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AN ANALYSIS OF PRINCIPALS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CLINICAL SUPERVISION AS A MEANS FOR ENHANCING COMMUNICATION ABOUT INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT

A Dissertation Presented

By

WILSON E. DEAKIN, JR.

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

February, 1986

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A Dissertation Presented

By

WILSON E. DEAKIN, JR.

Approved as to style and content by:

Dr. Byrd L. Jones, Chairperson of Committee

Dr. A. Peter Mattaliano, Member

Dr. Charles K. Smith, Member

Dr. Mario Fantini, Dean
School of Education

DEDICATION

To My Committee

Byrd L. Jones - I am grateful for his quicksilver intellect and adroit direction that were so crucial in the conceptualization of this work.

Charles K. Smith - I am grateful for his language assistance, for his expertise in giving the study a more practical application and for his generous giving of that most precious commodity--his time.

A. Peter Mattaliano - I am grateful to him for bringing me to clinical supervision and for being my constant support and friend.

To My Colleagues

I am grateful to the following co-workers in education for their support and technical assistance - Richard Lindgren, H. Blaine Miller, Donald E. Hallquist, William Brindamour, David M. McConnell, Joan Boroch, Jay Rusezyk, and, most importantly, Patricia Ladd.

To My Family

I have a special debt of gratitude to my mother (Margaret Deakin) and father-in-law (Edward J. Cheponis) both of whom left this life in 1985. They respected education, were generous with their love and taught me the dignity of work. I am grateful to my children (Carol, William, Catherine, and Stephanie) for their affection, good-natured encouragement and obvious pride.

I am grateful to my wife (Betty) for her love, willingness for me to draw upon family time and resources, and for understanding more than anyone why this effort was necessary.

ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF PRINCIPALS' ATTITUDES
TOWARDS CLINICAL SUPERVISION AS A MEANS FOR
ENHANCING COMMUNICATION ABOUT INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT

February, 1986

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This study examines clinical supervision as a means of building communication links among a school staff towards the goals of improving instruction and school climate. According to research studies of effective schools, there are specific, concrete characteristics that determine the performance of these schools. These characteristics are: a safe and orderly environment, clear school mission, instructional leadership, high expectations, time on task, frequent monitoring of pupil progress, and positive home-school relations.

Also emerging from the research was the position that leadership style is situational and must be adapted to staff and school. This research has produced a list of

certain key characteristics of effective instructional leadership and they are: goal setting ability, openness, self-confidence, tolerance for ambiguity, assertiveness, sensitivity to the dynamics of power, an analytical perspective, and the ability to "take charge."

The research also demonstrated that principals favored the nonthreatening nature of clinical supervision and found teachers more willing to share experiences and explore weaknesses. Principals reported that clinical supervision promoted staff confidence, morale, mutual support, and led to self-discovery.

Detailed in this study is an analysis of the results of a clinical supervision opinionnaire, which was submitted to forty-five administrators in three Connecticut school systems (thirty-nine responses were received). The results of the opinionnaire data and comments sections showed strong principal support for clinical supervision and a significant preference when compared with traditional supervision. The principals viewed clinical supervision as a positive change vehicle and a promoter of staff collegiality. The study revealed that the principals saw little conflict in an administrator serving the dual role of supervisor and evaluator.

The study describes the clinical supervision in-service program and reviews the field training experienced by each administrator in the three districts involved. The study documents that training in clinical supervision gives principals confidence and enables them to influence teachers' classroom behavior and to be a positive monitor.

In summary, the literature and the survey report four crucial classroom interactions as a result of clinical supervision and they are discussion of teaching practices, observation and feedback, curriculum design, and staff development activities.

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CHAPTER I

DESCRIPTION OF A STUDY DESIGNED TO STRENGTHEN THE PRINCIPALSHIP

INTRODUCTION

This study will focus on the school principal functioning as a school manager, instructional leader and change agent towards the goal of excellence for his/her school. The study will detail the responsibilities of the principal in creating and sustaining a positive school climate through:

1. Modeling (personal beliefs and commitment),
2. Feedback (rapport and communication),
3. Consensus building (decision making), and
4. Supervision/Evaluation (program and staff).

This study will give special emphasis to the supervision/evaluation aspect. To this end, an instrument has been developed to measure administrator opinions concerning the use of clinical supervision as one tool in improving staff effectiveness. This instrument has been administered to principals and districtwide supervisors in three Connecticut public school systems who have recently experienced clinical supervision training.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Those seeking school improvement must address the negative school climate and debilitating conditions under

which many teachers work as well as seeking to change directly the teachers' behavior. Change must come from within an individual teacher or school faculty (Rolander, 1980; Squires, 1980).

If principals emphasize instructional leadership in their school, they must break the hold that administrative duties have on their daily time schedule. They need to reorder their priorities and their schedules to work directly with staff and students in instructionally significant matters such as grouping decisions, observation of teaching with appropriate feedback and assisting with material selection. Clinical supervision is one positive instrument that holds out the promise of assisting teachers and principals seeking communication links in teaching styles and the classroom learning environment (Sullivan, 1980; Mattaliano, 1977; Goldsberry, 1984; Snyder, 1983).

DESCRIPTION OF LITERATURE REVIEWED

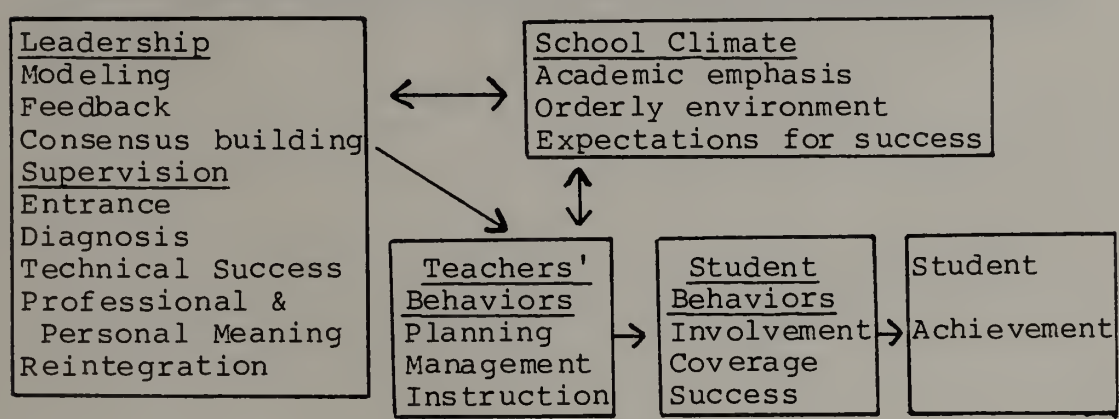
Recent literature related to the "Effective School" movement chronologically overlapped with studies of clinical supervision. Since it was the purpose of this study to relate these two sources of information to more effective school leadership, literature exploring the principalship and its related responsibilities were also an integral part of these writings.

THEORETICAL RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The principal was the most important person in the school when it came to setting school climate and providing leadership. In more effective schools, the principal was viewed by staff and students, not only as building administrator, but also as instructional supervisor with expertise in a wide variety of areas concerning education. Through supervision, teachers were aware of the effect of their planning, instruction and management patterns (Squires, 1980; Cox, 1983). Sparks (1983) reported, after reviewing evaluations of hundreds of federally funded programs, that a major factor affecting success was administrative support.

The following diagram illustrates the relationship between effectiveness in the classroom and leadership with the accompanying responsibility for supervision:

A MODEL FOR IMPROVING SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS



(Modified from Squires et al. 1982, p.4)

The leadership and supervision functions interact directly with school climate. They shape the climate of the schools and in turn are affected by already set normative practices and standards of the school culture. As the diagram illustrates, leadership factors, along with supervision, coupled with all the elements of school climate influence teacher behavior. Teacher behavior has the obvious influence on student behavior and achievement.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Overwhelmingly, the literature directed the educational practitioner to center on the single school when seeking to make educational improvements. While schools differed a great deal because of local expectations and needs, they tended to have a common function in society. Brookover (1982) and others have documented that a school's learning climate can be changed through the efforts of the people directly concerned with what goes on in a particular building. "Since a supervisor must, by definition, achieve instructional objectives through the actions of others, communication is central to his effectiveness and essential to his very existence. There can be no instructional supervisory behavior in the absence of communication" (Alfonso et al. 1975, p. 78).

The purpose of this study is to point out to school personnel resources that could help indicate direction for change and to train the agents of change. One of several factors in this change process, and a tool deserving careful consideration, is clinical supervision. While Cogan (1973) endorsed development of a cadre of trained supervisory specialists, other researchers in this field have described the benefits of a collegial relationship. This relationship would link the entire faculty and would include the administration as part of the collegial family.

This study will emphasize the role of the principal as an educational leader fulfilling the role of clinical practitioner to bring to his/her school the expert knowledge, human skills and symbolic leadership to be a primary cause for that school to be called effective.

DESCRIPTION OF INDIVIDUAL DISSERTATION CHAPTERS

CHAPTER I - This chapter contains a general introduction to the dissertation topic and a detailed description of the dissertation design, significance and methods of data gathering.

CHAPTER II - This chapter reviews the extensive writings devoted to three broad, current topics in education--the effective school movement, characteristics of successful leadership and clinical supervision. This

entire review is focused on the use of clinical supervision towards the end of assisting principals to be more effective program supervisors and change agents. Chapter II emphasizes the topic of school climate and the significance of this aspect of the literature to this paper.

CHAPTER III - This chapter describes the clinical supervision in-service experience. It reviews the actual field training experienced by each administrator, from the three school systems involved in this study, who voluntarily underwent the clinical supervision program. This represents a detailed description of the daily training schedule, with copies of materials used by the consultant and an explanation of the basic in-service format.

CHAPTER IV - This chapter details a description and analysis of the opinionnaire results; with graphic portrayal of the more significant trends. This material is regrouped so as to reveal any significant differences and responses according to time of training, length of administrative experience and current administrative/supervisory positions of the various respondees.

CHAPTER V - This chapter is devoted to an analysis of the significance of the study, especially the significance

of the data gathered via the opinionnaire. The second part of this chapter is devoted to recommendations for future studies within the general topic of improved instructional leadership capabilities of the school principal.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to investigating the principal's involvement in school improvement, with special interest in the principal's development of administrative strategies and specific behaviors that match the climate and context of a particular school. This study will focus on just one of those behaviors--clinical supervision.

Only experienced principals, assistant principals and districtwide supervisors were involved in the study. Their training in clinical supervision was similar in content, number of sessions and methods of implementation. No attempt was made to involve teacher input to get comparative data, yet teachers were trained at the same time in all three districts. It was felt that teacher involvement might have an intimidating affect on administrator responses and might also cause a negative union involvement which was undesirable.

RESEARCH METHOD UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

The proposed study, after a review of the literature,

involved the development of a data-gathering instrument called a "Clinical Supervision Opinionnaire." The majority of the statements focused on instructional improvement. Others dealt with administrator and teacher behavior. A few statements sought data about the use of clinical supervision in district teacher evaluation situations.

The instrument was submitted to forty-five (45) experienced principals and districtwide supervisors from three Connecticut districts who, within the last three years, had training in the methods of clinical supervision. While the responses were anonymous, the respondees were asked to identify themselves as to the area of their job responsibilities (elementary, secondary, central office), whether theirs was an administrative or supervisory position and the number of years experience that they have had in administration/supervision.

The responses to the fifteen (15) statements took one of five forms (A, B, C, D, or E) which indicated a range from strong agreement to strong disagreement. An arithmetic mean for each response was determined and subgroup variations from the mean deduced. The study will attempt to discover a statistically significant difference in the responses dependent on the various job factors listed above and levels of experience.

Another measure which will be attempted in the analysis of this data, will be to form the responses into two groups, one being a district whose administrative/supervisory staff received the training a little over two years ago (about two-fifth's of the responses) and the other group composed of two districts that received the training more recently to see if there was a statistically significant difference in their responses.

The final portion of the instrument consists of open spaces after each of the fifteen (15) statements asking the respondees to relate examples from their experience that were illustrative of the material covered in that particular section. Obviously, these free form responses cannot be treated in a statistical manner but will be examined for patterns in an attempt to determine if there were commonalities.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The extensive review of the literature and the data to be obtained from the fifteen (15) statement opinionnaire will give sufficient information to link three sets of information: the effective school movement, related leadership responsibilities and the place for clinical supervision in strengthening the principal as an instructional leader.

It is through this literature review and an analysis of the opinionnaire results that the following questions will be addressed:

1. What are the significant responsibilities of the school principal for instructional improvement in that school?
2. What is instructional leadership and how does it fit into the total role of the principal?
3. What behaviors are characteristic of an instructional leader?
4. What is the crucial relationship between training in the techniques of clinical supervision and the role of the principal as an instructional leader?
5. What has been the historical correlation between the functions of traditional supervision and instructional improvement?
6. Is it possible for a single principal to fulfill effectively the roles of evaluator and supervisor?
7. Is there a significant difference in administrative/supervisory behavior in the supervision/evaluation process and training in clinical supervision?

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IMPROVEMENT

INTRODUCTION

This study drew heavily from the current literature of three popular educational topics--effective school research, writings pertaining to clinical supervision and the many books and articles dealing with leadership for school improvement. An effort has been made in this paper to link these three bodies of research for the purpose of providing to the reader an organized overview focused on the school principal functioning as a school manager, change agent and instructional leader.

The role of the principal has been described, analyzed and often criticized in current professional research devoted to the identification and/or development of effective schools. From all this data, there was a clear message--school effectiveness was correlated with the instructional leadership of the schools (CASCD, 1982-83). Therefore, in order to improve learning throughout the schools of this nation, principals must become better instructional leaders (CASCD, 1982-83; Crandall, 1983; Miller, 1981; Squires, 1982).

In the majority of case studies, leadership style and leader attitudes were mentioned as major contributing

factors to exceptional schooling. In the research and evaluation studies, effective leaders framed school goals and objectives, set standards of performance, created a productive work environment, and obtained needed support (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1982; Walter, 1981; Yukl, 1982; Curran, 1983).

Teachers were more likely to engage in the many arduous tasks required of effective teaching when their efforts were recognized and supported by the school principal (Goodlad, 1979). Teaching was described as a relatively lonely activity (Goodlad, 1979; Smyth, 1983) and this problem of isolation was often coupled with administrative harassment rather than support (Rolander, 1980).

Research on educational change clearly showed that, if schools were to improve, they must be connected to new outside knowledge and the individual school must have evolved a climate so that staff can share this new knowledge (Tye & Tye, 1984; Miller, 1981; Houlihan, 1983). A positive school climate was perhaps the single most important expression of educational leadership. The difference from school to school, according to most studies, centered on the principal's ability to build a supporting, challenging and positive school climate (Sapone, 1983; Kelley, 1980; Cuban, 1983; Lezotte, 1982a).

EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LITERATURE

Normally education communities rallied around a new idea or movement which held out the promise for a better tomorrow (Cuban, 1983). The effective school movement offered the possibility that all schools could become effective institutions in which all students could achieve (Squires, 1982).

The effective school movement in the United States started out as a reaction to the Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972) studies which concluded that family background and not the effects of schooling was the prime determinant of student achievement. If this was the case, then whole segments of the population, mainly the black and urban poor, were being condemned to a life with no hope for improvement (Weber, 1971). Since many educators believed in the democratizing effects of education, the findings of Coleman and Jencks were disturbing (Edmonds, 1979). The result was a search for effective schools which could prove them wrong.

After reviewing the Coleman and Jencks studies, Ronald Edmonds and his colleague, Jon Fredricksen, concluded that the effects of schooling were underestimated due to the "inappropriate research designs" (Fredricksen, 1980, p. 12) of the studies and set out to prove that all children could achieve. Edmonds and

Fredricksen believed that:

> All children are educable; that their education derives primarily from the nature of the schools to which they are sent, as contrasted with the nature of the family or neighborhood from which they came; and that children who start out not doing well in school get further and further behind the longer they go to school (Edmonds, 1980, p. 13).

Edmonds was critical of ineffective schools for the non-achievement of their students. He reasoned that this was due to "the failure of school people to do differently what they have been doing despite the fact that it has been demonstrated to be very ineffective for a large portion of the pupil population" (Edmonds, 1980. p. 13). With this indictment in hand, Edmonds and Fredricksen set out to find schools that served a poor population and had "come very close to abolishing the interaction between achievement and family background" (Edmonds, 1980, p. 6).

