teacher improve instruction) rather than evaluative in nature.

8. It is evident from the data that teachers must be able to generalize the clinical supervision outcomes to some future situation.

9. Goldhammer (1969, pp. 69-70) cites the teacher's need to be left with something concrete in hand, to be provided with a source of adult rewards, and to have an opportunity to deal with factors that affect vocational satisfaction as three outcomes of importance to the teacher. This study tends to confirm these and indicates they are possible to be met through productive clinical supervision.

10. From teacher concern that concrete results be yielded in the clinical supervision process, it can be inferred that it is also important to teacher that concrete results be yielded in other school subsystems such as staff meetings, P.T.O. ventures, etc. Conversely, if other programs tend to lead to concrete results, it can be inferred that a similar result would be encouraged in the clinical supervision process.

11. It is conjectured that if S.C. is low, the implementation of clinical supervision alone would not significantly alter the S.C. The power of clinical supervision is such that other less stable aspects of the climate may be pulled in the desired direction. However, if over time, no other efforts are introduced to improve the climate, clinical supervision will become distorted, whither, or die in a negative school climate.

12. The Q.S. results strongly suggest two critical factors in creating productive S.O. results: A. Teacher and supervisor engage in a collegial relationship throughout the supervision cycle, and thus, the teacher is encouraged to develop skills in the planning of alternative strategies. B. As a result of the supervision, alternatives are uncovered and examined, and at least one is selected for trial.

It is not suggested that other variables are unimportant, but rather that if A and B occur, it is likely that other supportive variables will be present.

13. The S.C. results strongly suggest four critical patterns in creating productive S.O. results: A. Teachers feel their participation in school affairs is wanted and needed on both a personal and professional level. B. The principal and the school system encourage and help teachers to grow and implement new ideas in the school. C. The school program must provide for the active participation of all students, including ethnic and minority groups, in the learning process. D. The building is a pleasant place to be because it is clean, in good repair, and helped to stay that way due to pride of both students and staff.

14. School climate should exist as a result of planning and design. It should not occur, as it usually does, by default.

15. There were two middle schools and seven elementary schools

in the sample. The difference in school levels did not make a difference in any of the data.

16. It is possible for the principal to function productively as a clinical supervisor while also serving as an evaluator. The sample schools functioned in this way.

Recommendations

The following pages contain suggestions for both the practitioner and the researcher. It is hoped that this study can provide some impetus for change in the schools as well as sufficient substance to encourage additional research.

Recommendations to the practitioner are listed below.

1. The theorized model of clinical supervision is a practical and effective mode of supervision that should be given serious consideration for implementation in public schools.

2. Implementation of clinical supervision or any other innovation should begin with an assessment of school climate and a commitment to use school climate data in preparation for the implementation period and the future life of the innovation.

3. School leaders must take a view of their schools and school systems as suprasystems defined by the interdependence of many subsystems. A change in one subsystem may have implications for changes in other subsystems. The school leader committed to a change in one

subsystem must be willing to consider parallel changes in other subsystems.

4. School leaders must begin to recognize that change based on the system's need or the leader's perceptions alone will not be adequate to produce productive results over time.

5. If school climate data reveal a low school climate, consideration should be given to delaying implementation of clinical supervision or implementing only if concomitant changes are planned for other subsystems as well. The point at which an implementation should be delayed rather than acted upon is not defined by this study.

6. Because clinical supervision deals with the perceptions of the teacher and because teacher perceptions vary greatly, the post conference stage is crucial to the success of the model. A safe way for teacher to feed back to supervisor what is helpful and what is not must be provided. Because several of the "negative" comments about clinical supervision were not known to the supervisors before the study occurred, there may be a need to occasionally pursue anonymous feedback about the quality of the supervision. The supervisor-teacher relationship is frought with such ingrained values that teacher feedback to supervisor may be the most difficult step to insure. Anonymous feedback is not meant as a means of replacing the post conference because anonymous feedback would not allow the supervisor the kind of information necessary to help individuals. However, such feedback would at

least allow the supervisor to gage how close he or she was getting to personalizing the method to meet each teacher's needs. It could serve as a starting point. In a truly collegial relationship anonymous feedback would not be helpful.

7. The Q.S. and S.O. scales could be helpful to accomplish 6. above.

Recommendations to the researcher are listed below.

1. Replication of this study in other schools of varying climates is warranted before these results can be more strongly asserted.

2. More in-depth climate analysis and climate manipulation is needed to determine just how useful S.C. is to the continued success of clinical supervision. Once the climate is altered, do the Q.S. and S.O. scores move in the same direction?

3. Study to determine the change in the S.C. score once specific manipulation of S.C. variables has been accomplished would be helpful to learn the extent of control educators have over school climate. Will school climate strategies yield predictable outcomes?

4. Many time studies are warranted to determine the extent of the connection between S.C., Q.S., and S.O. For example, some of the questions that should be answered are:

A. How useful is S.C. in implementing clinical supervision?

B. How useful is S.C. as a predictor of future Q.S. and S.O. scores?

C. What are the changes (if any) in S.C. before and after clinical supervision has been implemented? Does the implementation of clinical supervision positively effect S.C. and by how much?

D. At what level of school climate data is holding off on the implementation of clinical supervision the most appropriate course of action? Which changes in the school climate will shorten the time of delay before clinical supervision should be implemented?

E. Do the thirteen Q.S. and S.C. statements highlighted in the analysis--content continue to be as prominent in other studies and over time? Is there a special quality to them or are they an artifact of this study?

5. S.C. and S.O. results in this study should be compared with similar scores from similar schools not using clinical supervision. This would help to determine the strength of clinical supervision and further study the system-subsystem theoretical notions offered in this study.

6. Standardized data on each of the scales might be worth exploring.

7. School climate work can and should serve as a theoretical framework for future research. A few of the questions to be addressed include:

A. Do previously unrelated hypotheses and findings in the field of education become more understandable in the light of this framework?

B. What subsystems fit best together? What are some of the more productive combinations? What results can be expected of various combinations of subsystems?

C. What is the relationship of the school climate to the town or city climate? To the national climate? How does each affect the other?

D. What would the programs, processes, and materials of a System 4 school look like?

8. Study is warranted to determine whether the profile should include additional variables such as the Superintendent of Schools (and effects of the central office) and the School Committee.

9. Are specific questions in the profile more directly related to certain subsystems such as clinical supervision, program budgeting, integration of curriculum, individualizing instruction, programmed learning, discipline, etc.?

10. Although the multiple regression results were highly significant and powerful, it would appear that factors besides those

hypothesized also impact on S.O. What are they? Might school site make a bigger difference in another sample? Would changes of supervisors? What effect did the training have? Reduction-In-Force? Population composition? Elementary versus secondary? These and other possible factors warrant exploration.