In 1972, Edmonds and Fredricksen started studying schools in the Detroit model cities neighborhood in an attempt to identify effective schools. Originally, an effective school was defined as being "at or above the city average grade equivalent in math and reading" (Edmonds, 1979, p. 5). Much of Edmonds' data came from the twenty Detroit Model City Project schools and specifically from that district's Equal Educational Opportunity Survey (EEO 5) reanalysis that he conducted

(Scott & Walberg, 1979). Later work by Edmonds and other researchers would expand this definition and would define effective schools as those in which:

> there are no educationally significant differences between different racial, ethnic and social class groups of students and/or one in which the individual level correlation between pupil background and performance is statistically and educationally significantly lower than it is in the general population (Cohen, 1980, p. 9).

Edmonds limited effectiveness to the basic skills of math and reading because he believed that all other learning was based on these and that, without these skills, one would never succeed in school. Edmonds controlled for social class through an elaborate twenty-five (25) item analysis. Once effective and ineffective schools were identified, Edmonds tried to determine specific characteristics that made a school either effective or ineffective. His findings served as the basic blueprint for the effective school movement.

"The effective schools movement rests on two empirical propositions--1) there are verifiable examples of exemplary schools that serve poor urban minority children, and 2) there are specific, concrete characteristics that determine the performance of these schools" (Ralph & Fennessey, 1983, p. 690). Research of effective schools basically fell into three categories,

outlier studies, case studies and program evaluation studies. Although theory and logic did support many findings in this research, all of the data was non-experimental and non-empirical (D'Amico, 1982; Cuban, 1983; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983).

OUTLIER STUDIES

The original and most common type of study was the outlier studies. These studies identified schools that were markedly above or below the average. Although the research designs varied, most used regression analysis controlling for the socioeconomic factors of the student. A formula was developed to determine the expected achievement score and that score was subtracted from the actual achievement scores of the schools. In this way, highly positive scores were identified as effective schools and highly negative scores were identified as ineffective.

The effective and ineffective schools were then surveyed, or otherwise assessed, to identify reasons for their achievement level. The major studies that have used this approach were the New York studies (1974 and 1976), the Maryland study (Austin, 1978), the Detroit study (Lezotte, Edmonds & Ratner, 1974), the Michigan study (Brookover & Schneider, 1975), and the Delaware study (Spartz et al., 1977). Although these studies have shown

similar results, they have not produced identical results (Appendix A).

CASE STUDIES

The second segment of effective school research was the case studies. These studies fell into two groups. The largest group looked at math and reading outcomes and described the schools in specific characteristics that delineated effective from ineffective schools. The Weber (1971), Glenn (1981), California Department of Education (1980) and Brookover and Lezotte (1979) research figured promimently in this category.

A smaller group of studies looked, not only at the outcome variables of academic achievement, but also at student self-concept, student behavior, attendance and delinquency. Two important studies in this group were the Rutter (1979) and Brookover (1975) works. Their findings were similar.

Five characteristics showed up in most of the case studies. They were:

> Strong leadership by the principal or other staff; high expectations by staff for student achievement; a clear set of goals and emphasis for the school; a schoolwide effective staff training; and a system for the monitoring of student progress (Purkey & Smith, 1982, p. 16).

In addition to these characteristics, Brookover & Lezotte (1979) and Rutter (1979) found other factors which

they believed affected total school effectiveness. Brookover & Lezotte concluded that school climate made a significant contribution to achievement when social economic status and racial composition were controlled. They also found that two high achieving schools differed in an important way. They found that the white high achieving school emphasized achievement over discipline, while the black high achieving school emphasized discipline over achievement. The role of the principal varied in each school as did the instructional groupings.

Brookover & Lezotte (1979), Rutter (1979) and other researchers suggested that there was no single combination of variables which would produce an effective school (Lipham, 1981; Lezotte, 1982a; Goodlad, 1983). Perhaps Kelley (1980) best summarized this problem when he stated:

> No particular characteristic activity, or behavior has inherent value for all settings; indeed the worth of any tool or strategy must be determined in each environment. The most common error of practitioners, however, is their effort to identify methods or tools which will be "best" when applied to any or all situations (p. 18).

The study by Rutter (1979) has gained in importance as research in effective schools progressed. This study was a longitudinal survey of twelve secondary schools in London, England. Rutter looked at not only the outcome variables, but also the school processes that lead to a

school (ethos) climate. After four years of study, Rutter identified ten school processes that were inherent in effective schools. He also found that the more effective schools had a substantially larger percentage of middle income students than did the less effective schools (Rutter, 1979; Lezotte, 1982a). This led to the possibility that "the significant difference between schools was not in school processes but in school composition" (Purkey & Smith, 1982, p. 19). An increased number of researchers involved in the effective school movement have called for more research in this area (Ralph & Fennessey, 1983; D'Amico, 1982).

PROGRAM EVALUATION STUDIES

The last category of effective school research was the program evaluation studies. These studies were characterized by the research of Armour et al. (1976), Doss & Holley (1982) and Hunter (1979). Purkey & Smith (1982) believed that these studies were stronger methodologically than the other categories of studies. They reported similar results: "high staff expectations and morale; a considerable degree of control by the staff over instructional and training decisions in the school; clear leadership from the principal or other instructional figure; clear goals for the school; and a sense of order

in the school" (Purkey & Smith, 1982, p. 23; Lezotte, 1979).

Armour (1976) concluded that, besides the usual characteristics, effective schools also had flexible teachers and more parent-teacher contact (Purkey & Smith, 1982). This last point is echoed in the Cotton & Savard (1980) study for the Alaska Department of Education (Appendix B). Wilbur Brookover and his associates (1982) recently produced a book of material devoted to enhancing school learning climate and achievement. The State of Connecticut, through its research, has produced a seven-item set of criteria for identifying effective schools and they are as follows:

1. Safe and Orderly Environment - There is an orderly, purposeful atmosphere which is free from the threat of physical harm. However, the atmosphere is not oppressive and is conducive to teaching and learning.

2. Clear School Mission - There is a clearly-articulated mission for the school through which the staff shares an understanding of and a commitment to instructional goals, priorities, assessment procedures and accountability.

3. Instructional Leadership - The principal acts as the instructional leader who effectively communicates the mission of the school to the staff, parents and students and who understands and applies the characteristics of instructional effectiveness in the management of the instructional program of the school.

4. High Expectations - The school displays a climate of expectation in which the staff

believes and demonstrates that students can attain mastery of basic skills and that they (the staff) have the capability to help students achieve such mastery.

5. Opportunity To Learn and Student Time On Task - Teachers allocate a significant amount of classroom time to instruction in basic skill areas. For a high percentage of that allocated time students are engaged in planned learning activities directly related to identified objectives.

6. Frequent Monitoring of Student Progress - Feedback on student academic progress is frequently obtained. Multiple assessment methods such as teacher-made tests, sample of students' work, mastery skills checklists, criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests are used. The results of testing are used to improve individual student performance and also to improve the instructional program.

7. Home-School Relations - Parents understand and support the basic mission of the school and are made to feel that they have an important role in achieving this mission.

(Villanova et al., 1981)

CRITICISM OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOL RESEARCH

Effective school research efforts have had their critics. Purkey & Smith (1982) identified five problems with these studies. First, they found the samples used in the studies (two to twelve schools) too narrow and small. The possibility was greatly increased that the characteristics which appeared to discriminate between high and low achievers were chance events.

Secondly, the effective school studies aggregated their results in average findings for whole schools. The

practice of aggregating masked the differential results for subgroups in the population. Edmonds and Fredricksen criticized the Coleman study for just this practice, yet they used the same method, which assumed that all students and groups of students reported in the same manner. This assumption had not been proven and, in fact, there is evidence which indicated that students do respond differently (Rutter, 1979; Lezotte, 1982a; Cohen, 1981). Edmonds (1979) recognized this point and later stressed that it was necessary to view effectiveness through disaggregated analysis of test scores. He proposed that student population should be divided by: race, social class, and sex, and then an analysis of scores completed (Edmonds, 1979).

The third criticism leveled against the effective school studies was their comparison of negative to positive outliers, rather than to the scores of average schools. Purkey & Smith (1982) contended that "the important differences between effective schools and average schools may be very different from the differences between ineffective and effective schools" (p. 10). Nor have the studies of statistically effective schools been compared to white middle class suburban schools (Brookover et al., 1982; Lezotte, 1982a; Scott & Walberg, 1979).

Two other weaknesses inherent in these studies were discussed in the literature. The statistics need not imply that the school was the cause. It was a well-known statistical fact that outliers had a tendency to regress to the mean (Ralph & Fennessey, 1983). If the tests were replicated today these outlier scores could well fall within the average scores (Lezotte, 1982a; Purkey & Smith, 1982; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983). Finally, the studies did not look at all possible explanations for pupil achievement. Differences in student mobility, teacher experience and student grouping were not explored, yet all could effect student achievement level (Purkey & Smith, 1982; Rutter, 1979).

FIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Effective school studies were more similar than varied in their characteristics and conclusions (Lezotte, 1982a; Sapone, 1983; Cuban, 1983). This paper will focus on the findings and conclusions of Ronald Edmonds, who was recognized as the most vocal proponent of the effective school movement (Purkey & Smith, 1982). However, Appendix A contains a summary of the characteristics of effective schools drawn from four major studies.

Edmonds (1980) listed five primary characteristics of effective schools: high expectations for students, strong principal leadership, emphasis on instruction, an orderly

atmosphere, and a frequent monitoring of pupil progress.

HIGH TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

Edmonds' first characteristic of effective schools was high teacher expectations for students. The earliest suggestion that teacher expectation affected student performance was in 1969 with the publication of Pygmalion in the Classroom by Rosenthal & Jacobson. In effective school research, high expectations were an interpretation of observable behavior of the teacher; such as who was called on, where students were seated and how they were grouped (Good, 1981).

McCormack-Larkin & Kritek (1982) believed that "inappropriate school expectations, norms, practices and policies account for the underachievement of a preponderance of low-income and minority students" (p. 16). In their Milwaukee Project RISE (Rising to Individual Scholastic Excellence) research, McCormack-Larkin & Kritek attempted to raise student achievement by cultivating the "belief that all students can learn and that the school is primarily responsible for their learning" (p. 17). They did this by formulating grade level standards in reading, math and language and by eliminating groupings that stratified students.

McCormack-Larkin & Kritek claimed success for their project. Other researchers supported this claim and

pointed to Project RISE as a successfully implemented project to improve the academic achievement of disadvantaged students through school level planning based on effective school research (Eubanks & Levine, 1983; Murphy et al., 1982). However, their research could not substantiate that high expectations caused any achievement increase without first eliminating the possibility that heterogeneous grouping was the cause (Good, 1981). Research on the grouping of students clearly showed that, except for high-ability students, heterogeneous grouping has a positive effect on the achievement of students (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Squires, 1980).

Good reports that "every research effort that has examined the relationship between student achievement and teacher expectations has yielded positive relationships; however, all of this evidence is correlational" (Good, 1981, p. 419). Perhaps teachers had high expectations because students were performing. Possibly, researchers were seeing student behavior affecting teacher expectations and not the reverse (West & Anderson, 1976; Good, 1981; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983).

EMPHASIS ON BASIC INSTRUCTION

Most studies did not stress just high teacher expectations but also coupled this factor with task orientation on the part of the teacher (Mann, 1980;

Koehler, 1982). High expectations were translated into what was called academic press; a combination of expectations, policies, practices, norms, and rewards (Rutter, 1979; Squires, 1980; Murphy et al., 1982). These schools had clearly stated goals, heterogeneous groupings, a focus on instructional times, homework, and a continuous testing program (Wynne, 1981). These schools represented a rather rigid academic program for all students. This type of program should increase achievement and related test scores (Cuban, 1983).

> One of the most direct ways teachers create academic press is by establishing an academically demanding climate. Teachers do this by setting rigorous demands in terms of course content to be covered, by making clear course requirements and specific instructional objectives, by setting high work standards for all students, by regularly assigning homework (with prompt follow-up and correction), by devoting a high percentage of class time to learning tasks with a strong academic focus, and by communicating with the parents of students who are experiencing academic problems. Underlying this rigorous academic climate is a belief that all students can succeed. (Murphy et al., 1982, p. 25)

The concept of time on task or academic press was consistent with two of Edmonds' points; emphasis on basic skill instruction and frequent testing (Miller, 1982; Cohen, 1982). Research indicated that "in high achieving schools instructional objectives guided the programs, and testing and evaluation were given serious and deliberate

attention" (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1982, p. 17). Teachers were not free to determine what to emphasize and were guided by the use of standardized tests in determining what to teach next (Murphy et al., 1982; Edmonds & Fredericksen, 1978). Effective schools stressed the basic skills of reading and math, and, in most cases, the faculties of these schools readily identified with what the school leadership was trying to achieve (Mann, 1980).

Critics of the effective school movement's academic press procedures declared that schools had a broader mission than the teaching of basics and, before a school deserved to be labeled effective, its whole program must be assessed (Goodlad, 1984; Austin, 1979; Cuban, 1983). Cuban (1983) voiced two concerns with schools that demonstrate a single-minded quest for higher test scores: 1) they tended to devote insufficient time to non-academic topics such as art, music, personal growth and self-esteem, and 2) schools with high test scores escaped the obligation to improve.

REGULAR MONITORING AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE - TESTING

Edmonds urged a schoolwide policy on monitoring school performance in basic skill areas with the regular use of national norm references tests (Wynne, 1980; Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1978). Feedback from these tests to students was a clear indicator to them that they were

responsible to master a specific amount of information and range of skills (Murphy et al., 1982). Remediation activities and progress reports to parents were often based on the results of these tests (Brookover & Schneider, 1975).

In regard to determinations of effectiveness based on testing alone, Cuban (1983) cautioned against a narrow focus. Even Edmonds admitted that standardized tests did not measure all outcomes of schooling, when he said:

> Clearly, change must be schoolwide and include both principals and teachers. All programs of school improvement should be evaluated on at least two distinctive measures. Changes in student achievement are an obvious important measure. Of equal importance are observable changes in the institutional, organizational nature of a school as a function of changes in principal and teacher behavior (Edmonds, 1982).

ORDERLY ENVIRONMENT - DISCIPLINE

The fourth characteristic of effective schools proposed by Edmonds was the need for an orderly atmosphere which was conducive to learning. Mann summarized this crucial factor when he wrote "Where children are extorted and robbed they cannot learn. Where teachers are assaulted and fearful, they cannot teach" (Mann, 1980, p. 19). Although Edmonds' focus on school climate was rather narrow, many researchers have broadened the scope (Scott & Walberg, 1979; Comer, 1980).

Edmonds (1982) insisted that schools must "avoid tangible evidence of institutional neglect" (p. 13), by fixing vandalism immediately and ensuring that teachers were responsible for the total school and not just the individual classroom. Shoemaker & Fraser (1982) believed that effective schools were characterized by the "presence of rules, regulations and guidelines"...."that enable teachers and students to know what is expected of them" (p. 14).

In common sense terms, an orderly atmosphere should enhance learning. Edmonds did not list specifics and his research had a rather narrow focus in regard to school climate. Later researchers made the point that more was needed than rules and prompt fixing of vandalism; without staff and student cooperation all would have little meaning (Kelley, 1980; Clark et al., 1980; Miller, 1981).

Other researchers had recognized the importance of positive staff and student attitudes. Coleman (1966) claimed that student attitude showed the strongest relationship to achievement. Comer (1980) noted from his research:

> It is possible for school systems to develop programs which will enable parents, teachers, administrators--and in the upper grades, students--to work together in a cooperative and collaborative arrangement (p. 41).

In related research, a study by Squires (1980) revealed that student violence increased with teacher/student load and student vandalism increased as administrative and faculty attitude became more authoritative or punitive. Squires (1980) concluded that his findings signaled "a need to weave students, faculty and administration more fully into the fabric of the school and let personal interactions demonstrate to students their ability to affect the environment" (p. 10).

Brookover et al. (1982) supported the need for cooperation when they declared "the nature of the learning climate that characterizes a school may be affected by many factors, but the adult staff--principals, teachers, aides, and other staff personnel--is the major determinant of the learning climate of a school" (p. 34). Brookover et al. (1982) believed that teachers want to do a good job but many have developed unconscious behaviors that hinder student learning; especially in poor or minority children. They suggested that the school staff establish a mutual Climate Watchers Program to assist each other to change their negative beliefs or behaviors into effective norms that support high achievement and a positive school climate.

High achieving schools in the Brookover & Lazotte (1979) study were characterized by students who felt

responsible for and in control of their academic work and were not in conflict with their teachers. Rutter's research supported this position. He believed that the most important resource within a school was its social groups, with their accompanying norms and values (Rutter et al., 1979).

In addition to the specific criticisms already mentioned in earlier portions of this paper, several general criticisms of effective school research remain to be discussed. Although there was general logic in the findings, the research concentrated on urban elementary schools with successful reading and math programs in the lower grades. Because of the great number of variables, generalizability was limited and it cannot be assumed what will work in one setting will be effective in another (Austin, 1979; Wynne, 1981; Purkey & Smith, 1982). This assumption was especially true on the secondary level where teachers tend not to agree on the goals of the school and were not responsible for teaching basics (Firestone & Herriott, 1982; Manasse, 1984; Glatthorn & Newberg, 1984).

These researchers pointed out that the secondary principal's role as instructional leader was different than the elementary principal due to departmentalization and school size. The secondary principal, working with

teachers who were subject matter specialists, had less expertise and power than the elementary principal who worked with a faculty that perceived themselves as generalists. In such loosely coupled organizations, composed of several supervised departments, a delegated team approach to leadership appeared to be more effective (Glatthorn & Newberg, 1984). "More simply, the principal must rely on indirect acts which are transmitted and mediated by the faculty of the building" (Kelley, 1980, p. 49).

The research of Glatthorn & Newberg (1984) revealed that elementary principals spent twice the time on instructional leadership activities as compared to secondary principals. The secondary administrators had a greater concern for discipline, school facilities, office responsibilities and faculty relations. The work of Firestone & Herriott (1982), which involved twenty-seven (27) elementary and twenty-three (23) secondary schools, supported the finding of Glatthorn & Newberg and they attribute these differences to the basic organizational structure of the secondary school. Both studies emphasized the symbolic leadership role of the secondary principal.

Another criticism was the focus of effective school research on two curricula and indices of overall school

effectiveness. Purkey & Smith (1982) found that there was "a remarkable and somewhat disturbing resemblance between the traditional view of schools as serious, work-oriented and disciplined institutions where students were supposed to learn their 3 R's and the emerging view of modern effective schools" (p. 29).

Edmonds recognized the possibility that the five prime characteristics from his research might not be the cause of effectiveness, but rather, the consequences. He urged more research in this regard (Edmonds, 1982; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983). Yet, at the same time, he insisted that schools must implement all five characteristics at once to be effective (Edmonds, 1982). Clark et al. (1980) supported this position when they wrote "the major elements necessary for urban school success are interrelated variables that have debilitating effects if they are not in balance and synergistic consequences if they are not operating in harmony" (p. 470).

The final general criticism was the lack of attention to school composition and community support. Both functions were continually present in, but overlooked by, many of the studies. Later studies by Rutter (1979), Cotton & Savard (1980), Comer (1980), Kelley (1980), Brookover & Lezotte (1979), and Armour (1976) did much to bring these two ingredients into effective school

research. Cuban (1983) summarized this position when he wrote:

> Effectiveness is a constricted concept. Tied narrowly to test results in mostly low-level skills in math and reading, school effectiveness ignores many skills, habits, and attitudes beyond the reach of paper-and-pencil tests. Educators and parents also prize outcomes of schooling that reach beyond current definitions of effectiveness--sharing, learning to make decisions, developing self-esteem and acquiring higher level thinking skills (analysis, evaluation, etc.) and aesthetic sense (p. 695).

Perhaps the following statement from the research of Ralph & Fennessey (1983) put the effective school research into a proper and workable perspective:

> The effective schools perspective has an important place in educational thinking, but it has been mistakenly identified as a scientific model. We believe it is really a rhetoric of reform in the guise of positive science, what we find is a set of normative principles. Scientists and reformers in this area have confused their identities: school reformers are seeking to be perceived as scientists, and, to a lesser extent, scientists are trying to accommodate reformers. What is needed instead is a clearer conception of school planners and decision makers as professional managers and problems solvers (Ralph & Fennessey, 1983, p. 693).

While the debate concerning the practical consequences of effective school research continued in academia, practitioners working in the public schools were using the findings of these studies to bring about changes in their schools. Lezotte (1982b) spoke in favor of the implementation of effective school research when he

stated:

> I believe the evidence that effective schools research is useful as a framework for school improvement programs is increasing. The results are impressive. I appreciate the magnitude of the step from descriptions of effective practices to prescriptions for improving practices. I believe we should look to the evidence found in planned programs of school improvement as the basis for assessing the usefulness of the research (p. 63).

Edmonds had his concerns about implementation of effective school research. Goodlad (1983) quoted Edmonds as saying: "At last we're getting a handle on the characteristics of effective schools but we don't yet know how to get them" (p. 6). Through this research, the educator has learned much as to what constitutes effective practice. This growing research base indicated, at least at the elementary level, that effective schools have more tightly coupled curriculum and instructional programs. This means that school goals, instructional objectives, program content and activities, and measures of pupil performance are aligned (Manasse, 1984). The concept "tightly coupled" refers to the linkage of program and personnel functions within a school and in situations such as these a specific input will yield a predictable outcome. Effective schools lend themselves to a sense of cohesiveness and possess a coherent curriculum which gives the appearance of being tightly coupled. Less is known as

to what would be effective in a particular setting or what would have the most useful applications (Cohen, 1982).

Comer (1980) stated that his research team deliberately decided not to design a rigorous research project, in favor of a more informal, intimate relationship with the school people involved in their study. This procedure led to a trust relationship and opportunities for the study team to give the school system timely assistance. Sarason (1982) implied the same need to push forward when he stated: "We lack adequate knowledge of the natural history of change processes within the school culture. But this lack of knowledge is less serious than lack of recognition of the problem" (p. 20).

Corporations have long been aware that a positive work climate enhanced productivity. More recently, effective school researchers have also determined that a positive school climate was an asset in enhancing learning productivity (Parrish & Aquila, 1983; Cawelti, 1982; Manasse, 1984).

School climate was the result of prevailing of normative conditions in a school as perceived by the staff and students. School climate is defined as the patterns, practices, conditions, as well as the norms, belief systems and values which either enhance or impede the

attainment of satisfaction and accomplishment (Kelley, 1980; Anderson, 1982; Houlihan, 1983; Miller, 1982). Kelley (1980) and Howard (1980) used the term climate as a label for concern with both productivity and satisfaction as well as the relationship which existed between two dimensions.

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

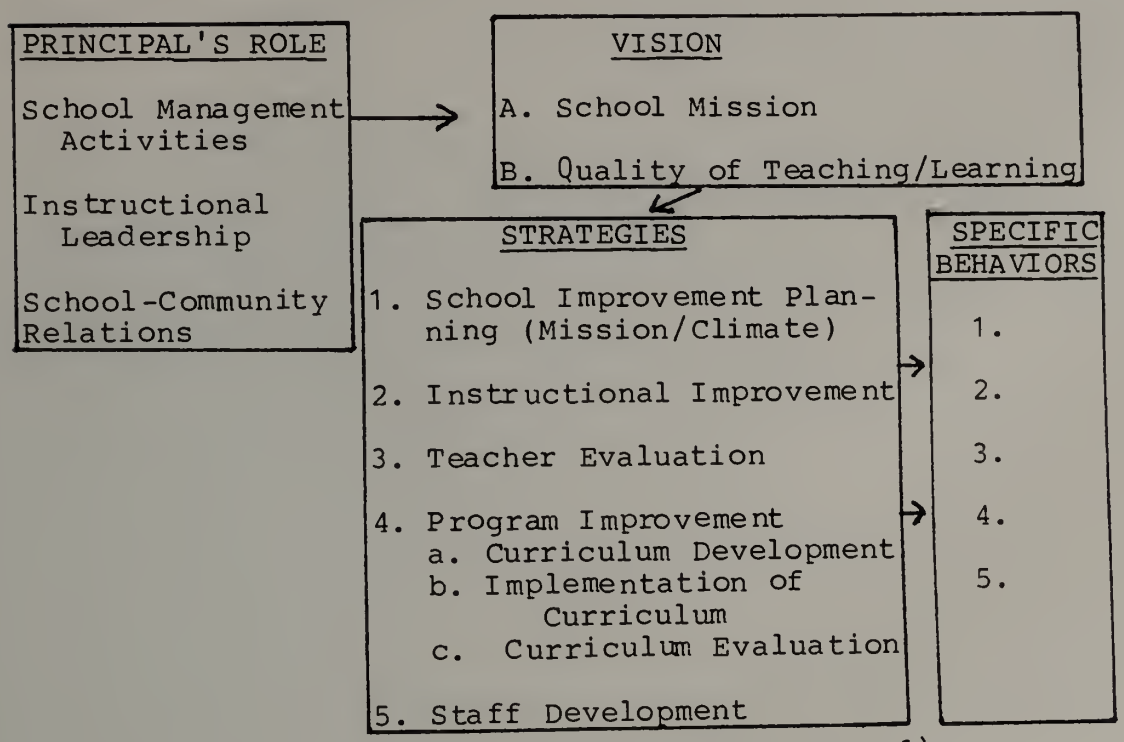
All effective school research studies emphasized the importance of vigorous leadership (Campbell, 1983; Kelley, 1980; Lipham, 1981). This was the fifth and final characteristic of an effective school according to Edwards (1980) and the second primary body of research upon which this paper is focused. This literature tended to divide principal responsibilities into three areas: instructional leadership, school management and school and community relations.

The National Commission on Excellence recommended that:

> Principals and superintendents must play a crucial leadership role in developing school and community support for the reforms we propose .... The Commission stresses the distinction between leadership skills involving persuasion, setting goals and managerial and supervisory skills (1983, p. 32).

The effective principal had set the tone in the school in terms of high performance expectations (Edmonds, 1982). Principals of the more effective schools put into

operation conceptualized goals for their schools, transmitted vision to the school faculty and engaged their staff in active attainment of those goals (Campbell, 1983; MacPhail-Wilcox & Guth, 1983a; Sergiovanni, 1984). The following Connecticut Association of Curriculum Development model presented a good overview of instructional leadership. Being a Connecticut school administrator, this model has been of particular significance to the writer of this research effort. It has guided his staff supervision activities for the last several years and was also influential in the clinical supervision plans of the three Connecticut districts involved in this study.



(CACD, 1982-83, p. 6)

Most authorities supported the proposition that an effective and successful school was one in which the major focus of the principal's activities are directed toward achieving desirable instructional ends (Sapone, 1983). Underlying the broad concept of instructional leadership was the implicit assumption that the principal of an effective school had the prime responsibility to serve as a change agent (Manasse, 1984; Sarason, 1982). Gauthier (1982) pointed out that more school improvement efforts failed because of adaptive rather than substantive reasons. Gauthier referred to the school principal as the "gate keeper" of change (p. 12).

Edmonds believed that most principals were ineffective change agents because they did not get the system's goals across to teachers. He felt that "in an effective organization, the leader articulates its major purposes and then undertakes systematic dissemination" (1982, p. 13). He further believed that effective principals spend most of their time out of the office involved in classroom supervision and engaged directly with instructional matters.

Other researchers have broadened Edmonds' views on instructional leadership. Walter (1981) pointed out:

> Results of theoretical and empirical work in leadership clearly indicate effective leaders are those who use task, instrumental, or

> structuring behaviors as well as behaviors showing consideration and concern for employees. Both kinds of leader behaviors appear to be necessary for effective program operation. Conceptual leadership and risk taking are equally important (p. 636).

There was evidence that the social climate of the school and the morale of the staff had an effect on pupil attitudes and learning (Rutter, 1979; Miller, 1981; Curran, 1983). Miller (1981) described a positive school climate as characterized by "staff and student cohesiveness, high morale and an environment where caring, mutual respect, and trust are evident" (p. 485). Miller's research described these schools as having an open climate where the faculty showed a balance in concern for task achievement and social needs satisfaction.

The principal's function was to develop or maintain a positive school climate where teachers could work and students could learn (Curran, 1983; Sapone, 1983). Research on effective schooling continued to emphasize the necessity for assertive leadership in the schools towards student achievement goals (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1982). This implied what the principal did (behaviors) and what the principal encouraged others to do.

In addition to an assertive nature, effective principals had a vision of their schools and of their role in making that vision a reality (Manasse, 1984). These

principals were committed to an active role in the management of instruction as well as the management of building, material and financial resources (MacPhail-Wilcox & Guth, 1983a).

An article by DeBevoise (1984) listed seven characteristics observed to be possessed by effective instructional leaders:

1. A propensity to set clear goals and to have these goals serve as a continuous source of motivation.

2. A high degree of self-confidence and openness to others.

3. A tolerance for ambiguity.

4. A tendency to test the limits of interpersonal and organizational systems.

5. A sensitivity to the dynamics of power.

6. An analytic perspective.

7. The ability to be in charge of their jobs (p. 15-16).

The research by Manasse (1984) concerning managerial success revealed that "high performances had the cognitive skills of monitoring, ability to recognize patterns, perceptual objectivity and analytical ability " (p. 44). These effective principals had developed the skills necessary to hold staff accountable for instructional goals and still encourage autonomy, experimentation and growth by the teachers and the school (Curran, 1983).

Effective principals were successful in helping teachers to achieve their personal goals (Austin, 1979) and seized every opportunity to encourage and acknowledge good work (Lipham, 1981).

The principals of effective schools were viewed by staff as educational experts with wide expertise in many curriculum areas. These principals participated directly in many of the classroom instructional activities and actually did help in deciding instructional strategies (Austin, 1979; Weber, 1971; Brookover et al., 1979). These principals had developed beyond just "knowing about" the instructional program to the position where they were deeply involved in its development, implementation, evaluation and refinement (Lipham, 1981; Austin, 1979). Walter (1981) summarized the attributes of the effective principal in one sentence when he wrote "One element is strong leadership combining knowledge of subject with new leadership techniques and a willingness to take risks for children" (p. 635).

Those studies were consistent in reporting that principals of effective schools, in setting the climate for their schools, never let the human relation and public relation factors become more important than student achievment and program evaluation (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1982; Dwyer, 1984). Cohen (1981) suggested that "perhaps

unusually effective schools are different from most schools, and what accounts for their effectiveness is precisely the fact that they are more tightly managed and more collectively committed to basic skills instrucion" (p. 218). Levine & Stark (1982) pointed out that building administration must be structured and supportive and that "decades of research and analysis on organizational effectiveness have indicated that both dimensions of leadership are important in determining the success of an organization" (p. 45).

Another characteristic of successful schools was the high amount of respect shown to all within the school environment and it was the principal who helped set this tone for staff and students (Lasley & Wayson, 1982; Miller, 1981). Concurrent with mutual respect, was the observation of researchers that effective principals were responsive to teacher and student input regarding school matters and policies (Dwyer, 1984; Hall et al., 1984; Miller, 1981). The studies suggested that these principals were able to strike a balance between consensus building and decisiveness (Lezotte, 1982a; Campbell, 1984).

What emerged from the research was a description of an effective principal who was assertive, decisive, supportive, and talented as a consensus builder within the

school. Researchers described effective schools as having staffs that held to strongly shared values as to the operation of the school (Cohen, 1981; Austin, 1979). Staff collegiality has emerged as an effective school factor of ever increased importance (Koehler, 1982; MacPhail-Wilcox & Guth, 1983b; Sapone, 1983). In fact, Cohen (1981) cautioned principals when he stated, " . . . the principal's leadership will be considered to be legitimate only as long as the principal selects a direction consistent with the consensus among the staff regarding where they would like to be led" (p. 49).

Even though the excellent school is focused on clearly stated academic goals and accountability, the principal of such a school tended to seek autonomy for the school and emphasized internal growth and experimentation. Not infrequently, the high performing school in a district was considered a "maverick" because its principal avoided external controls (Manasse, 1984). The principals of effective schools were often "boat rockers" and were willing to take on the necessary conflicts if there was a benefit for their school (Stiegelbauer, 1984; Campbell, 1984; Huberman, 1983). Effective principals demanded resources, took the initiative concerning staff nominations and tested the limits of allowable variation in the instructional program (Campbell, 1984).