Epilogue

During the course of this study the researcher contacted superintendents and principals, university faculty and consultants, and researchers as well as practitioners across the United States. Through telephone calls and correspondence with educators in Washington, Oregon, California, Indiana, Illinois, Texas, North Carolina, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, and many other states, it was determined that the practice of clinical supervision exists in several modified forms but that it is, indeed, quite rare to find it in the public schools. Clinical supervision is a very promising form of staff development yet it is not being utilized as it could be. Why not?

As alluded to in Chapter I, many authors have addressed this question. Among the reasons cited for the lack of implementation are a lack of available course work, the necessity to learn many competencies because of the complexity of the model, limited and expensive on-the-job training, sparseness of the literature, difficulties inherent in school structures and schedules to free professionals for training and on-going

implementation, traditional attitudes toward supervision, etc. (Mattaliano, 1977; Krajewski, 1976; Harris, 1976; Alfonso, Firth and Neville, 1975). The reasons for limited proliferation generally focus on problems associated with the model or with circumstances immediately surrounding the model. It is this researcher's contention that the most significant problems are associated less directly to the model.

If schools were populated with more humane leaders, self-actualizing people selected for their positions because of participative leadership ability and a commitment to humane values and beliefs, clinical supervision as well as other more humane school practices would be prevalent in schools because they would be sought out and implemented. Problems associated more directly with the model would be overcome as they have been in the schools in this sample and economic barriers would be viewed as cost-effective rather than an impossible hurdle. One superintendent of schools recently sought this researcher's services for district in-service on clinical supervision. The costs associated with the initiation of this project were quoted as less than one half the cost of a new set of textbooks for one classroom. However, once advised of the costs to be incurred, the superintendent no longer sought the training. To suggest that the costs were a financial barrier is naive. I know of no truly committed humane school leader who would not be able to plan for the rather small sums of money

necessary to create more humane schools if this was valued and believed to be necessary. Where there is a will, there is a way.

If humane values and beliefs existed in the people hiring educational leaders and in the leaders themselves, the leaders would be forced by their own convictions to ponder many innovations besides clinical supervision. Studies of clinical supervision have been conducted in schools where these values and beliefs exist. A humane school climate is likely to be already in existence. But schools adopting clinical supervision in the future will more than likely not meet with the same success.

Educators should be planning the implementation of a whole series of innovations or changes. One must look beyond clinical supervision itself to see what will happen with clinical supervision. The proliferation of checklist evaluations, tightly self-contained and graded classrooms, the lack of student and teacher meaningful input into curriculum, testing procedures, rules and regulations, and an over-all nonparticipative, dehumanizing, grouped daily living experience is typical of most schools. We live in a society that demands basic skills and discipline of its schools and an evaluative/punitive/competitive approach to teachers and students. We live in a society of isolated and independent institutions that increases confusion, replication, cross purposes, impotency and a fight-for-yourself attitude among its people. Feelings of directionality and

pulling together are rare. The problems of proliferating and implementing the subsystem of clinical supervision fall beyond what has been suggested by other authors. A single example will highlight the point.

This researcher recently participated in a discussion of first grade standardized testing at a meeting of school district leaders. Unfortunately, the discussion was not a debate over whether or not to test. The tests were viewed as a necessary evil in some cases and a means of class placement in other cases, but they were widely accepted. The basic value and purpose of the tests was not questioned. What was questioned was whether form six or form seven should be administered. Form six would be understood by almost every first grader but the range of scores resulting from completion of the tests would not demonstrate the high range of ability many of the students possessed. Form seven was a more advanced test most appropriate for second grade, and it would not be understandable to a number of first graders. However, the scores yielded were likely to be more complementary to the district. The district would do well (even though many students would be guessing and would not know what they were reading) and thus, form seven was selected. The experience many first graders would be subjected to by having to go through page after page of material beyond their level was considered secondary to the district needs of class placement and inflated scores. This is one example of a district that is not ready

for clinical supervision.

Clinical supervision is susceptible to external forces because it is not a self-contained process. It is open-ended, dynamic, and dependent upon relationships grounded in humanistic values and beliefs. Schools may not even find clinical supervision useful because it will not satisfy other (and unfortunately more important) school needs regardless of the staff development potential of the model. The larger picture is one of an uninviting school climate. A climate that has not invited other humane processes over time and will not invite clinical supervision until humane values and beliefs guide school designers and planners of change. In most schools, as we know public schools of today, clinical supervision would be a force fit and would face a whithering existence. Focusing solely on problems of proliferation and implementation more directly associated with the model may inadvertently cause the corruption or death of the model.

Change of the clinical supervision model to meet school needs has developed both by design and by default in both productive and counterproductive efforts. Sullivan (1980) cites variations and adaptations of the original design. She notes Simon's use of videotape to examine discrepancies between belief and practice, Riechard's training of resident clinical supervisors, peer supervision and team teaching, Graves and Croft's ERA process, Burke's inclusion of MBO into the process, and Melnik and Sheehan's Clinic to Improve University Teaching

as efforts to improve or apply the model to new circumstances (pp. 33-35). Harris (1976) suggests alternative clinical supervision models such as intervisitations and demonstrations, laboratory brainstorming, film viewing, and dealing with simulated problems are beneficial alternatives that would help to complete the supervision picture. In personal experiences contacting practitioners this researcher discovered the use of T.A. III and I.T.I.P. in schools influenced by the works of Madeline Hunter (1973 and 1980). In these formats the personal preconference is eliminated thereby saving time and allowing the supervisor to enter the classroom with an "open mind" rather than an anticipatory set. In one case a district in the state of Washington was moving away from the Cogan model and toward the Hunter model while providing staff members "formal training in the Science of Teaching" in the "Theories of Madeline Hunter" (to quote a personal contact). The T.A. III (Teacher Appraisal, Instructional Improvement Instrument) model is an assessment of performance model that according to Hunter (1973) "makes successful learning predictable and successful teaching explainable" because it is based on "invarient principles which are applicable to all learning situations regardless of content, the learner's age, previous experience, ethnic or socioeconomic derivation" (p. 1). These claims are based on research in the science of teaching. Although this researcher is not aware of research adequate to define the best way to teach, what is known about good teaching should certainly be taken

advantage of, and T.A. III is one way of accomplishing that. As scientific research continues to lend definition to our notions of good teaching, the more formative notions of clinical supervision, which rely on there being no one right way to teach, will face forces militating against its use. For example, one practitioner, persuaded by the power of the Science of Teaching referred to the Cogan model as "naive." Societal forces may already militate against anything less than a scientifically derived notion of the definition of "the" good teacher. Lortie (1975) suggests that this is so, especially since the general public have all had what they feel is enough schooling to be able to tell the difference between good teachers and bad teachers. The T.A. III model is associated with in-service training in the uses of specific skills and consequent classroom observations to determine command of the skills. In this researcher's opinion, some of the more formative aspects of supervision as well as development of collegiality and teacher commitment may be risked if this model were used exclusively. However, the model may be a more productive fit with schools as we know them. It may be more consonant with other sub-systems and yet be a step forward.

In several other schools contacted by this researcher, the supervisors claimed to be using clinical supervision. However, upon investigation what was being used was being used only with nontenured and/or probationary teachers for the purposes of making contract

decisions. There were many reasons offered as to why the model was not more fully implemented, but it was clear to this researcher that the uses of clinical supervision fit the values and beliefs of the people implementing it. Reduction-In-Force issues were clearly dictating the uses of clinical supervision in several cases, and in another, the first issue the supervisor discouragingly brought to my attention was a recent memorandum from the superintendent on accountability in the basic skills. The problems associated with schools utilizing more effective supervision methods are large and complex.

Time available to the supervisor for the supervision of any one teacher is so limited that clinical supervision should not be expected to correct all ills nor be the sole means of supervision or growth inducing support. In fact, the limited frequency of observations makes the model all the more susceptible to the school climate which exerts forces on each teacher daily.

The argument as to whether clinical supervision should or can be conducted by the same person responsible for evaluations is in my opinion a foolish one. Whether we like it or not, or whether we feel it is appropriate or not, the principal has been charged with both tasks and will be expected to continue in both roles for many years to come. As demonstrated in this study clinical supervision can be productive in these circumstances. However, because of the limited observation time available and because of the discrepancy between teacher giving and

getting, clinical supervision is best connected solely with formative supervision aspects. Some other device or procedure or special type of conference should be utilized when summative evaluation is the key issue. Once an evaluation indicates a need for an improvement on the teacher's part, clinical supervision methods may then be one way of helping teacher make the necessary improvements. However, when it comes to supervision, teacher should not be left wondering when the other shoe will drop. This should be clearly established before an observation is to occur.

For the most part, the number of teachers in danger of losing their positions because of incompetence are few. With staff turnover as limited as it is, supervisors should be attempting to be supportive of the large majority of staff who will be working for years to come. In this researcher's opinion, too much is made of the notion that schools must hire the right leader to be in the right place at the right time in order for the school to be an enervated, growth inducing, adapting institution. Otherwise schools should be forced to hire a new leader each time the climate changes. Clinical supervision is a powerful in-service method but its effectiveness depends a good deal on the climate in which it is conducted. So does effective leadership. But the "right person-right place-right time" theory is based on school climate by default. The theory holds true more dependably in those schools in which the school climate changes by other than planning and

design and thus, in those schools in which the people within the institution are at the mercy of climate changes. This is not to suggest that school climate is completely within our control at all times, but rather that awareness and manipulation of school climate is needed and would be productive. Through such efforts, a supportive climate would ease the burden the leader must carry and would create a more stable growth pattern both for individuals as well as for the organization. A school climate should not force the choice of leader, the leader should force the choice of school climate.

Perhaps unrealistic expectations have been ascribed to the supervisor in the clinical supervision process. Developing a strong school climate would not only enhance the responsible participation and commitment of staff in the supervision process but also in other sub-systems as well. Tenuousness could be minimized.

The notions behind the School Climate Profile are rooted in America's laws and traditions. Climate work offers a means by which young and old alike can gain more democratic participation in making an institution work and feeling proud about oneself and about what has been built. Thus, productive clinical supervision will be one fruit of a healthy climate. Goldhammer (1969) suggests:

> The aims of clinical supervision will be realized when, largely by virtue of its own existence, everyone inside the school will know better why he is there, will want to be there, and, inside that place, will feel a strong and beautiful awareness of his own, individual identity and a

> community of spirit and of enterprise with those beside him. These are the values that motivate our work and give rise to our ambitions. While we cannot, obviously, make promises that are as large as our dreams, we can proclaim those dreams and let ourselves be guided by them. (p. 56)

But this new kind of management that makes things happen through values, beliefs, and humane processes of change and adaptation, must take place beyond the school context. It is tempting to limit our perspective to the more defined vision of the school. We must not forget that we must view schools within a broader context. The future will force such views, and as Lobb et al. (1973) suggest, we must address them to the best of our abilities rather than be victimized by them.

> The main point of emphasis is that no matter how successful a school leader is in developing a good climate in the institution which he leads, it cannot be a hothouse for cultivation of learning nor can it be a cocoon for the metamorphosis of learning individuals. The school administrator and his "school" can exist and grow only in the framework of a communities concept. (p. 10)

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APPENDIX

TEACHER SUPERVISION AND SCHOOL CLIMATE SURVEY

Your school has chosen to participate in a project to assess the current supervision practices and the overall school climate. YOU are asked to answer the following questions as YOU see the answer to be: NOT as you would like it to be or as you think a condition in a school should be. Data based on people's perceptions of how things are or how they feel about them are important. The results gained from this survey may be helpful to your school and to the growth of effective supervision practices.

This is an anonymous survey. Do not write your name on the survey. The entire survey takes about 25 to 30 minutes to complete.

General Information

1. Name of your school: _____

2. Number of years (including this one) that you have been supervised by your present supervisor: (circle one)

   1 yr. 2 yrs. 3 yrs. 4 yrs. or more

3. Number of years (including this one) your supervision process has included a pre-observation meeting, an observation, and a post-observation meeting to review data of what transpired in the observed lesson: (circle one)

   1 yr. 2 yrs. 3 yrs. 4 yrs. or more

4. Number of times per year (on the average) that you are observed as described in #3 above: (circle one)

   1 2 3 4 or more

5. Position you now hold: (check one that best describes)

Elementary	Secondary
teacher ____	teacher ____
principal ____	principal ____
Junior High	**Middle School**
teacher ____	teacher ____
principal ____	principal ____

   Other ____ Please describe: _____

6. Number of years in professional education: (circle one)

   1 yr. 2 yrs. 3 yrs. 4 yrs. or more

Survey Assessment of Teacher Supervision

Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate number:

	Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
1. The primary focus of the supervision sessions is to improve instruction:	1	2	3	4
2. Classroom observation is preceded by a conference with the teacher:	1	2	3	4
3. During the pre-observation conference the supervisor and teacher are relaxed and trusting of one another:	1	2	3	4
4. The supervisor's role is clarified during the pre-observation conference:	1	2	3	4
5. The teacher's objectives are reviewed and clarified in the pre-observation conference:	1	2	3	4
6. A review of the strategies and materials the teacher plans to use in the lesson is a part of the pre-observation conference:	1	2	3	4
7. During the pre-observation conference both supervisor and teacher agree on what data would be of most help to the teacher:	1	2	3	4
8. The teacher is a co-equal with supervisor when it comes to what transpires during supervisory conferences:	1	2	3	4
9. The teacher has input into the timing and nature of the supervisor's entrance into the classroom:	1	2	3	4
10. Both supervisor and teacher agree upon the purpose to collect the data:	1	2	3	4
11. Both supervisor and teacher agree upon the method for collecting data:	1	2	3	4
12. The teacher and supervisor agree as to what took place during the time of the observation:	1	2	3	4
13. All available data relating to the objectives is shared:	1	2	3	4

		Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
					3
14.	The data covers items teacher wishes to explore:	1	2	3	4
15.	Data is shared, analyzed, and interpreted by both teacher and supervisor:	1	2	3	4
16.	Both teacher and supervisor attempt to identify patterns of behavior:	1	2	3	4
17.	The supervisor records as objectively as possible the behavior of the teacher and/or the students:	1	2	3	4
18.	Inferences made during the conference are based on the data collected during the observation:	1	2	3	4
19.	Behaviors of teacher that enhance objective attainment are identified and reinforced:	1	2	3	4
20.	As a result of the data review more than one alternative behavior or reemphasis is proposed and examined for possible teacher use:	1	2	3	4
21.	At least one of the alternatives is selected for trial:	1	2	3	4
22.	Both supervisor and teacher attempt to plan strategies which will change or strengthen selected patterns of behavior:	1	2	3	4
23.	The teacher gives feedback on his/her perceptions and feeling about conference purpose, process, and results:	1	2	3	4
24.	All aspects of the supervision process have been explained and are clear to you:	1	2	3	4

Assessment of Supervision Outcomes

Please respond to the following five questions by circling the appropriate number: (Note the change in meaning of the numbers.)

		Almost None	Little	Some	Much
1.	Amount of satisfaction I derive from the supervision I receive.	1	2	3	4
2.	My growth, intellectual or personal, because of supervision.	1	2	3	4
3.	Amount of myself I put into the supervision.	1	2	3	4
4.	Amount of inspiration to pursue in the classroom what is discussed in the supervision.	1	2	3	4
5.	Amount of helpfulness supervision provides to improvement of my instruction.	1	2	3	4

Please respond to the following with as many specifics and/or concrete data as you are able (you may continue on the back of the page if you wish):

6. To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

_____

_____

_____

7. What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

_____

_____

_____

8. Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

_____

_____

_____

Questionnaire Developed From Factor Analysis Of The C.F.K. Ltd. School Climate Profile

		Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
	Part I				
1.	Teachers treat students as persons:	1	2	3	4
2.	Teachers in this school are proud to be teachers.	1	2	3	4
3.	Students feel that teachers are "on their side."	1	2	3	4
4.	Students can count on teachers to listen to their side of the story and to be fair.	1	2	3	4
5.	The teachers are "alive"; they are interested in life around them; they are doing interesting things outside of school.	1	2	3	4
6.	Teachers in this school are "out in front," seeking better ways of teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4
	Part 2				
7.	I feel that my ideas are listened to and used in this school.	1	2	3	4
8.	When important decisions are made about the programs in this school, I, personally, have heard about the plan beforehand and have been involved in some of the discussions.	1	2	3	4
9.	While I obviously can't have a vote on every decision that is made in this school that affects me, I do feel that I do have some important input into that decision.	1	2	3	4
10.	When all is said and done, I feel that I <u>count</u> in this school.	1	2	3	4
	Part 3				
11.	I like working in this school.	1	2	3	4
12.	There is someone in this school that I can always count on.	1	2	3	4

		Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
13.	I think people in this school care about me as a person; are concerned about more than just how well I perform my role at school (as student, teacher, parent, etc.).	1	2	3	4
14.	This school is a nice place to be because I feel wanted and needed here.	1	2	3	4
15.	Most people at this school are kind.	1	2	3	4

Part 4

16.	Required textbooks and curriculum guides support rather than limit creative teaching and learning in our school.	1	2	3	4
17.	Students help to decide learning objectives.	1	2	3	4
18.	Opportunities are provided under school guidance to do something with what is learned.	1	2	3	4
19.	This school's program stimulates creative thought and expression.	1	2	3	4
20.	The same homework assignment is not given to all students in the class.	1	2	3	4
21.	All students are not held to the same standards.	1	2	3	4
22.	Many opportunities are provided for learning in individual and small group settings, as well as in classroom-sized groups.	1	2	3	4
23.	Students have opportunity to choose associations with teachers whose teaching styles are supportive of the students' learning style.	1	2	3	4
24.	Teachers use a wide range of teaching materials and media.	1	2	3	4
25.	The school program extends to settings beyond the school building for most students.	1	2	3	4
26.	Teachers and administrators have planned individualized in-service education programs to support their own growth.	1	2	3	4

		Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
27.	The school's program is appropriate for ethnic and minority groups.	1	2	3	4
28.	Teachers experiment with innovative programs.	1	2	3	4
29.	Students are given alternative ways of meeting curriculum requirements.	1	2	3	4
30.	The grading system rewards each student for his effort in relationship to his own ability.	1	2	3	4

Part 5

31.	Teachers know students as individuals.	1	2	3	4
32.	The administration is supportive of students.	1	2	3	4
33.	Faculty and staff want to help every student learn.	1	2	3	4
34.	Students know the criteria used to evaluate their progress.	1	2	3	4
35.	Most students get positive feedback from faculty and staff.	1	2	3	4

Part 6

36.	Ideas from various ethnic and minority groups are sought in problem-solving efforts.	1	2	3	4
37.	Teachers or students can arrange to deviate from the prescribed program of the school.	1	2	3	4
38.	The principal encourages experimentation in teaching.	1	2	3	4
39.	This community supports new and innovative teaching techniques.	1	2	3	4
40.	In-service education programs available to teachers in this school help them keep up-to-date on the best teaching strategies.	1	2	3	4

		Almost Never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost Always
41.	The school systematically encourages students to help other students with their learning activities.	1	2	3	4
42.	In this school we keep "looking ahead"; we don't spend all our time "putting out fires."	1	2	3	4
43.	Some of the programs in our school are termed "experimental."	1	2	3	4
44.	Our school is ahead of the times.	1	2	3	4
45.	Curriculum materials used in this school give appropriate emphasis and accurate facts regarding ethnic and minority groups, and sex roles.	1	2	3	4

Part 7

46.	It is pleasant to be in this building; it is kept clean and in good repair.	1	2	3	4
47.	This school building has the space and physical arrangements needed to conduct the kinds of programs we have.	1	2	3	4
48.	Students and staff are proud of their school plant and help to keep it attractive.	1	2	3	4
49.	The grounds are attractive and provide adequate space for physical and recreational activities.	1	2	3	4
50.	There are spaces for private as well as group work.	1	2	3	4

SHUMA DOCUMENT (1974)

Please respond to the four items concerning our conferency by indicating either M ("much"), S ("some"), L ("little"), or N ("none").