Parish & Aquila (1983) cautioned the principal to become aware of four sets of interactive relationships that are necessary and needed to be understood before change can be successfully implemented. First, they urged the principal to "know the territory." "To know your organizational history and to understand your organizational culture is to begin to know how to change that culture" (p. 34). The second relationship centered on the fact that change is largely a political process and a school, generally being part of a loosely coupled system, usually established its own standards and practices. "An informal covenant exists between teachers and principals in relation to implementing new programs; these informal agreements about roles are the glue that holds loosely coupled systems together" (p. 35).

Parish & Aquila's third point was for the principal, seeking school change, to choose a program to fit the school rather than to attempt to replicate something for which the staff had no readiness or acceptance. The final factor was to acquire resource and personnel support. If a new program was to be successfully implemented, necessary materials, consultant help and positive principal visibility were essential. Principals were expected to be "center stage" and remain there (Huberman, 1983). In summary, if a principal intended to move the

school towards effectiveness, the key tasks were to find and develop a practice that fit, get it adopted by the staff, provide technical and system support, and establish it politically in the budget and staff development activities (Huberman, 1983; Parish & Aquila, 1983; Cuban, 1983).

Goodlad (1979) urged effective school researchers to focus on the individual school; believing it to be the only unit in education that dealt directly with clients and that it was the unit in education to which parents could effectively relate. Goodlad's (1979) research indicated that effective schools had developed a "healthy supportive infrastructure" (p. 84). The principal had the responsibility to develop parent support and use this support as a power base to secure for the school needed resources (Curran, 1983; Austin, 1979). Effective school principals worked hard to make their schools an integral part of their community and in the process developed valuable resources and security (Comer, 1980; Dwyer, 1984). "Excellence in education can be achieved only when a community values education as a precious goal and has the power and resources to manage its own school" (Gentry et al., 1972).

PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR

Researchers have not found any single formula for

successful instructional leadership (Dwyer, 1983). Evidence has mounted that effective leadership and its affect on student achievement cannot be explained outside context or specific situation (Miller, 1981; Austin, 1979). There appeared to be a diversity of leadership style that had resulted in instructional excellence (DeBevoise, 1984). Rather than seek a prescription for principal behavior, researchers needed to understand how different styles and personalities interacted with specific contexts (DeBevoise, 1984; Hall et al., 1984).

The extensive research of Gene Hall and his associates identified three change facilitator styles--Initiator, Manager and Responder. Initiators maintained an active participation in all aspects of the school program, from curriculum and teaching to budgeting and scheduling. They retained final decision-making authority in the school. Managers made decisions in areas affecting the entire school, leaving teachers with a great deal of classroom autonomy. These principals tended to identify with district administration rather than with their own faculties. Responders thought of themselves as colleagues of the faculty. They perceived their primary role to be supporting teachers in their work. One way of doing this was by involving teachers in the decision-making process (Hall et al., 1984).

Hall and his associates matched each of these three facilitator styles with a set of descriptive behaviors (Appendix C). Their findings clearly documented that, in terms of successful program implementation, "there was more quality and quantity in schools with Initiator style principals" (p. 26). Because a principal's style was so closely tied to personality and history, change would be difficult. However, individual behaviors could be changed and this should be the focus of school district administrator in-service training programs (Hall et al., 1983; Walter, 1981; Dwyer, 1984).

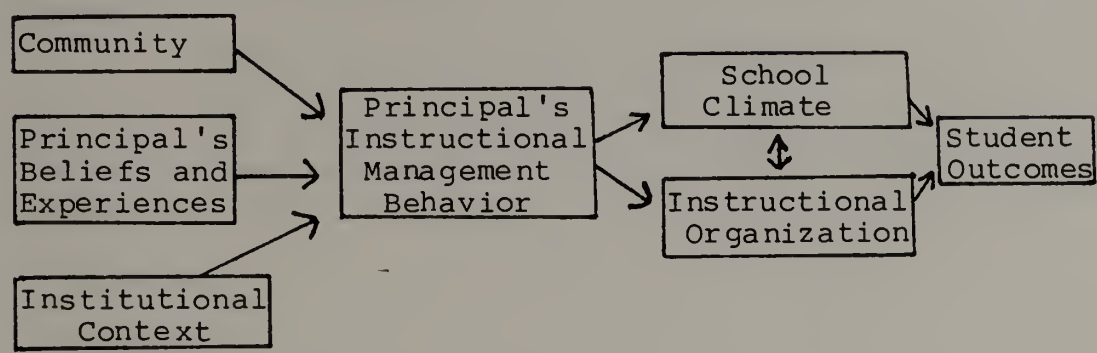
In a related study, Stiegelbauer (1984, pp. 9-11) grouped principals' facilitating behavior into seven categories:

1. Visions and goal setting.
2. Structuring the school as a workplace.
3. Managing change.
4. Collaborating and delegating.
5. Decision making.
6. Guiding and supporting
7. Structuring their leadership.

Campbell (1984) urged that more attention be given by Boards of Education in the selection of principals. He discounted length of teaching experience as a prime factor in the selection process and urged that more weight be

given to factors such as: intelligence, mental stability, high energy level, interpersonal skills, political acumen, and willingness to take risks. "The trick is to identify such persons in the organization, encourage them to do appropriate advanced training and constitute the group of them as the pool from which principals are selected" (Campbell, 1984, p. 3).

Dwyer's (1984) research pointed out how important it was to select a principal for a particular school based on necessary job requirements, personality and experiences and that these factors be contextually compatable. Dwyer (1984, p. 34) proposed the following model for viewing principal effectiveness:



The interacting of community factors, the principal's beliefs and experiences and the school's context are what influences the principal's management style. What results are patterns of the principal's behavior which directly influences the climate of the school and the way the institution is organized for instructional purposes.

School climate and instructional organization of the school have a direct bearing on student performance.

This proposed model assumed that there would be reciprocal and interactive relationships in the school rather than one directional one. Researchers urged that these relationships be the focal point for principal selection and the in-service training of existing administrators (Parish & Aquila, 1983; DeBevoise, 1984; Miller, 1981; Dwyer, 1984).

Gersten & Carnine (1981) identified six administrative and support functions essential to instructional improvement and in which principals needed extensive training:

1. Implement programs of known effectiveness or active involvement in curriculum improvement.
2. Monitor student performance.
3. Monitor teacher performance.
4. Provide technical assistance to teachers.
5. Demonstrate visible commitment to programs for instructional improvement.
6. Provide emotional support and incentives for teachers.

While these functions could be performed by others in the school besides the principal, and often were in large schools, researchers overwhelmingly supported the proposition that leadership by the principal is necessary

for school success and effectiveness (Curran, 1983; Dwyer, 1984; Sapone, 1983). Lezotte (1982a) summarized this research with the position that change is a process and not an event and "successful staff development programs designed to bring about school improvement must involve the principal as instructional leader" (p. 14).

Goodlad (1983) wrote of the "critical mass" needed for "competent schooling" and his work focused on the technical, human and educational forces of leadership. Sergiovanni (1984) pointed out that "recent studies of excellence in organizations suggest that despite the link between these three aspects of leadership and competence in schooling, their presence does not guarantee excellence" (p. 7). He went on to state that excellent organizations are also characterized by two other leadership qualities he described as "symbolic and cultural."

Principals promote an effective school climate by announcing, modeling or sanctioning precisely those practices that are central to the defined goals of the school (Kelley, 1980; Walter, 1981). The principal stated expectations for teachers' performance that favored collegial, analytical and experimental work (Gersten & Carnine, 1981). Research clearly indicated that the implementation of changes towards the goal of improved

school effectiveness required the commitment of the principal to those changes and the establishment of three support systems:

1. Teachers received specific training.
2. An education model designed to be successful with difficult-to-teach students.
3. A system for monitoring student and teacher performance (Gersten & Carnine, 1981; DeBevoise, 1984).

At schools where the principal actively supported a change model, there tended to be less variance among teachers in their levels of implementation and a higher likelihood that the innovation would last (Gersten & Carnine, 1981; Finn, 1984).

The use of clinical supervision by principals trained in this supervisory method enabled them to influence teachers' classroom behavior and to perform this vital monitoring function (Murphy et al., 1982). The work of Snyder (1983) demonstrated that "clinical supervision is a development technology for improving actual teaching and learning. Few coaches would sit in their offices while the team is practicing or playing the game itself. One of the most embarrassing explanations for the current poor reputation of schools, and the presumed failure of many excellent innovations, is that teachers have not had adequate, well-informed, and direct supervision to help

them understand and implement new practices. Principals need to learn the teacher-coaching skills of conferencing, observation, data collection, and data analysis in order to provide periodic feedback and correctives to teachers and teams on their performance" (p. 34).

CLINICAL SUPERVISION DESCRIPTION

In preparation for performing the teacher monitoring function, many school systems have offered their principals training in the techniques of clinical supervision and this is the third major research topic upon which this paper is focused. Dr. Morris Cogan chose the name clinical supervision because it differentiated between other methods of supervision and his own. To Cogan it was a label to denote and connote the salient operative and empirical aspects of supervision in the classroom (Mattaliano, 1977). Clinical supervision has to do with the face-to-face relationship of teacher and supervisor (Goldhammer et al., 1980). It was designed as an interactive personal contact between teacher and supervisor in which both were to be enhanced by the meeting. It represented an analysis of teaching by both parties after observation, with the analysis carried on at levels the teacher considered appropriate (Moore and Mattaliano, 1970). Sullivan (1980) described clinical supervision as a specific supervisory approach capable of

serving as a method of educational improvement.

The purpose, and therefore the expected benefits, of clinical supervision were improvement of instruction and development of the teacher (Sullivan, 1980; Goldhammer et al., 1980). This help to the teacher would take three possible forms:

1. Help the teacher to expand personal perceptions in order to identify strengths and weaknesses.

2. Help the teacher to view scientifically his/her own teaching so that teaching behaviors are synchronized with intent.

3. Help the teacher solve classroom problems that he/she wanted to solve (Moore and Mattaliano, 1970).

Cogan's clinical supervision model contains eight phases which he referred to as <u>cycles of supervision</u> (Cogan, 1973, pp. 10-12).

Phase 1 - Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship.

Phase 2 - Planning with the teacher.

Phase 3 - Planning the strategy of observation.

Phase 4 - Observing instruction.

Phase 5 - Analyzing the teaching-learning processes.

Phase 6 - Planning the strategy of the conference.

Phase 7 - The conference.

Phase 8 - Renewed planning.

TEACHER/SUPERVISOR RELATIONSHIPS IN CLINICAL SUPERVISION

The eight phases of the clinical supervision cycle have been fashioned to render support for the trusting, non-threatening teacher/supervisor relationship--the heart of clinical supervision. This supportive relationship would be built on mutual trust in order to facilitate meaningful, positive instructional change (Acheson & Gall, 1980). "The non-threatening teacher/supervisor relationship, the understanding of ground rules, roles and functions of the supervisory relationship by both teacher and supervisor, and a shared responsibility for the success of the supervision were also viewed as conducive to behavioral change" (Cogan, 1973, p.70).

As the supervisor/teacher relationship deepened, it would become less superior/subordinate and more collegial in nature. Sullivan quoted Squires in a 1978 study reporting that among numerous positive aspects of the supervisor/supervisee relationship, "the supervisee becomes more autonomous and the relationship comes to resemble that of colleagues" (Sullivan, 1980, p.2). "Interaction between and among teaching colleagues is not, per se, supervision, but when teachers exchange ideas regarding promising practices, when they seek out one another for counsel on an instructional problem, or when they simply provide enouragement after a particularly

tough day, the major function of instructional supervision, to improve instruction, is being served" (Sergiovanni, 1982, p.99).

Cogan emphasized this collegial nature of clinical supervision as did Mattaliano's study. "As the degree of collegiality increases, more and more sensitive matters can be dealt with and a more highly productive mutual support partnership may be developed" (Cogan, 1973, p.16). "By developing collaborative networks among teachers, schools can enrich their educational climate and provide classroom teachers with a potentially powerful vehicle for instructional improvement" (Sergiovanni, 1982, p.99).

Little (1982) reported four crucial kinds of interactions that were observable in the classroom.

1. Discussion of classroom practices.
2. Mutual observation and critique.
3. Shared efforts to design and prepare curriculum.
4. Shared participation in the business of instructional improvement.

She went on to state that these four practices clearly distinguished the more successful from the less successful schools. Her studies supported the work of others in the field of clinical supervision when she stated that collegial experimentation is a way of life in the successful schools that she had observed; it pervaded

the school. In these schools teachers talked about teaching daily and acted as colleagues on a continual basis (Little, 1982; Goldhammer et al., 1980). There was a steady stream of "practical" talk focused on their practices, their aims, materials and results.

Self respect and a collegial atmosphere was maintained because teachers in these successful schools focused on practices and their consequences rather than on persons involved. In successful schools, interaction about teaching tended to include the major portion of the faculty. There was a high degree of reciprocity and an obvious respect for the opinions and professionalism of colleagues. Little went on to add that in schools with a high degree of collegiality, the teachers viewed the principal as an active endorser and a participant in the collegial work (Little, 1982; Crandall, 1983).

Finally, the role of colleague was not easily nor casually assumed. People who are involved in this process must actively work towards building a positive, support relationship. Trust came as a developmental matter. It appeared from the findings of Cogan and others in this field of clinical supervision, that the potential results for many people in education in utilizing this tool could be beneficial (Cogan, 1973; Acheson & Gall, 1980; Sergiovanni, 1982).

SUPERVISION/EVALUATION CONFLICT

Most teachers disliked traditional supervision and did not find it particularly helpful (Blumberg, 1974). Much of this kind of supervision arose from a need of the supervisor, rather than a felt need of the teacher. It was a negative experience and causes the teacher to avoid contact with the supervisor (Acheson and Gall, 1980; MacPhail-Wilcox and Guth, 1983b). Traditional supervision took on the form of inspection, judgement and a superior/subordinate relationship, with the supervision criteria generally being selected by the supervisor. Teaching and learning were not advanced by this process (Cogan, 1973; Squires, 1980; Lorell and Wiles, 1983).

Clinical supervision seemed to hold out a promise of a better process (Sullivan, 1980; Little, 1982; Mattaliano, 1977). However, several writers believed that the principal does not have sufficient time and/or expertise to perform both the building management and the program supervision functions and call for a specially-trained cadre of supervisors (Cogan, 1973; Goodlad, 1984).

The majority opinion expressed in literature is that clinical supervision in the hands of a trained supervisor can bridge these two roles. The data-gathering and feedback sessions that were part of clinical supervision

can also be used to share evaluative information. Since the teacher shared in the criteria selection, blending evaluations into a portion of the process can be accomplished in a non-threatening and productive fashion (Acheson and Gall, 1980; DeBevoise, 1984).

SUMMARY

The review of literature has focused on the need for improvement in student achievement in the nation's schools and the key role that the school principal must play in uniting and leading a school's faculty and local community. The literature pointed out a need for positive staff supervision and a function that clinical supervision could serve. This literature provided the material for the 15 points in the attached instrument (Appendix D).

The next two chapters of this paper will discuss in detail the implementation of the clinical supervision in-service training program that was experienced by the principals and other administrators in the three school systems involved in this study. These chapters will also display the results of the opinionnaire.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION IN-SERVICE EXPERIENCES

INTRODUCTION

The administrators from all three school systems that were part of this study experienced similar in-service training in the techniques of clinical supervision and with the same instructor. The materials used and format followed were identical. In the three systems all districtwide supervisors and principals were involved in the training.

The central office and building administrators in all three districts related two primary reasons why their districts went to an extensive clinical supervision in-service effort. The first was a dissatisfaction with their districts' current supervision/evaluation program and practices. In all three districts, the administrators reported that teachers resented the current evaluation process, participated reluctantly, and that the present evaluation/supervision processes had brought about no discernible instructional improvements. There was an expressed need for identifying a more effective and positive supervision/evaluation plan.

Secondly, the districts were experiencing a low turnover in the teaching staffs and had come to the

realization that changes would not be coming about via the infusion of "new blood" but rather would have to be made through working with existing staff members. In all three situations, the faculty tended to have considerable experience and length of service in the particular districts. Collectively, the three school systems had one thousand and sixty-five (1,065) teachers and over the last three years had experienced a total of sixty-four (64) replacements or new positions. This is an annual turnover rate of twenty-one (21) teachers per year or slightly in excess of two percent of total staff. The central office administrators in charge of personnel held the opinion that this low turnover rate would not increase appreciably in the near future.

Added to this low turnover rate was the information that the average teacher age was approximately forty-three (43) years and that the average teacher had fifteen (15) years teaching experience, thirteen (13) of which had been in the current district. These personnel statistics substantiated the central administrators' position that the districts had an experienced, entrenched staff and that, if changes were to occur, they would have to be accomplished by working with the existing faculty. The administrations saw clinical supervision as the vehicle for making these changes and sought to employ a consultant

to work with the administrators in giving them the necessary skills to implement and administer a clinical supervision program.

The instructor studied at Harvard with Morris Cogan and the training relied heavily on his eight (8) point cycle of supervision model (Cogan, 1973). This instructor had personally conducted over one thousand cycles and served for many years as a public school teacher and later a middle school principal. His doctoral dissertation had been in the area of clinical supervision. He was also recognized as a person possessing the necessary human relation skills needed in bringing this supervision concept to these groups of experienced and somewhat skeptical administrators. Discussions with central office administrators and an analysis of postsession evaluations clearly indicated that the instructor had gained acceptance and credibility with the groups.

The size of each group was limited to twenty members and these were regrouped into four teams of five persons each. The total group of twenty had one (two and one-half hour) plenary session. This introductory session had four distinct phases.

FORMAT OF THE TRAINING SESSIONS

The first part of the session was spent in defining: administration, supervision and evaluation. The

definitions used were not unlike those found in Chapter I of this paper. To summarize this first part of the training session, the instructor got the group to accept that evaluation was "judgment," supervision was "help" and administrators had the responsibility for both. The supervision responsibility could be shared with trained staff (teachers) in a collegial framework.

The second phase of this initial meeting was devoted to the development of a theoretical base for clinical supervision. This theoretical base made three assumptions:

1. The primary goal of supervision was to improve instruction.
2. Teaching was patterned and characterized by regularity.
3. A teacher's perceptions and how he/she felt affected what he/she did with pupils.

The instructor drew heavily on the writings of McGregor (1960), Maslow (1968) and Herzberg (1973) to give the above assumption a psychological foundation. Emphasis was placed on Maslow's (1968) concept of hierarchy and its basic premise that a person's behavior was dominated by basic needs which must be fulfilled before moving up the hierarchy. Beginning with the highest level, these needs were:

1. Self-Fulfillment - creativity, self-realization.

2. Ego - self-esteem, recognition and status.

3. Social - belonging - association and acceptance by social groups.

4. Safety - protection against danger, threat and deprivation.

5. Physiological - food, shelter.

It was also pointed out that a need satisfied was no longer a motivator of behavior.

The work of Herzberg (1968) was more geared to the workplace. Two of his theories were discussed in detail:

1. Lack of pain was not the presence of pleasure and every working person knew it.

2. Business was the dominant institution of modern times and was doing great harm by misconstruing the nature of man.

Herzberg (1968) said that there were only five motivations that caused a person to perform in a superior fashion--achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. All other factors, such as salary, supervision, working conditions, job security, and interpersonal relations, could lead to dissatisfaction if not provided but were not motivators.

This first phase of the plenary session ended with a review of McGregor's (1960) Leadership Style Theory (X vs. Y).

These contrasting characteristics were:

THEORY X	THEORY Y
Man is an animal.	Man is a self-fulfilling human.
Man is inherently evil.	Man is inherently good.
Instinct drives man.	Humanism drives man.
Coercion motivates man. man.	Cooperation motivates
Competition is man's natural state.	Cooperation is man's natural state.
The individual is most important.	The group is most important.
Pessimism is pervasive.	Optimism is pervasive.
Work is inherently distasteful.	Work is intrinsically rewarding.
Man prefers to be directed.	Creativity and ingenuity are widespread.
Man avoids responsibility.	Man can handle responsibility.

McGregor's theory was that a person's leadership behavior was on a continuum from X to Y but tended towards one or the other. The group was left with the question as to which theory would be more conducive to helping teachers improve instruction. The instructor effectively linked the theories of these three researchers into a discussion of the teacher-supervisor relationship and the unique place clinical supervision could have in this relationship.

The third phase went further into the teacher-supervisor relationship and stressed three principles of supervision:

1. It was imperative that a trusting and non-threatening relationship develop.

2. It was equally important that the teacher at all times be accorded dignity.

3. In this relationship there should be an absence of negative judgements.

These principles of clinical supervision were tied into the Maslow, Herzberg and McGregor theories and also related back to the basic assumption of education.

The final phase of this initial training had to do with a detailed discussion of the clinical supervision cycle and their functions. This took the following format:

A. Pre-Observation Conference:
finding out objectives, strategies; offering assistance; learning about the students; checking the teacher's condition.

B. Observation:
take data; look for patterns of teacher and pupil behavior; bring back the data the teacher asked for in pre-observation conference; categories.

C. Strategy Session:
sort and arrange data for the supervisory conference; ask 1) what is the teacher's structure?, 2) how well does he/she understand his/her own structure?, and 3) what can be added or replaced easily toward gradual change?; keep in mind that analysis is shaped by 1) the teacher's perception, 2) the teacher's experience, and 3) the life history of the supervisor.

D. Supervisory Conference:
read patterns for the teacher's analysis; delineate specific strengths; raise one or two "growth issues"; ask questions in a no-clue way; use terms such as "let me read you a few things you said"; stay away from general impressions, be specific; questioning but not inquisition; pick up on the teacher's comments in a conversational way; weave issues, strengths and weaknesses; leave the teacher with a good self-image.

E. Post-Cycle Conference:
treat the supervisor as sensitively as the teacher was treated; use the teacher as a prime resource for the analysis of the supervisor's performance; leave the supervisor with a good self-image.

The total group did not convene again. They did, however, complete evaluation instruments after the entire training was completed.

THE TRAINING CYCLE

All other meetings with the instructor were in the schools with the trainees actively participating in cycles. All trainees were urged to lead at least one training cycle and most did. Administrators were responsible for securing a volunteer teacher to participate. This was not difficult to accomplish and all teachers reported that they felt good about the experience (this was part of the follow-up evaluation).

The schedule for the supervision training cycle for all three school systems were patterned as follows:

SUPERVISION TEAM		TEACHER
AM Cycle		
9:00 - 9:10	Pre-Obs Conf	9:00 - 9:10
9:15 - 9:45	Observation of Lesson . .	9:15 - 9:45
9:45 - 10:15	Strategy Session	
10:15 - 10:40	Supervisory Conf	10:15 - 10:40
10:40 - 10:50	Post Cycle Conf	10:40 - 10:50
PM Cycle		
12:45 - 12:55	Pre-Obs Conf	12:45 - 12:55
1:00 - 1:30	Observation of Lesson . .	1:00 - 1:30
1:30 - 2:00	Strategy Session	
2:00 - 2:25	Supervisory Conf	2:00 - 2:25
2:25 - 2:35	Post Cycle Conf	2:25 - 2:35

Throughout the plenary meeting and the supervision cycles great attention was given to practicing skills related to the gathering, organizing and feedback of data. These understandings and abilities, according to participants, were crucial to the effectiveness of this supervisory experience.

DESCRIPTION OF THREE ACTUAL CYCLES

There was a concern expressed by the administrators from all three districts as they actually began doing cycles of supervision that they did not possess content expertise. A typical question raised by an administrator would be "Prior to assuming a principalship, all my teaching expertise was in English and language arts. How could I hope to supervise teachers in the sciences and special areas (industrial arts, physical education, music)?" After going through several cycles, the administrators realized that the clinical supervision

model had a three-part focus--teacher behavior, student behavior and content. Because these administrators averaged over seventeen (17) years in administrative experience and many more years of teaching experience, they had abundant backgrounds to be comfortable and confident in talking to teachers concerning student behavior and teacher behavior.

Through experience, they gained confidence working in the various content areas because the clinical supervision format gave the supervisor a very practical focus on classroom practices, teacher aims, classroom materials to be used in the lesson, and expected results. These supervisory cycles also brought to these administrators the realization that teaching students to learn was the essential factor of the classroom experience and that effective teachers used content as a vehicle to this goal. These teachers did not focus on coverage but rather on exploration, inquiry, debate and the examination of values (Duke, 1985).

Through the pre-observation conference with the teacher, the supervisor could get a good understanding as to the content that would be covered in the lesson. The six step pre-observation conference guidelines that appear at the end of this chapter greatly assisted the supervisor in understanding all three aspects of the lesson.

The supervisors took a great number of notes during the classroom observation phase and the 34 observation focuses that appear at the end of this chapter were meant to assist the supervisor in looking for and noting specific behaviors. Administrators were urged to lead cycles outside their areas of expertise. The next portion of this chapter will describe three such cycles that were actually experienced by administrators who participated in this study.

CYCLE I

This was an 8th and 9th grade industrial arts electronics lesson supervised by a science person. The pre-observation conference revealed that the teacher planned an electronics lesson exploring the origins of electricity, how to control it, the dangers in working with electricity, safety techniques, and then linking this broad exploratory unit with the field of electronics. The teacher discussed the copper wiring, batteries and other materials to be used by him in demonstrations with the students. The supervisor and five other members of the cycle team spent the entire 45 minutes in the classroom and took a considerable amount of data.

They met after the lesson and organized the information gathered and decided what to share with the teacher during the post-observation conference. Because

clinical supervision builds on successes and strengths, the committee decided to start with comments concerning strong voice, good entry of material, clear definitions and explanations, good use of blackboard and demonstration materials, good direction to the pupils in the taking of notes, and good response to pupil questions. Other factors to be shared would be the teacher's positive approach to students as they worked their way through questions. The teacher was a fine male role model. He had good control of the class and used humor in a natural manner. He complimented students for honest efforts and at no time was a student embarrassed for not completely answering questions.

Growth issues that the committee hoped to lead the teacher into discovering would be the repetitive use of the phrase "okay" and a pattern of questioning students with the often used opening phrase "Did you realize..." The teacher had a natural talent for asking open-ended questions and the team members felt this could be explored with the teacher to determine as to what degree this was planned.

CYCLE II

This was a high school art lesson in metalsmithing supervised by a guidance director. In the pre-observation conference the teacher revealed that the pupils would be

working on individual projects and that his primary concern was the wide range of ability within the student group and a concern in getting several of the students to accomplish more on their projects during the class period. There was no formal lesson or presentation on the part of the teacher. He acted solely as a resource person during this lesson.

Strengths that the supervisor chose to bring to the teacher in the post-observation conference started with his demonstrated patience with students, the informal atmosphere that existed in his classroom and the obvious creativity that he nurtured and supported with the students. It was obvious that the students enjoyed what they were doing and responded to the teacher's treatment of them as individuals. The students appeared respectful of equipment and materials and seemed to demonstrate an underlying economy as it related to time and materials. There was a good human mixture within the students of this class and they related well with each other and the teacher. One example that was noted was when a student came up to the teacher with an unfinished goblet. The teacher said something positive about her progress, gave a directive when he told her to solder the base to the stem, but then turned the matter back to the pupil with a question by asking her how she intended to shape and

design the top. The teacher demonstrated a good mixture of directness and motivation without hampering creativity and pupil initiative.

There were several other examples during the period where the teacher fostered creativity and helped pupils determine options in their work. He asked questions such as: "Have you considered taping both ends?" "Is there an easier way of doing this?" Does anyone have anything to add in recommendations for this project?" Throughout this whole lesson the teacher was relaxed, had good eye contact with students, was always positive in his comments, and demonstrated exceptionally good humor. The few times he demonstrated parts of a technique for students it was obvious that he was a skilled craftsman.

The committee had only a few growth issues to place before the teacher. The first dealt with several instances where observers felt that the students were getting misleading guidance or the teacher was giving some students too much latitude and perhaps they could benefit from a more structured setting. The teacher felt that it was his job to pose variables and stated he did not notice that a few students had difficulty in determining the best method out of what variables he was posing. Because of the wide variety of abilities in the class, this would be

an issue that would have to be addressed by a supervisor over quite a length of time.

CYCLE III

This was a 9th grade earth science lesson supervised by a music person. In the pre-observation conference the teacher revealed that this lesson dealt with a discussion of cumulus cloud formations and related subtopics--cloud ceilings, charting of clouds, dew point, etc. The class had already had a unit on water cycles, condensation and precipitation. It was also determined that this was a general class and had a rather wide ability range. The committee focused on the teacher's intellectual honesty that was evident throughout the lesson and in the manner in which he presented the material and asked questions. Questions were asked so that they gave no hint as to the answer. For example, during the review of homework, he would ask students: "Did you have any problem with it?" "How did you do?" "How many got this answer?" On one question students were reluctant to answer and finally Lisa volunteered an incorrect answer. The teacher congratulated her on having enough courage to make a response.

He had students go to a cloud formation chart and respond to specific questions. He encouraged them to write answers or work through the questions using either

pencil and paper or the chalk board. At no time did he give clues to the answers. One time he encouraged a student by saying, "I am not sure you got the whole answer--keep going--keep writing, you're getting it." Often he would ask one student if he/she agreed with the response of another. There was good dialogue teacher to student and student to student. While he didn't use praise frequently, he did use it appropriately. Several times he did respond, "Excellent.", "Good.", "I am impressed."

The teacher displayed good commmunication skills. The questions that he used not only helped the pupils to recall facts but also assisted them to hypothesize and evaluate data. The teacher exhibited a good sense of humor, took extra precautions not to damage pupil self-image, and did an excellent job in motivating the students.

Growth issues to be worked on with the teacher concerned three behavior patterns he exhibited during the lesson. He used phrases such as: "Pay attention.", "You had better pay attention.", "Let's pay attention." frequently throughout the lesson. He used the first person often--"I want you to learn this.", "I want you to write this in your notebook.", "I want you to remember this." A third and very minor one was that he often

called students by their last name, especially male students. Sometimes it was "Johnson" and sometimes it was "Mr. Bayer." The supervisor would be working with this teacher in trying to modify some of these behavior patterns because they tended to detract from the lesson's effectiveness.

SUMMARY

Each administrator experienced at least five cycles as a part of a team and led at least one. The concern about lack of content diminished. The pre- and post-conferences played an important role in familiarizing the supervisor with the content of that particular lesson. Questions asked of the teacher gave the supervisor very specific insights as to content, lesson objectives and expected pupil achievements. In no situation did a supervisor report that lack of content experience prevented them from understanding the lesson, assessing effectiveness and giving appropriate feedback. The supervisors had sufficient experience in the process to perceive that, as collegiality deepened, an informal contract developed between teacher and supervisor.

The last two pages are reproductions of the instructor's handouts designed to assist the trainees with data and also observation and conference techniques. It was these administrators, from these three school systems

that were the respondees to the fifteen-item opinionnaire that produced the data displayed in the next chapter.

CONFERENCING SKILLS GUIDE SUPERVISOR'S INSTRUCTIONS

PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

The supervisor's responsibilities:	You can say it this way:
A. TEACHER'S OBJECTIVES Find out what the teacher's objectives are for today's lesson, [content goals; process goals; set a contract; get down to business.]	"What are your objectives for today's lesson?"
B. TEACHER'S STRATEGIES Find out how the teacher intends to reach today's objectives (as specified in A above. [What is the teacher going to do?; Why?]	"How are you going to reach your objectives?"
C. PREVIOUS INSTRUCTION Find out if today's lesson is built upon previous lessons. If it is, find out how.	"Has previous work with these pupils been preparation for today's lesson?"
D. TEACHER'S ANTICIPATION Find out what strengths and weaknesses the teacher anticipates in today's lesson.	"What do you think will happen today?"
E. AREAS OF TEACHER CONCERN Find out if there are any aspects of the lesson the teacher would like you to gather data on. [a certain part of the lesson?; certain pupils?; behavior?]	"Would you like data gathered on any particular aspect of the lesson?
F. TEACHER'S EVALUATIVE TECHNIQUES Find out how the teacher intends to evaluate what and and how much was accomplished during the lesson.	"How are you going to evaluate how successful today's lesson is?"