M S L N 1. Amount of satisfaction I found in the conference.

M S L N 2. My growth, intellectual or personal.

M S L N 3. Amount of myself I put into the conference.

M S L N 4. Amount of inspiration to pursue what was discussed in the conference.

Please respond to the following.

To what extent did the conference serve as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

What has changed in your classroom as a result of the conference?

Please add any further comments you may wish to make. (p. 37)

SCHOOL NUMBER 1

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

1. Somewhat

2. None

3. Only at times of such supervision

4. Somewhat, but unplanned visitations would help eliminate "show" atmosphere and be more beneficial.

5. A great deal because I am able to see myself as another person sees me.

6. Makes for an awareness that the normal teacher perspective does not allow.

7. Not much in the way of techniques used to manage child's behavior and attitudes--But quite a bit to help me be more professional in the things I am doing. Example: a way of dealing with parents.

8. Hardly any

9. None

10. Causes you to be more organized and to think twice about what you are presenting--also to be more observant of what is happening.

11. A quite minuscule amount--Our observations are done by a supervisor who has never taught elementary school and whose abilities to perceive anything beyond textbook page number related to a lesson are minimal.

12. Nothing

13. I have become aware of certain "patterns" of teaching that I have a tendency to overuse and I'm now working to improve upon this.

16. Supervision has not been a critical process, and therefore I am reassured of my competency. Or--suggestions are offered to help me.

School Number 1
Q6.) (Continued)

17. --To be well-prepared and well-planned at all times.
--To say up-to-date on current teaching techniques.

18. Some things are noticed by the supervisor that a teacher may not be aware of. The overall changes though are minor.

19. Very little.

20. Supervision has not changed mine at all. I feel that my teaching remains constant and I'm stimulated by students and my own professional pride.

21. The supervision has focused on well-defined and carefully laid out lesson plans. I have continued to use these plans because they worked well.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

1. Interaction w/kids

2. Little

4. Keeps me doing what I'm "supposed" to be doing.

5. I learn about strengths that I did not know I have--I learn that sometimes I give too much individual help when I should allow the learner to carry his share of the learning load.

6. Record keeping has become a more incorporated part of the entire assessment procedure and instruction day.

7. Just insurance of continuing what am presently doing--no new inservice techniques or suggestions.--However I'm not sure new ones can be added every visitation.

8. Nothing

9. Nothing

School Number 1
Q7.) (Continued)

10. Things are more organized and disciplined.

11. Nothing

12. None

15. As mentioned above, my level of awareness with regard to my instructional style has already changed as a result of the supervision (observation) process.

16. Myself--I feel more confident.

17. Space planning has changed.

18. Changes are not always perceptible, but I do teach very confidently now in my relationships with my class. (This could be a combination of professional growth and adequate supervision.)

19. Very little!

20. I feel a great deal of pressure to use texts with all the students at the same time. I also get the feeling that it is necessary for me to cover all the material in texts.

21. Because of the very specific nature of the lesson plans prepared for supervisory purposes, it would be difficult to determine any real change following the supervision.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

5. There is nothing better than a well-designed properly done clinical observation. I find them invaluable.

7. Need more suggestions on behavior control of students.

8. None

18. I don't find the current supervision techniques very threatening. More often than not something good comes as a result. If supervision becomes a threat, then negative results may be more prominent.

School Number 1
Q8.) (Continued)

21. Preparing a lesson plan for supervision is an exercise in preparing a lesson! One wishes the lesson to go well and carefully structures the situation so it will. It is not always possible to do this (you must learn to respond to the unexpected also).

SCHOOL NUMBER 2

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

22. Positive reinforcement to an already positive attitude.

23. At this time, it has served to reinforce my perceptions, feelings and behavior in a positive way.

24. The supervision has made my perception of classroom activity clearer.

25. A great deal.

26. A great amount.

28. At this time it is not a factor or stimulus to me.

29. The supervision has created a good feeling between teacher, children, and supervisor.

30. Not much--a few times input was helpful.

31. More enthusiastic about lessons.

32. On occasion supervision has done that, but it has been mainly my own motivation.

33. None

34. Some

School Number 2
Q6.) (Continued)

35. He has encouraged me in the area of professional improvement such as course taking for the purpose of my making change and growth in dealing with the classroom situation.

36. There has been little change because of supervision, although positive reinforcement has always been noted and the probability of carry over very likely.

37. Initially it had same impact but has become repetitious over the years in some ways.

38. I don't feel any supervision I've received has changed my teaching, however it has inspired me to continue what I've been doing.

39. Some extent; also created feelings of resentment to some extent.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

24. My confidence in my role as a teacher.

25. Behavior patterns.

26. Better management.

28. Our supervision is only carried out as a necessary obligation therefore not much change.

29. I don't feel the changes in my classroom are due to supervision. They would occur anyway.

30. Friendliness--children like his visitations.

31. Lessons planned in detail.

32. Nothing.

33. Nothing.

School Number 2
Q7.) (Continued)

34. Smile more.

35. Re-establishment of my faith in teaching as a profession which is both rewarding and self-fulfilling.

36. Attitude towards the observable positive changes in the class.

39. Very little.

40. Lessons are kept concise and to the point. Objectives are always kept in mind.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

25. Find observation by supervisor as a worthwhile experience.

28. Previous to 1977 supervision was a viable tool in the teaching process as to improvement, etc. Since then the supervisor has been changed, the previous one's job eliminated, his duties tripled, resulting in superficial obligations.

32. When I get supervision, it is usually positive, but the problem seems to have been the work load put upon the supervisors which makes it difficult for them to get around very often, which in turn lessens the impact of supervision.

34. None

35. Good rapport between supervisor and teacher is essential to the creation and maintenace of a positive atmosphere which is necessary working with both children and adults.

38. One of the few times you are ever praised for any work you've done in school is during evaluations.

40. I pick my objectives to be observed from areas I feel could be firmed up, or new approaches tried.

SCHOOL NUMBER 3

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

41. It has made me more aware of individual habits exhibited by my students.

42. Made me more aware of the many interactions between students and teacher.

44. Understanding of curriculum objectives.

47. Brought greater awareness of these factors.

48. The objectives have caused me to place the focus of attention on areas in need of extra work each year and my supervisor has helped me plan ways to help me achieve my goals.

50. Very little, as I feel most of my objectives and behaviors would be the same, regardless of supervision.

52. It stops procrastination--also may limit creative approach by locking me into a commitment.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

41. Probably my own individual observation of my students has increased.

42. Solutions to behavior disruption can be monitored and solved sometimes quite simply with the cooperative effort of the supervisor.

44. Recognition of each child as a separate human being. Teacher's attitude toward curriculum and objectives. (More so)

47. More aware of certain behavior patterns in both children and teacher.

48. Increased awareness of objective and frequent referrals to curriculum guides to make sure the curriculum is being covered.

School Number 3
Q7.) (Continued)

50. Very little, except more pressure to complete as much of curriculum as possible.

52. I have more materials with which to work.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

52. I recognize the system's need for supervision but I prefer a freer approach!

SCHOOL NUMBER 4

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

55. Supervision has been extremely helpful in bringing about better understanding and changes in techniques of treatment.

56. Much.

57. Much.

58. Much stimulus.

59. He has been most helpful in the area of Affective Education.

60. A great deal.

61. Much.

62. Much.

63. Much.

64. Better evaluation and satisfaction in work well done and insight into areas for improvement.

School Number 4
Q6.) (Continued)

65. Discussion of ineffective approaches and recommendation of effective approaches.

66. Much.

67. I feel complete backing of my supervisor all the years I have worked with him as my principal.

68. Much.

69. A great extent.

70. Much.

71. Much.

74. He is most understanding about how I feel about certain situation.

75. It has been very helpful.

76. Much.

77. Much.

776. Much.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

55. A better understanding of behaviors and different techniques of teaching.

56. Self-awareness.

57. Self-awareness.

58. Self-satisfaction and stimulation.

59. I am more aware of the humanistic element in teaching.

School Number 4
Q7.) (Continued)

60. Self-awareness.

61. Self-awareness.

62. Little.

63. Self-awareness.

64. Better able to focus in on essentials for doing a better job.

65. Communication techniques with individuals and groups of individuals.

66. Little.

67. No great change but clarification on curriculum goals and ways of attaining these.

68. Improvement of my instruction.

69. Different approaches and strategies based upon current theories.

70. Self-stimulation.

71. Much.

74. I will be more relaxed because I know I have the support of the principal.

75. Supervision has me reevaluate my attitudes and techniques in the classroom.

76. More pupil input.

77. Self-awareness; interactive behavior.

776. Better exchange of ideas.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

School Number 4
Q8.) (Continued)

57. I am very happy with the attitude of supervision.

67. I am very satisfied with type of backing my supervisor gives me--very open and fair and always there.

SCHOOL NUMBER 5

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

77. Data about specific children's performance or behavior is collected during observation. This has helped my decision making.

78. The agreements on behavior observation were comforting. Besides the behaviors I saw, the supervisor saw more that broadened my perception of some children.

79. Favorably alternate years when check-list; tension which performance objections.

80. Very little except for certain small things on checklist.

81. I have been allowed the freedom to attempt new approaches and received help in obtaining material to conduct new lessons.

82. Discouraged natural inclination to invite observation of classroom procedures.

83. Stimulates the need for more interesting many faceted approach to all aspects of class interaction.

84. This is a difficult question to answer. In my area of specialty I feel that the person best qualified to supervise me does not have the responsibility. The principal, I feel, is asked to do what the Pupil Personnel Supervisor should be doing.

85. A tense situation is created with both the children and teacher.

School Number 5
Q6.) (Continued)

87. None

89. Supervision comments have reinforced the method used in the classroom--(the inquiry method of questioning and searching for solutions to problems).

90. Introduced role playing to bring out shy children; used game situations to reinforce instruction; classroom meetings; student plans and time sheets.

91. Less feeling that I am responsible for completely changing child or for children outside my classroom.

92. Organization of activities for children have been beneficial.

93. Excellent in terms of dealing with classroom teachers--always suggestions positive.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

77. Implementation of curriculum.

78. My attitude toward those children observed for one problem or another. The majority of them were observed as being a cause of disruption in the classroom. They need more care and positive feedback along with a closer eye.

79. Change from conservative, traditional teaching to more open--interest centers, etc.

80. Nothing except anxiety on my part when it comes to performance objectives.

81. My attitude changes because I can use new methods that I learn through recent education courses.

82. Discouraged use of interest centers and controlled freedom of pupils to use many facilities.

School Number 5
Q7.) (Continued)

83. Reevaluation of my teacher-pupil instruction-relationship.

84. Very little. Whatever changes occur are more a result of my involvement in my area of specialty (conferences, etc.).

86. Very little. There will be some minor changes for improving ed. climate, but nothing radical.

87. Nothing.

88. I feel I am given supportive help and am able to do more because I am encouraged to do so.

90. My increased awareness of individual student needs.

91. Improved organization of time with daily schedule worked out with supervisor.

92. I would like to have more interest centers.

93. Better grouping practices.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

79. Alternating years--checl-list one year, performance objectives next. Amount of time, effort, energy required creates anxiety in me resulting in tension carried over to class when performance objectives are due.

84. I feel that supervision by _____ would be more meaningful and productive. The principal's responsibility to evaluate me as a teacher is reasonable but the scope of my responsibilities extend beyond the "classroom."

86. Perhaps we need more teachers with a strong liberal arts background. The Teachers' Colleges do not provide this, even in post-grad courses.

87. Elementary principal should have been elementary teacher to be effective.

School Number 5
Q8.) (Continued)

88. I feel my supervisor is fair and honest with me and our relationship is open and respectful. I feel comfortable and not threatened by her presence. I feel she appreciates what I do and contribute, and she praises me or notices the extra effort I make.

92. Supervision sometimes is a false situation. Children usually "perform" when supervisor is present.

93. Some of my answers applied more to my role as _____, ie., I mentally reworded questions for my role.

SCHOOL NUMBER 6

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

94. None.

96. By her personal humanistic approach she has influenced and stimulated me to change.

97. Our principal is helpful and relaxed in his discussions so I can talk freely.

98. Supervisor stimulates a relaxed atmosphere which in turn gives me a good feeling for teaching and the school.

99. Shorten some lessons, more involvement of students.

100. Very little.

101. Feel able to develop and pursue any method to improve my teaching. I am free to do what I can to teach the way the children are learning.

102. Suggestions for new techniques and encouragement to innovate on my own.

School Number 6
Q6.) (Continued)

103. I feel supervision to be more supportive to me a sharing of ideas.

104. I am able to teach in a relaxed atmosphere--school and classroom.

105. Large extent.

107. My supervision has only made my perceptions of the laws clearer and modified my behavior in working with children to the extent that I must document everything and word reports very carefully.