SOME THINGS I LOOK FOR:

1. Rewards for ...?
2. Size of Plan
3. Pupil Responsibility
4. Teacher Direction
5. Motivation
6. Inquiry
7. Discovery
8. Digression
9. Teacher Anticipation and Understanding of Pupil Reactions
10. Use made of Pupil Contributions, Suggestions
11. Structure of the Lesson
12. Pupil Inactivity (Physical and Mental)
13. Techniques of Summary and Transition
14. Shaping Techniques Toward What Attitudes?
15. Behavioral Skills being practiced
16. Differences and Similarities between what the Teacher Intends to Communicate and what the pupils learn
17. Divergent Thinking encouraged?
18. Strategies suited to Objectives?
19. Objectives related?
20. Closure
21. Is the Teacher's dominant tone assertion or inquiry?
22. Pupils practicing Self-Evaluation?
23. Productive Behaviors
24. Correspondence of Teacher and Pupil Objectives
25. Teacher's Inclusive Behaviors
26. Organization of Tasks
27. Teacher's Methods of Evaluating Pupil Progress
28. Responses to Pupils' Communicative Behavior
29. Dependence vs Independence
30. Self-Concept raised or lowered?
31. Lesson carried on at whose perceptive level?
32. Use of Language, Blackboard
33. Control
34. Anxiety

etc. . . . . .

Make your own list!

CHAPTER IV

DATA FROM THE CLINICAL SUPERVISION OPINIONNAIRE

INTRODUCTION

This instrument was submitted to forty-five (45) principals and districtwide supervisors in three Connecticut public school systems and thirty-nine (39) responses were received. All of the responders reacted to all fifteen (15) statements and, with one omission, all completed the job and experience-related sections. Almost sixty (60) percent of the remark sections of the instrument were completed.

The data from all fifteen (15) statements is displayed in four identical bar graphs for each question and there is a composite set of four graphs portraying the responses taken in total.

SUBGROUPS

All graphs bearing the number one display the replies of all thirty-nine (39) responders and throughout the study are referred to as the Total Group.

All graphs numbered two compare the Total Group response with two subgroups divided by when they received the clinical supervision training. Approximately forty-four (44) percent of the responders (Earlier Group) took the training during the 1982-83 school year and the others (Later Group) had the identical experience in

1983-84. Because all the members of the Earlier Group came from the same school system and the Later Group composition was from the other two systems involved in this study, it was not possible to factor this data to account for group composition and school system-related factors.

The purpose of including this factor in the study was to get an impression of the durability of this clinical supervision training. The Earlier Group took the training a year before the Later Group and two years have elapsed from the time the Earlier Group had the training experience and the time the survey was taken.

The third set of graphs focus on the grade level at which the responders work. The purpose of this data was to ascertain if there were noticable differences between secondary and elementary administrators' responses. The Total Group is almost evenly divided between these two subgroups. Because there were so few central office supervisor replies, and this was a subgroup listed on the instrument, these responses were counted with the secondary group.

The thirty-nine (39) responders had a range of administrative experience from one year to over twenty-eight (28). The average number of years of administrative experience was approximately fourteen (14).

The graphs numbered four display experience in three subgroups: eight (8) years or less, nine (9) to fifteen (15) years, and sixteen (16) years and over. These graphs compare all three subgroups with each other and with the Total Group.

The five possible responses offered in the opinionnaire were defined as follows:

A - Strongly Agree

B - Agree

C - No Opinion

D - Disagree

E - Strongly Disagree

GENERAL FINDINGS

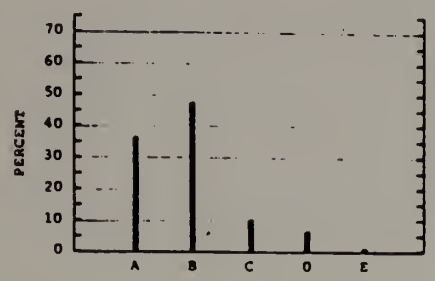
The next page (Entire Opinionnaire) displays responses for the Total Group in graphic form and gives a numerical accounting for the Total Group and for the various subgroups. The page following presents the same data for the Total Group and all subgroups in percentage terms for each of the fifteen (15) statements. The column marked "A" is the percentage in agreement and is the sum of A and B responses. The "D" group are in disagreement and represented the sum of D and E replies.

ENTIRE OPINIONNAIRE

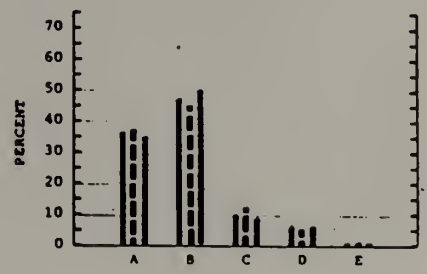
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	585	211	276	60	33	5
Earlier Group	255	121	112	9	11	2
Later Group	330	90	164	51	22	3
Elementary	300	112	134	36	16	2
Secondary	285	99	142	24	17	3
8 Years Experience or Less	135	40	75	9	11	0
9-15 Years Experience	225	73	108	27	15	2
16+ Years Experience	195	87	79	21	7	1

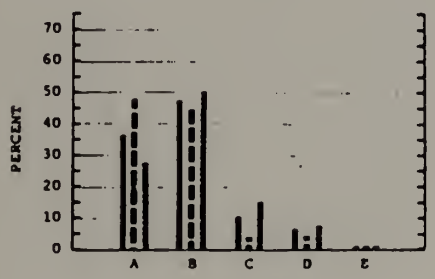
1. TOTAL GROUP



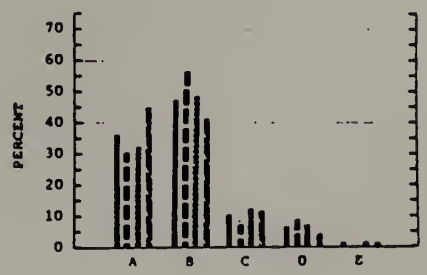
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



RESPONSES FOR THE FIFTEEN STATEMENTS
IN PERCENTAGE TERMS

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
EARLIER	A	94	100	94	100	94	100	100	88	88	94	82	94	88	94	53
GROUP	D	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	6	12	6	0	0	41
LATER	A	69	82	95	100	91	73	77	86	68	59	59	86	68	91	50
GROUP	D	14	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	9	23	9	5	14	5	32
ELEM.	A	85	90	95	100	90	80	80	80	75	65	70	95	75	90	50
GROUP	D	5	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	5	15	5	5	5	5	40
SEC.	A	74	89	95	100	95	89	95	84	79	84	68	84	79	100	53
GROUP	D	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	16	16	5	11	0	32
8 YRS.	A	67	89	100	100	89	89	89	89	67	89	89	100	67	100	56
& LESS	D	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	11	11	0	11	0	44
9 - 15	A	73	87	93	100	87	73	80	93	73	53	67	93	80	93	60
YEARS	D	7	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	7	20	7	7	7	7	40
16 +	A	92	92	92	100	100	100	92	85	85	85	62	77	80	92	38
YEARS	D	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	8	8	0	0	31
TOTAL	A	80	90	95	100	92	85	87	87	77	74	70	90	77	95	51
GROUP	D	8	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	10	15	10	5	5	3	36

The first very evident observation to be noted would be the overall high percentage of position answers. From a total of 585 responses, 487 were in agreement (eighty-three percent) and there were just thirty-eight (38) negative replies (less than seven percent). For six (6) of the fifteen (15) statements, there were no negative replies and all of the statements in all subgroups had more positive than negative responses. In general, the administrators involved in this study retained a positive attitude towards clinical supervision.

Secondly, there was little overall deviation from the Total Group responses by the subgroups. Listed by subgroups in percentage terms, the replies were as follows:

	AGREE	DISAGREE
Total Group	83	7
Earlier Group	91	5
Later Group	77	8
Elementary Group	82	6
Secondary Group	85	7
8 Years Experience or Less	85	8
9 - 15 Years Experience	80	8
16 Years Experience & Over	85	4

In all but one subgroup, the percent of positive responses was eighty (80) or higher and no subgroup had an

overall negative reply rate greater than eight (8) percent. When considering a composite display of responses for all fifteen (15) statements, there does not appear to be any significant difference based on the grade level of assignment (Elementary vs. Secondary) or number of years of experience.

The Earlier Group had a response rate of six (6) percentage points below the Total Group average, but it should be noted that this modest decline did no show as a gain in the disagreement column but rather in response C (no opinion). This six (6) percent difference did not detract from the overall positive nature of the responses. It was noteworthy that the Earlier Group, two years after taking the clinical supervision training, had the highest percentage of positive replies of any subgroup and considerably more than the Later Group. This would tend to speak well for the durability of the concept of clinical supervision.

COMMENTS SECTIONS

Because this study, with the accompanying opinionnaire, had as its focus the attitudes of practicing school administrators concerning clinical supervision, the comments of the responders were important and critical to the findings of this work. The comments for each statement are reprinted verbatum. At the top of each

comment section is given the percent of responders that availed themselves of the opportunity to make comments on a particular statement. The comments are numbered by respondee (1 through 39) for easy reference.

STATEMENT ONE

"Clinical supervision can be an important tool in unifying a faculty and identifying staff-related schoolwide goals and objectives."

This was a statement of a general nature and it raised questions concerning the use of clinical supervision in identifying schoolwide goals and objectives. Eighty (80) percent of the responses were positive and just eight (8) percent were in disagreement. The overall responses for this statement closely paralleled the composite for all fifteen (15) statements.

Yet, this was one of two statements (the other being Statement Six) with the largest range of positive scores--twenty-seven (27) percentage points (67 to 94) within the subgroups. The administrator group with the least experience was the lowest score (67 percent). The reasonable explanation from these responses was that this group, most recently removed from the teacher ranks, still retained some suspicion of supervision and supervisors.

The positive responses made the following linkings--clinical supervision was non-threatening and assisted teachers to identify strengths and to gain the confidence to share these experiences with other staff. This led to a unified support system and the framework for schoolwide goal setting and ultimately program improvement

(see responses 3, 5, 12, 33 and 38).

Several of the responders were somewhat cautious in their reply and supported the statement providing the supervisor was not intrusive and possessed the skills needed to identify patterns of strengths and needs from classroom observations (see responses 6, 16 and 18).

Finally, there was the minority of replies that stated that clinical supervision was not suited as a vehicle for goal setting (see responses 13, 25, 28 and 31).

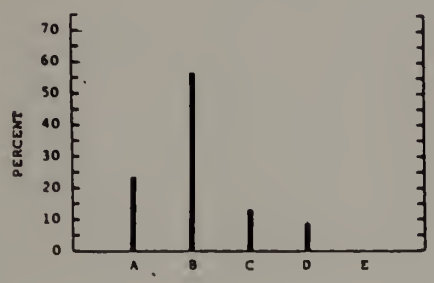
STATEMENT 1.

Clinical supervision can be an important tool in unifying a faculty and identifying staff-related schoolwide goals and objectives.

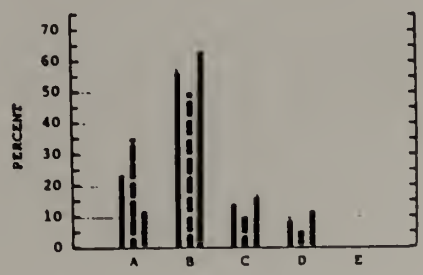
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	9	22	5	3	0
Earlier Group	17	5	11	1	0	0
Later Group	22	4	11	4	3	0
Elementary	20	7	10	2	1	0
Secondary	19	2	12	3	2	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	1	5	1	2	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	4	7	3	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	4	8	1	0	0

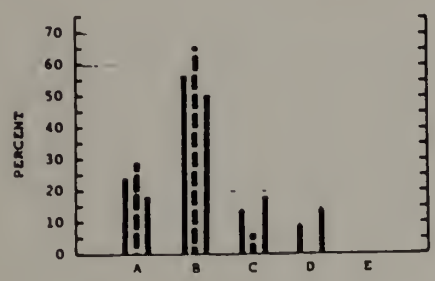
1. TOTAL GROUP



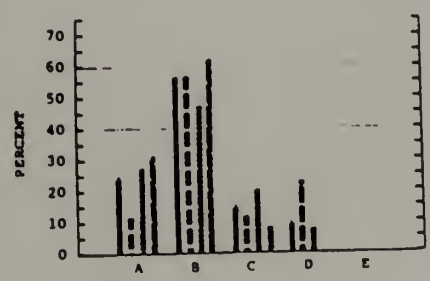
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 1. Comments (56%)

01 I find many teachers who have never been observed before, feel a great deal less threatened by clinical supervision than by any other with which they are familiar.

03 Supervision of a teacher is directly related to unifying a faculty and identification of goals and objectives.

05 The approach of identifying strengths of each teacher and sharing the usefulness of those strengths is the key here.

06 Yes, for identifying staff-related goals and objectives but not necessarily a truly unifying element. Many faculty members still consider supervision an intrusion.

08 The initial training sessions--where we practiced on each other, the various techniques allowed us to get to know each other--and feel more secure in using this type of method.

09 A good opportunity to discuss goals individually.

11 It helps for everyone to know the goals and objectives so that everyone is looking in the same direction.

12 It can be instrumental in emphasizing constructive assistance rather than areas of weakness which become quite threatening. The entire staff can then be comfortable with supervision as a means of assistance.

13 This was not an aspect of the clinical supervision sessions I attended.

16 This could unify staff. You would have to know the goals and objectives. I also feel the specific administrator could use this as a tool to unify staff. Too many unknowns.

18 Yes--providing supervisor, administrator can identify patterns of strengths and needs from observations and compare those with students' performances in a supportive manner and I do mean supportive.

STATEMENT 1. Comments continued

24 True--many staff members have integrated schoolwide goals in their everyday instruction. Conferences help provide a common thread.

25 I doubt if a staff can be unified around goals and objectives in a clinical supervision. Supervision is for overall classroom productivity, not for identifying schoolwide goals/objectives.

26 I have my definition of clinical supervision. I wonder how similar it is to yours and everyone else who is completing this form.

28 Not certain that this will occur as a result of a clinical supervision experience.

31 I can't really say that this type of supervision can achieve the above.

32 If necessary rapport has been established and topics can be discussed with open candor.

33 An atmosphere of non-threatening situations and the building of trust among faculty will help to develop and improve schoolwide goals and objectives.

34 This is the backbone of clinical supervision. (Unifying a faculty.)

38 Clinical supervision places the focus of instruction on the teacher-student relationship. The school program will benefit from schoolwide teacher identification of instructional improvement. The quality of program will improve in direct relationship to the improvement of individual instruction.

STATEMENT TWO

"Clinical supervision has the potential to broaden teacher horizons by increasing teachers' involvement in the school's educational process."

This was a broad, general statement aimed at the problem of teacher isolation and to see if, in the opinion of the responders, clinical supervision was useful in increasing teacher involvement in the school's educational process. The responders were strongly positive, with a Total Group favorable reply of ninety (90) percent. All the subgroup responses were eighty-two (82) percent or higher.

The comments stressed the observation that teachers in the clinical supervision format were more open and shared with their supervisors that they found it to be a more personal and less threatening process (see responses 4, 9, 13, 15, 33 and 39). Several of the responders voiced the opinion that, through the clinical supervision experience, teachers were coming to the realization that they were an integral part of the educational process and used the experience for growth and improvement (see responses 6, 35 and 38).

One responder (25) cautioned that teachers must be involved from the "ground floor" if clinical supervision was to succeed. A second responder (14) warned that

clinical supervision would not benefit teachers in isolation, but must be linked to other growth activities, such as staff development. Negative comments centered on a disbelief that clinical supervision could effectively accomplish this goal and one voiced the concern of the unions' lack of enthusiasm (see responses 12, 28 and 31).

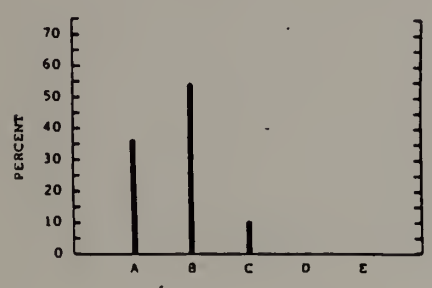
STATEMENT 2.

Clinical superivison has the potential to broaden teacher horizons by increasing teachers' involvement in the school's educational process.

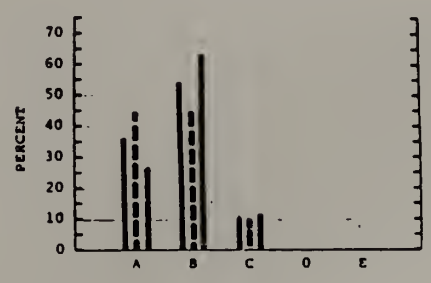
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	14	21	4	0	0
Earlier Group	17	8	9	0	0	0
Later Group	22	6	12	4	0	0
Elementary	20	9	9	2	0	0
Secondary	19	5	12	2	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	5	1	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	5	8	2	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	6	6	1	0	0

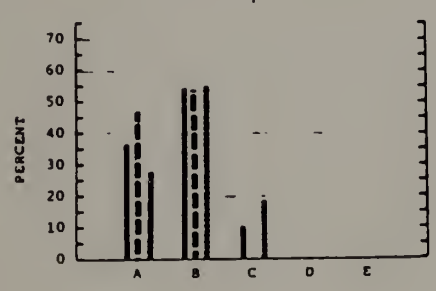
1. TOTAL GROUP



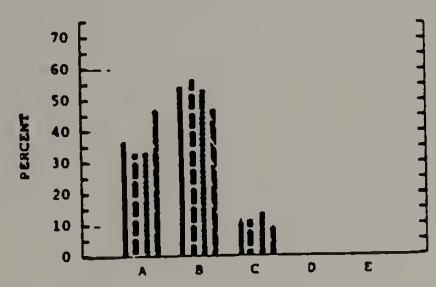
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 2. Comments (54%)

03 Teachers are an integral part of the educational process.

04 It is more personal, therefore, teachers are more interested and involved.

05 True, if the successfulness of the teachers' instructional strengths are seen as the key to the school's educational process.

06 A teacher really can take stock of himself and what he is doing through this practice.

08 Even though the format of evaluation is more teacher oriented I feel that teachers are still uncomfortable with this indepth look at a class, etc.--I think we will need to devise a plan that allows more time to be spent on a regular basis to discuss the facets implied.

09 Teacher and supervisor have private conference to express opinions, without prejudice.

11 Teachers can learn a lot helping to evaluate others.

12 It has that potential but perhaps because of association viewpoints teachers have been reluctant to take an active part or to show any enthusiasm about clinical supervision.

13 Comments from individual teachers during the process indicated that they felt more a part of the process.

14 Not in isolation, as growth areas are identified, teachers need to become involved in staff development programs, inc.

15 Responses of teachers have demonstrated this.

18 Provided involvement commensurate with administrator's management style and if so has clearly delineated the areas of his/her responsibility that he/she will not give up.

25 Provided teachers have been in on the ground floor and are really tuned in to what is going on.

STATEMENT 2. Comments continued

26 I think it has the potential. However, it is my own experience that teacher and supervisor usually have a myopic view. The relationship to a total school approach of an understanding of teacher A's effecting teacher B's students in the next year is very limited.

28 Not certain that this will occur as a result of a clinical supervision experience.

31 Not really!

33 The effectiveness of sharing individuals' strengths could be very important to the school's educational process. Comfortable teachers' attitudes provide for a good learning environment.

34 Teachers, by using this method, can help to strengthen the observation process in their building because they can become a part of it.

35 A teacher can become aware of areas of growth--it can be a positive experience rather than a fearful one.

38 Teachers recognize the significance of their instruction and impact of teaching to the level of difficulty required.

39 Teachers have been more open and have discussed methods by which instruction can be improved. They have even indicated how they thought they could improve.

STATEMENT THREE

"Clinical supervision promotes increased staff self-direction and analysis and can result in significant instructional improvement."

In many respects, this was the most important statement of the fifteen (15) since it directly linked clinical supervision with program improvement. The Total Group response of ninety-five (95) percent made this statement the second most positive of the group. There were no negative replies.

More responders chose to comment on this statement and number fifteen (15) than any other. Several of the replies were so strong in their positive position that they appeared as briefly stated absolutes with no qualifying or explanatory statements (see responses 16, 18, 23 and 31). Several responders stated that the non-threatening nature of clinical supervision encouraged teachers to explore areas of weakness and actively seek improvement (see responses 3, 6, 8, 12, 13, 25, 33 and 39). Two of the replies (11 and 34) spoke of the benefits derived from teachers helping teachers.

The cautionary comments stressed the skills needed by the supervisor in motivating staff and also made the point that the clinical supervision format might be more difficult and take longer with less able or less motivated

staff (see responses 5, 26, 30 and 32). One responder (10) spoke of the importance of climate.

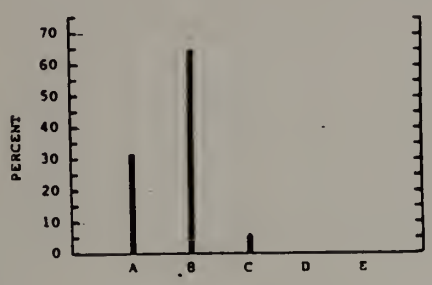
STATEMENT 3.

Clinical supervision promotes increased staff self-direction and analysis and can result in significant instructional improvement.

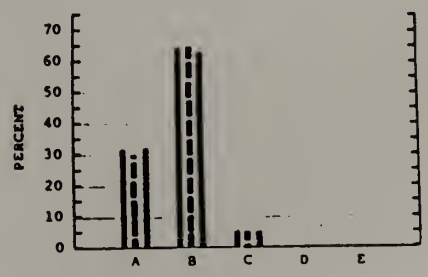
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	12	25	2	0	0
Earlier Group	17	8	8	1	0	0
Later Group	22	4	17	1	0	0
Elementary	20	6	13	1	0	0
Secondary	19	6	12	1	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	2	7	0	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	3	11	1	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	7	5	1	0	0

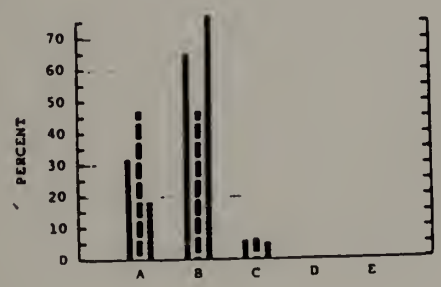
1. TOTAL GROUP



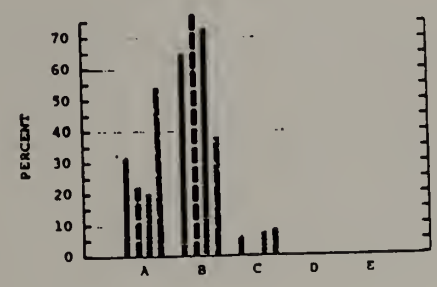
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 3. Comments (62%)

03 Instructional improvement happens when a teacher who is motivated in a positive manner can improve. Improve because of input into the procedure.

04 C.S. forces the administrator to take a close look and pinpoint specific areas with the teacher. A number of teachers have been very pleased with themselves when they've corrected a problem in their instruction from one cycle to another.

05 Yes to part 1 of this statement. No is very dependent on the openness of the teachers and the skill of the supervisor.

06 Yes--a teacher really can take stock of himself and what he is doing through this process.

08 This is slow in coming--but at least one teacher of concern to me is making a sincere effort in the area both of us feel is lacking in her performance. As a result, her daily class format is more productive in regard to actual content and input.

09 The basic goals of curriculum and instruction are addressed with the main goal being to improve instruction.

10 Not automatically--climate important.

11 Teachers can learn a lot helping to evaluate others.

12 It has the potential to do this particularly because it removes the threat of supervision and encourages staff to share techniques and methods that have proven successful.

13 Specific situations helped teachers to become aware of habits or practices, both positive and negative, that they were not aware of before.

16 This is it.

18 The best place to improve instruction is here.

22 Strongly agree only for those who need more assistance than others.

STATEMENT 3. Comments continued.

23 Absolutely true.

25 Teachers/administrators like to feel that they are working together toward quality education. Everyone hopes they are contributing toward improved instruction.

26 In theory, yes. Actually I find the best teachers have the most self-direction. Those who need the most supervision have the least self-direction and make the least improvement.

29 There are teachers who prefer to be told what and how to improve. We must use whatever technique is effective in bringing out a mutually desired change.

30 This is only true, in my experience, with those teachers that are already self-directed in nature.

31 Yes--definitely!

32 If the evaluator has the educational expertise and knowledge to conduct conferences and obtain staff motivation and involvement.

33 Presenting and sharing teachers' strengths and teaching patterns can be even helpful to improve classroom instructions to meet objectives.

34 Teachers helping teachers is a very important part of this process.

35 If every teacher tried to improve in one area, the results would be amazing.

39 Teachers have been more open and have discussed methods by which instruction can be improved. They have even indicated how they thought they could improve.

STATEMENT FOUR

"Clinical supervision emphasizes the gathering of performance information and offers individualized assistance in building upon a teacher's strengths."

This statement centered on one of the key processes of clinical supervision: the gathering of performance data focused on teacher strengths for the purpose of providing individualized assistance. There was one hundred (100) percent positive replies to this statement and that was inclusive of all subgroups.

The first and very obvious reaction from the comments was that teachers appreciated the regular, ongoing series of observations; their positive focus and the emphasis on self-discovery (see responses 8, 11, 12, 26 and 38). The building on teacher strengths was also stressed in the comments (see responses 3, 5, 9, 13 and 34). The only cautionary comments discussed the skill of the supervisor. The focus on strengths must not be contrived so that weaknesses are ignored (see responses 2, 15, 25 and 32).

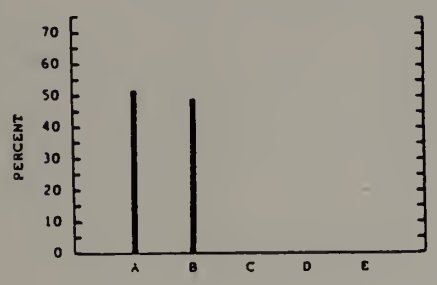
STATEMENT 4.

Clinical supervision emphasizes the gathering of performance information and offers individualized assistance in building upon a teacher's strengths.

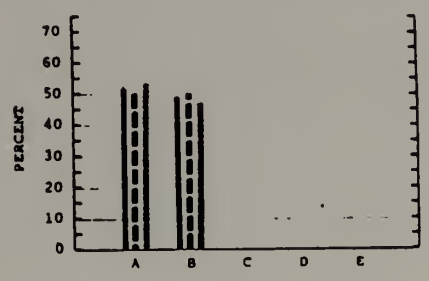
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	20	19	0	0	0
Earlier Group	17	11	6	0	0	0
Later Group	22	9	13	0	0	0
Elementary	20	10	10	0	0	0
Secondary	19	10	9	0	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	4	5	0	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	7	8	0	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	9	4	0	0	0

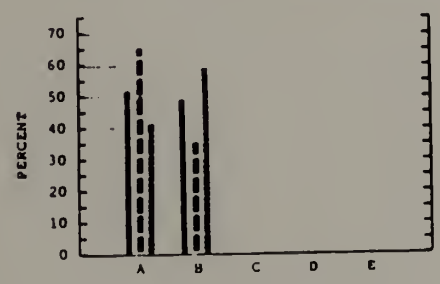
1. TOTAL GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



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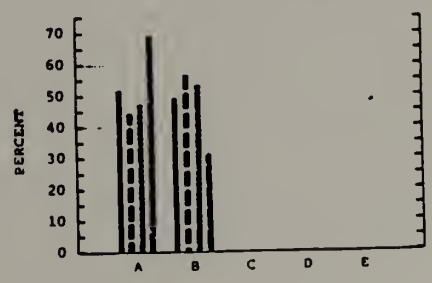


STATEMENT 4. Comments (51%)

02 I agree with the first part (up to individualized assistance). I disagree with building upon a teacher's strengths. That doesn't always happen--I have found it becomes too contrived.

03 The performance will show strengths and hopefully a teacher can identify possible weaknesses he/she will agree to work on.

04 It is very beneficial for a teacher for the administrator to be able to reinforce a specific behavior rather than a broad generalization.

05 Definitely--building upon strengths is the key.

06 Yes, the positive element is stressed and the element of correction is worked in with this process as you go along without it being a straight critical analysis of the person being observed.

08 Repeated visits to one teacher making a sincere effort showed clearly class management techniques that were lacking--with a series of incidents to draw upon, steps could be taken to remediate in a positive manner.

09 Teacher strengths are spotlighted, provide much needed recognition and reinforcement.

11 Teachers need to be complimented on good work.

12 The very nature of clinical supervision is based upon an individual relationship and any analysis of performance is based upon evidence obtained from observing that individual.

13 Although the major emphasis builds on strengths, one must attempt to correct weaknesses also. The emphasis is positive and toward self-discovery.

15 Responsibility is placed in the hands of the principal.

23 And developing growth issues.

25 Basically this statement is true--but let's not forget about some weaknesses, too!

STATEMENT 4. Comments continued.

26 I'm big on gathering performance information. Clinical supervision has helped dent my own understanding of the process. The process is very humanistic and less behavioral/performance.

31 I agree to this as very beneficial regarding staff performance.

32 Educational expertise of the evaluator plays a major role.

33 This is one of the main points of clinical supervision.

34 Teachers who have areas of great strengths can learn from this process and become even better teachers by capitalizing on their strengths.

38 Data collecting is essential. I was leary at first but became convinced at the true value as I conferenced with teachers after a lesson.

39 Teachers can also share successful methods with others.

STATEMENT FIVE

"Clinical supervision experiences require the administrator to have a belief in the worth of others and promotes within the administrator and teachers a sense of collegiality."

This statement spoke to one of the outcomes of clinical supervision: the diminishing of the subordinate-superordinate relationship to one of collegiality. The replies to this statement were very positive, with the Total Group at ninety-two (92) percent. There were no negative reactions and no subgroup with a favorable response of less than eighty-seven (87) percent.

Throughout the majority of positive comments were the words trust, collegiality and rapport (see responses 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 12, 29 and 32). Responders reported that teachers looked forward to supervisor visits (37 and 39). The cautionary comments all focused on the skills and attitudes needed to be the supervisor to make the process successful (see responses 6, 8, 14, 18, 25, 33 and 34).

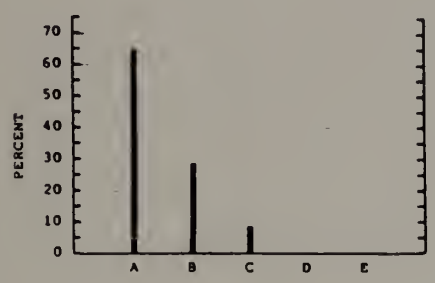
STATEMENT 5.

Clinical supervision experiences require the administrator to have a belief in the worth of others and promotes within the administrator and teachers a sense of collegiality.

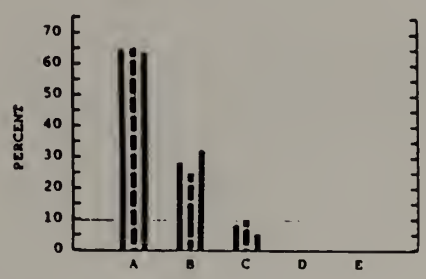
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	25	11	3	0	0
Earlier Group	17	13	3	1	0	0
Later Group	22	12	8	2	0	0
Elementary	20	13	5	2	0	0
Secondary	19	12	6	1	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	5	3	1	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	7	6	2	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	11	2	0	0	0

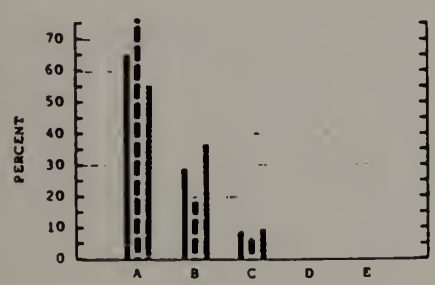
1. TOTAL GROUP



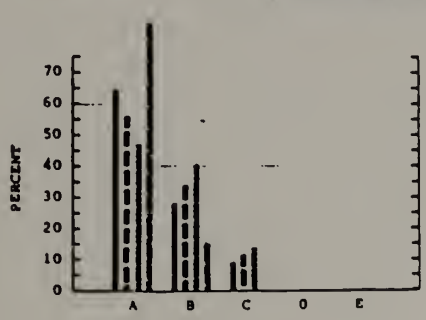
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 5. Comments (49%)

03 Every person has many positive strengths. When these strengths are affirmed a trusting relationship then follows. A teacher will not improve unless he/she feels secure about who they are (self-worth).