108. Very little.

109. Enhanced positive feelings which I have feel disheartened due to minor failures, and on problems. Emphasis of what are valuable characteristics as opposed to negatives.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

96. Materials and organization procedures.

97. No change.

98. No change.

99. More careful planning.

100. I work independently as a result of the infrequent supervision.

101. My relationship with the children is calm and unhurried--a pleasant room in which to learn.

102. Better methods of working with difficult children.

103. Supervision provides a relaxed feeling between teacher and supervisor--this can only enhance my teaching.

104. I am able to go ahead with individualized centers for the children's needs.

School Number 6
Q7.) (Continued)

108. I now feel relaxed as a teacher and I hope that feeling will not change with a new supervisor.

109. Discussion with good ideas, input, to help alleviate feelings of frustrations or inadequacies. Suggestions given to help further with positive abilities and also areas which one feels are negative abilities (i.e., the teacher's feelings).

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

99. Most supervision has been so late in the year that it was of little value for that year.

100. I would prefer "peer" supervision, based on the background, experience and rapport of fellow staff members.

101. I don't feel under pressure.

107. As a department, we have excellent ideas and are highly motivated to work in our areas. However, there is no time to meet with our supervisor to express our ideas and share experiences and observations. Supervision is much more vital in this area as opposed to classroom observations for (special area) especially. My supervisor had observed and supervised. Right now the principal evaluates me but my supervisor "supervises." We have had 1 (special area) meeting this year with the supervisor which has been frustrating as there are many issues which need to be resolved as a (special area).

Evaluations by the princpal have been well planned, helpful and productive. His observations and suggestions have been productive.

108. There have been other situations where the supervisor made me feel tense, nervous, and uncomfortable.

SCHOOL NUMBER 7

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

111. More pressure on me and therefore more pressure on students.

112. Not much--it usually comes from within!

113. It has helped me with specific kids and techniques that will improve therapy. Writing skills have improved.

114. A great deal.

116. Inspired to try out ideas for purposes of growth.

117. None.

118. I have used the supervisor's comments to work on student's bheaviors in an effort to improve the classroom functioning.

119. Keeps me thinking someone cares.

120. Not much.

121. None.

122. None.

123. Positive, high expectations--positive suggestions. An accept upon the positive!!

124. Positive reinforcement for my present skills has stimulated me to further develop my abilities.

125. None.

126. It has helped to broaden my analytical ability in the area in which I am being supervised.

128. Supervisor has opportunity to observe some specific things that I may not be aware of.

129. Quite a bit--made me try new things--i.e., class meetings.

School Number 7
Q6.) (Continued)

130. Not much, feel threatened.

131. None.

132. We both agreed on my approach.

133. To some extent. An observers input helps me to see my performance in a different light.

134. Considerably.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

111. Another opinion or perspective.

112. Stricter with kids.

113. Various techniques used with specific kids.

114. The feelings that I don't feel threatened and am looking for help.

116. Suggestions made have helped me to look at things more critically.

117. Feel stifled.

118. My expectations of children in my class has changed as a result of supervision.

119. Records--deadlines.

120. Atmosphere--terror has increased and apprehension has increased.

121. I feel inhibited and threatened. My creativity has been stifled. I do not feel I am respected.

123. There has become a more relaxed atmosphere, with the group working as a team toward positive goals.

School Number 7
Q7.) (Continued)

124. Individualized program. Humanistic approach. Use of up-to-date research and materials.

125. Nothing.

126. I will enrich further the areas because of additional research and preparation I had done.

128. Not much of great consequence but it is really too difficult to state that as a certainty.

129. ?

130. Little.

131. None.

132. My classroom has not changed.

133. I look at my performance more carefully and I reevaluate situations with a more critical eye.

134. Increase in good vocabulary. Better student/teacher awareness.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

112. Supervisor usually pleasant but can't be too comfortable around.

114. I have had a very satisfactory relationship this year--much time has been spent to build a better relationship.

117. Supervision tends to be negative rather than positive and supportive.

120. I am very disillusioned by my supervisory conferences by pettiness and didactic theorizing.

121. I wish I could feel more support instead of knowing he is looking for negatives.

School Number 7
Q8.) (Continued)

130. Supervision can make one uptight and uneasy thus not leading to true perception of teacher.

133. The success of our system of evaluation hinges on teacher and supervisor input. To a very large extent it is what we make it. It requires planning, honesty and work.

SCHOOL NUMBER 8

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change your classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

135. None--supervision is not a "one shot gig." It's just a formality.

137. Makes me more aware of techniques that may have become careless through use.

139. My supervision has enabled me to work in an atmosphere of exploration, using my own approaches and ideas.

140. None.

141. I cannot say that the supervision has acted to any extensive degree as a stimulus. Egotistical as it may sound--I feel more than adequate in my own perceptions, feelings and behavior.

142. Very little.

145. Makes me more aware of the negatives in the classroom.

146. My supervisor listens to my ideas and is supportive to any functional changes that may benefit the students.

148. Somewhat.

149. It makes me aware of something that I may not be aware of--habits, experiences, etc.

School Number 8
Q6.) (Continued)

150. Very limited and strict.

151. Throughout the years I have grown and matured as a teacher and as a person. I feel that the growth and maturity would have occurred with or without supervision.

152. I feel new beginnings (Sept) always stimulate my perceptions, etc. Supervision is an outside stimuli which can be staged. I feel I have developed as a teacher because of my own needs for growth.

153. Supervision has offered little toward creating a "better" classroom.

154. Can't say as I have had many different supervisors.

155. Has reinforced present modes of behavior as eliciting excellent student growth.

156. None--I strive to maintain the quality of excellence that persists; any changes are self-inspired based upon my continuing evaluation of my teaching, classroom management, and background (educationally speaking)!

157. It has been positive in nature.

159. Very little. Most conferences have been positive.

161. To some degree.

162. On occasion it has served as a guide for future lessons.

163. Little.

164. A great deal. It is another view point of how students "see" the lesson as it unfolds.

165. Very little.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

School Number 8
Q7.) (Continued)

135. I have been evaluated--not supervised--therefore what positive adjustments are expected?

137. I have become aware of areas needing improvement.

138. Class control. Clearer lessons.

139. Basically--updated--safety rules relating to my working areas.

140. None.

141. I like to think of my supervisors as resource people who can and do prove a tremendous help in my areas of teaching.

142. Very little.

144. More organized in terms of control while giving individual and small group help.

145. Not as critical and negative with youngsters.

148. Awareness to individual students.

149. Careful selecting of materials and how to present them.

150. Limited flexibility.

151. Very little. Supervision has only tended to reinforce what exists in my classroom.

152. A stronger awareness of recognizing my own objectives in action.

153. Little! However change will occur within the classroom because of my need to improve and be responsive.

155. Lessening of standards once held.

156. Nothing positive--a downward trend in what I may expect from students behaviorally and/or academically.

159. Little change.

School Number 8
Q7.) (Continued)

161. ?

162. My attack of a certain skill.

163. Little.

164. AV types of materials varied, more exact records. Discipline improved.

165. A better use of classroom time.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

145. How my mood affects the class.

147. The above questions are not applicable to my supervisory situation since my supervisors now and in the past have little, if any, knowledge of my area.

149. Trust, faith, and honesty are a must between supervisor and teacher.

152. I feel supervision should not require the teacher to prepare "busy work" for administrators. If certain administrative requests seem to be of little value--the teacher should have a right to refuse and come up with their own requirements.

155. Teams of teachers should be made up of teachers with like values and standards.

156. To be of most benefit to students I should be able to teach with people who share my values, my attitude toward my job. In short, I should be allowed to teach with people who want to teach and who take this job seriously and who are sincerely interested in educating young people for their sake.

161. Supervision can't really be working when certain of my colleagues still continue to hold jobs!

School Number 8
Q8.) (Continued)

162. The value of supervision depends mainly on the supervisor and his perception of the teacher and/or student.

SCHOOL NUMBER 9

Q6.) To what extent has the supervision served as a stimulus to change classroom perceptions, feelings, and behavior?

185. It has helped in my teaching style as to the amount of time spent with individual students and time spent with total class.

186. A great extent.

187. It depends on the supervisor--every year there has been a new one. This year has been a good one for stimulation to changes.

188. The past one year has been great. Previously the supervision was poor and was down grading-lacked effort.

189. I don't need supervision. I have great personal drive.

190. Things are pointed out that I might not have been aware of.

191. Keeps me trying my best.

192. Obtain a definite objective and work on it.

193. An absolute asset--evaluation is a very helpful tool.

194. By focusing on specific objectives for the year and exploring new approaches.

195. Pointed out weaknesses in teaching manner which determine classroom atmosphere.

196. None.

197. To a large extent in attitude, feeling, behavior and discipline

School Number 9
Q6.) (Continued)

for myself working at that level instead of an elementary level.

198. It depends on the purpose or purposes the supervision was intended to achieve. It has always helped when dealing with a problem.

199. A limited extent.

200. Better organized--better plans and follow up.

201. Changing from one method to another--for example--using more open-ended questions in class discussions.

202. It gives a more objective judgment; my supervisor is highly respected as a fair, rational person and I welcome his opinions. Not all supervisors are so unbiased.

203. Not much that I did not already know.

204. Very little.

166. Somewhat, although it's hard to make every lesson an observation.

167. Very little. Supervisors usually are not attuned to a true classroom feeling.

168. I feel the supervisor is aware of my strengths, emphasizes them and makes me wish to achieve even more from myself.

169. To some extent.

170. Great extent. Awareness of more pupils in discussion.

171. Points out weaknesses and means of changing to better improved learning.

174. Mostly in getting equipment needed--also a relaxing attitude.

175. It has provided very little stimulus.

176. Positive reinforcement by supervisor has caused some changes.

School Number 9
Q6.) (Continued)

178. Some.

179. None.

180. Supervisor and I have shared conclusions on impetus and overall effects of class being observed--they are not always ones that continue beyond the class period--where appropriate status remains the same.

182. Little.

184. Many suggestions have been given to me which have helped my classroom be more effective.

Q7.) What do you think will change or already has changed in your classroom as a result of your supervision?

185. It has helped to develop new programs.

186. Techniques, willingness and enthusiasm for using various teaching medias.

187. This year's supervision has helped me to see myself and my students more objectively. In previous years, there was too much subjectivity and negativism.

188. Personal feelings--have improved.

190. I think through my classroom management objectives more thoroughly.

191. Since I meet with many students, the suggestion that name cards be made by students has been more helpful.

192. Be more aware of my strengths--weaknesses.

193. Purposefulness to lesson plans--emphasis on skills as well as subject matter.

194. Accurate interpretation of the curriculum.

School Number 9
Q7.) (Continued)

195. Perfection of following through with objectives. Staying on track.

197. Attitude and arrangement in the areas of safety, motivation.

198. I believe that my strengths are reinforced, weaknesses identified and improved on--most important is that I feel that I can use supervision to help me assess new techniques I'd like to evaluate.

199. Awareness of situations existing between students as observed by outsider has made me more aware of classroom as a whole.

200. Organization.

201. The method of introducing topics. The exclusion of some things to make way and time for other--A time line to fit everyting.

202. I've gained more control of classroom behavior. I've been encouraged to try new ideas, branch out into other areas of student interest I share.

203. Nothing.

204. Nothing.

166. More conscious of objectivity.

167. Not much. Classes are conducted the same way as usual.

168. I will tune in to areas where we have seen need or make strong areas stronger.

169. Already has changed.

170. Awareness of pupil needs and attention.

171. Awareness of students' reactions to teaching methods and clarity of lessons.

174. Nothing or very little except better equipment which has made the lab easier.

School Number 9
Q7.) (Continued)

175. Attitudes towards particular students.

177. Methods.

178. Have tried some new programs to try to help build skills for slower learners.

179. Nothing.

180. I do not anticipate any major changes.

181. None.

184. Discipline.

Q8.) Please add any further comments you may wish to make.

188. The attitude of the supervisor greatly influences me. An understanding supervisor is or can be very helpful.

190. At present I am supervised by a person who is not a specialist in my area. I feel that the Board of Education in its effort to save money and have a supervision of many areas, does little to help the new teacher who needs specific suggestions for improvement in the area in which the supervisor is <u>not</u> qualified.

192. Useful.

198. I am very pleased with the existing supervision mode and more with the way it is being implemented.

201. This method of supervision gives me a feeling of control and direction. I decide what I need and get help.

202. Supervision lets me know the administrator is involved with me, cares about my growth as a teacher as much as my concern with the growth of my students.

203. I get nervous before an observation.

School Number 9
Q8.) (Continued)

176. Not always sure that the supervisor is there because he wants to help, or because he has to by job description.

179. For specialists to be supervised, the supervisor must know something of the specialty. If the supervisor is not so informed, only insignificant growth and evaluation are possible!

TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS SIX, SEVEN, AND EIGHT

School	Favorable Comments	Unfavorable Comments	Other Comments	% Favorable Comments
1	24	15	3	57
2	27	7	3	73
3	12	3	0	80
4	45	2	0	96
5	21	13	3	57
6	20	9	2	65
7	26	21	2	53
8	25	21	5	48
9	55	18	2	73
TOTAL	255	109	20	66

NOTE: The classification of a comment into the categories above is based on a subjective assessment of the researcher. A complete listing of all the comments is listed in the appendix for the reader's review and judgement.