04 The process is less threatening, thus a better rapport is developed.

05 Definitely yes to part 1 of this statement--phoniness will kill it. Part 2 is dependent upon part 1.

06 However, because of the nature of the administrator/employee relationship, there always will be an element of nervousness and adversarial roles.

08 If not--administrator looms as authority only--negative side.

09 Supervisor and staff become closer in their working relationship.

10 Could promote climate, trust, etc.

12 As mentioned earlier, the sense of collegiality and sharing, which is inherent in the process, is one of its greatest strengths.

13 This is an absolute must--to get away from the common conception equating supervision and "checking up on," etc.

14 Weak teachers who are not secure can be distrustful with even the most reassuring administrator.

15 This was evident during the training and later with the faculty who did not participate in the training.

18 In theory, yes. However, one must have "trust" and confidence in the expertise of the observer, and the observer must have confidence also.

24 Pre and post conferences promote understanding.

25 Not only in clinical supervision, but in all areas as well. The administrator's philosophy and overall leadership role sets the tone for the entire building.

STATEMENT 5. Comments continued.

29 Yes--this is the key.

30 Clinical supervision is certainly one way in a vast repertoire of ways to promote a sense of collegiality but in and of itself it would fail to do so.

32 Absolutely essential.

33 It provides a strong and healthy relationship if the administrator is strong in the instructional area.

34 Helping and supporting each other with the administrator makes this process so effective.

35 Teachers feel more at ease during observation.

39 This is happening here. Teachers are anxious for a visit and have been more than positive.

STATEMENT SIX

"Clinical supervision promotes recognition of staff members which is so necessary for morale purposes. It assists in relating this recognition to school goals as well as to overall educational goals."

This statement dealt with the use of clinical supervision as a vehicle for staff recognition and morale development consistant with school educational goals. This statement had an eighty-five (85) percent positive response from the Total Group. Two subgroups (Later and 9-15 years experience) had the low positive reply rate of seventy-three (73) percent. There is no ready explanation for why the 9-15 years experience group was markedly lower than the groups on either side. To explain the lower positive rate for the Later Group, it was conceivable that they were measuring actual implementation of this goal statement rather than assessing potential. They, being the Later Group, have had the least time and opportunity for implementation.

Only thirty-eight (38) percent of the responders chose to write a comment on this statement. The comments were uniformly supportive of the first part of the statement dealing with the importance of morale building (see responses 5, 6, 9, 34 and 38). One comment (12) was

of special note as it linked this statement with the widely publicized concept of Career Teaching Programs.

The negative comments centered on the second part of the statement. These responders didn't see the link between clinical supervision, teacher recognition and morale, and overall educational goal setting (see responses 18, 25, 31 and 32).

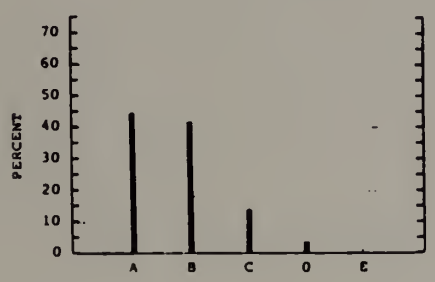
STATEMENT 6.

Clinical Supervision promotes recognition of staff members which is so necessary for morale purposes. It assists in relating this recognition to school goals as well as to overall educational goals.

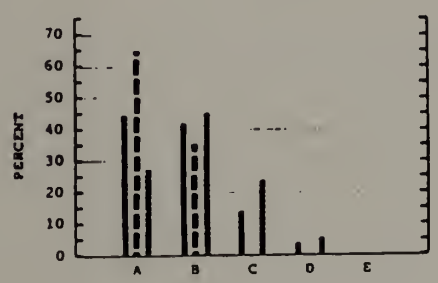
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	17	16	5	1	0
Earlier Group	17	11	6	0	0	0
Later Group	22	6	10	5	1	0
Elementary	20	9	7	3	1	0
Secondary	19	8	9	2	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	5	1	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	6	5	3	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	8	5	0	0	0

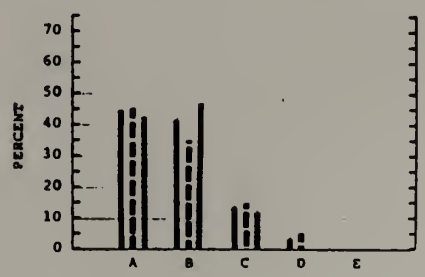
1. TOTAL GROUP



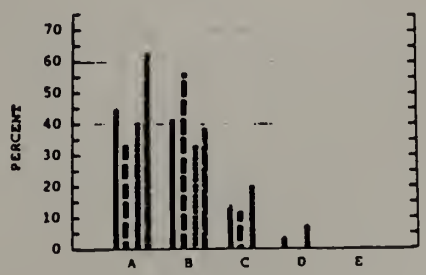
2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 6. Comments (38%)

05 True. It provides an appropriate and logical opportunity to keep administrators aware of the productivity of the teachers.

06 Yes, people need to be told and recognized for their worth to the overall school and educational program.

08 Case--Teacher of the Year. Her expertise and performance typical of many teachers. They cheered her as well as the winner. One of their own--proud of--representative of them all--etc.

09 Everyone has a need to know that their work is appreciated and this is an excellent vehicle to convey this.

12 This, too, is a strength of the process. I feel that it is compatible with career teaching plans which are currently being widely advocated.

18 Individual recognition is important. However, not sure of other portions of the statement.

24 Morale does improve with individuals and improved understanding is fostered through conferences. Certain teachers have demonstrated positive attitudes following the supervision process.

25 But <u>not</u> due to clinical supervision, but to supervision in general, special commendation, faculty luncheons, dinners, etc.

31 We can achieve the above in many ways other than what is stated.

32 Overall educational goals is a very broad term. Unfortunately non-instructional systemwide goals can interfere with the process.

33 Clinical supervision assists staff members to recognize their patterns and strengths.

34 Clinical supervision is a real morale builder.

37 Staff members may receive (and should) recognition at all times.

STATEMENT 6. Comments continued.

38 Teachers will understand the value and respect of their expertise. New teachers will be able to rely on veterans for support.

39 We have suggested to teachers to visit classes of higher successful teachers to share ideas. This helps the morale of everyone concerned.

STATEMENT SEVEN

"Clinical supervision promotes a collegial relationship between and among teachers and administrators that reflects mutual respect and confidence."

This statement was an extension of Statement Five and sought to determine that clinical supervision promoted a collegial relationship among and between teachers and administrators and this could be seen in observable examples of mutual respect. This was another goal statement with no negative replies and had a Total Group response of eighty-seven (87) percent. The Later Group had the lowest positive rate of seventy-seven (77) percent for probably the same reasons given in Statement Six. There was another factor that must be noted here. The majority of the administrators that comprised the Later Group were employed in a district that closed four schools during the last two years necessitating considerable staff transfers and some layoffs. These actions could put a strain on collegiality.

The comments stressed the role of the supervisor in promoting a positive, trusting climate. The majority of responders seemed confident that this kind of climate would develop if the clinical supervision process was done properly and entered into sincerely (see responses 3, 6,

10, 12 and 30). The replies indicated that teachers appreciate the principal in the role of colleague.

The cautionary comments indicated that, even with a sincere clinical supervision effort, some teachers will still be suspicious of administration intent and will find some threat in the process (see responses 5, 8, 22 and 38). A note of interest was the negative comment of two responders (25 and 31), who couldn't relate clinical supervision and collegiality, and yet neither circled a negative response on the A - E response selection format (both circled C).

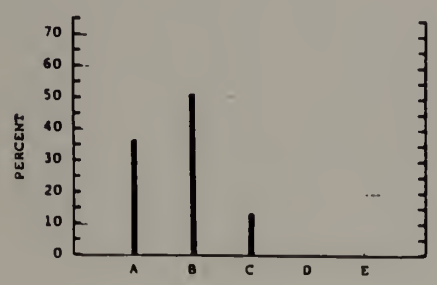
STATEMENT 7.

Clinical Supervision promotes a collegial relationship between and among teachers and administrators that reflects mutual respect and confidence.

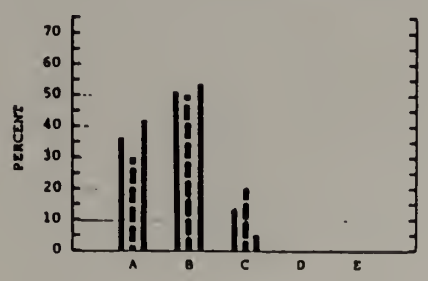
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	14	20	5	0	0
Earlier Group	17	9	8	0	0	0
Later Group	22	5	12	5	0	0
Elementary	20	6	10	4	0	0
Secondary	19	8	10	1	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	5	1	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	5	7	3	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	5	7	1	0	0

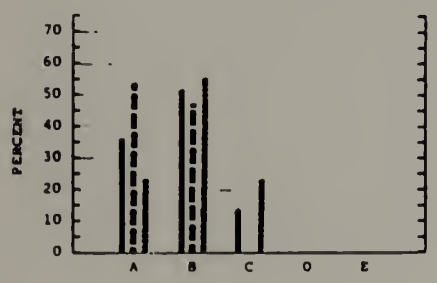
1. TOTAL GROUP



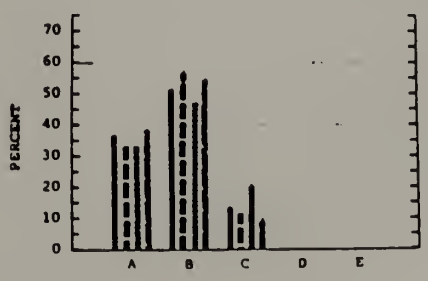
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 7. Comments (38%)

03 The relationship is one of trust. Clinical supervision is objective based on, and if done properly, will create a trusting relationship.

05 However, if the respect and confidence are lacking, the development of the relationship will be slow to occur.

06 Yes--if the administrator truly makes the process unthreatening.

08 Agree--but has to be worked on. Some teachers still are not comfortable with this type.

10 Not automatically. Climate important--could promote trust, etc.

12 It has great potential to do this. Teachers appreciate the principal in the role of colleague, coach, and instructional leader, rather than a person who is always involved in administrivia.

18 Should--not sure it reflects mutual respect and confidence.

22 Although there are always some, I'm sure they doubt administrator intent.

25 I really cannot contribute the above statement to clinical supervision.

26 I would qualify this by saying it provides the potential for a collegial relationship. Whether this succeeds is dependent on other variables.

28 Hopefully.

29 This is related to #5.

30 Again, this is only true if the individuals involved are sincerely interested in their profession and specific job.

31 Can't see where this applies.

STATEMENT 7. Comments continued.

32 The above is true on an individual building basis providing the local administrator can establish the necessary rapport. Unfortunately, teachers view all actions of central administration in a universal manner and certain actions can damage the rapport established.

38 This is a highly positive professional statement. Smooth sailing will be influenced by personality and individual differences of teachers. Some teachers will not like peer observation, supervision, etc.

39 The best in-service experienced in my 23 years here.

STATEMENT EIGHT

"Clinical supervision encourages staff to become change agents and to explore different strategies and procedures.

This statement spoke to the use of clinical supervision as a tool to encourage teachers to become change agents. There were no negative replies and all subgroups had a positive rate of eighty (80) percent or more. The positive responders recognized the importance of the teacher role in bringing about changes in a school (see responses 4, 9, 23, 34, 35 and 39). Several comments were made concerning the trust factor and how administrative support must be present before an individual teacher will take the risks required often of a change agent (see responses 3, 18, 25 and 29).

One responder (32) felt the need for more training for administrators before pursuing this topic. Two replies indicated no evidence of this factor in their work place at present (8 and 12). As in comments for most of the previous statements, two (5 and 25) replies mentioned the importance of supervisory expertise.

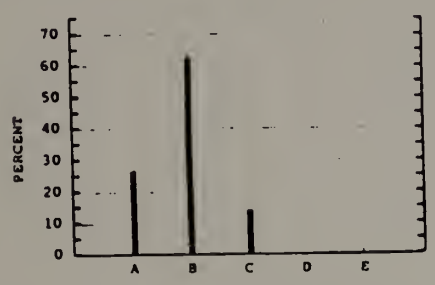
STATEMENT 8.

Clinical Supervision encourages staff to become change agents and to explore different strategies and procedures.

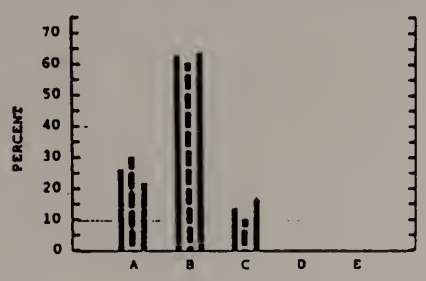
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	10	24	5	0	0
Earlier Group	17	6	9	2	0	0
Later Group	22	4	15	3	0	0
Elementary	20	6	12	2	0	0
Secondary	19	4	12	3	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	2	6	1	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	3	11	1	0	0
16+ Years Experience	13	4	7	2	0	0

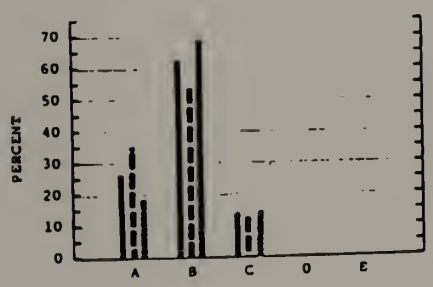
1. TOTAL GROUP



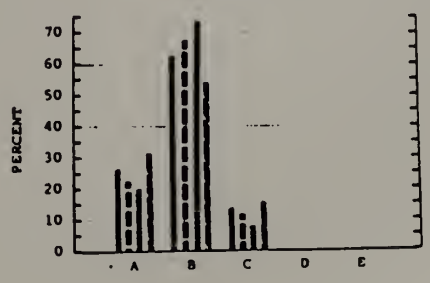
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 8. Comments (38%)

03 When staff trusts the supervisor and staff (individuals) feel good about themselves and the job they are doing.

04 Because they can better see their areas needing work, they are more willing to change.

05 True, if guided effectively by the supervisor.

06 Suggestions given in a non-threatening way will enhance this procedure.

08 I haven't seen this occur yet.

09 A good opportunity to convey ideas for utilization of different methods and let staff know that in some instances change is refreshing.

12 It has the potential to do this, but I have not seen a great deal of evidence that this has taken place in our school.

18 It should encourage high risk--changed--with supports identified and provided, and a systematic way of assessing individual growth and class growth. When one has to rank--question criteria used.

22 Again--only if they really open up.

23 I believe this can be one of its greatest strengths.

25 Yes, I believe this is possible providing risk factors are taken into account and administrative support is present.

29 The staff person must not only be able to trust his/her supervisor--but must be comfortable with him or herself. Some teachers have low self-esteem.

32 Much more concentrated training is necessary if the above is to be realized. I'm referring to the training of administrators necessary to recognize and promote sound strategies and procedures.

34 Staff enjoys hearing growth issues and they become very positive and want to change.

STATEMENT 8. Comments continued.

35 This has to be one of the most beneficial aspects.

37 Staff mention on occasion that they did not realize that certain patterns were prominent.

39 Without question--our people have been very open minded.

STATEMENT NINE

"The use of clinical supervisionas a major basis for an evaluation system encourages classroom teaching/learning as the single most important factor which is evaluated."

This statement had as its focus the use of clinical supervision in the school teacher's evaluation program centered on the classroom experience. Better than three-quarters of the Total Group returned favorable replies to this statement. There were some interesting response rates within the various subgroups. The Earlier subgroup positive percentage was twenty (20) points higher than the Later Group (88 versus 68), yet, it also had the higher negative response rate by three percent. As in several other statements, the subgroups with the lowest positive response rate were the Later Group and the group with the least experience.

The comments indicate clearly that this statement dealt with an aspect of clinical supervision that the responders felt to be most important. Such statements as "this is the whole ballgame" (16) and "teachers come to realize that their most important job is to teach children" (9) were submitted. Many of the other positive replies centered on the classroom and the instructional process (see responses 3, 12, 13, 22, 15, 34 and 39).

On the negative side, several responders felt that clinical supervision was not the single most important factor and a broader range of factors, such as coaching, should be included (see responses 1, 6 and 8). This last point was emphasized by one responder (26) who had a special education assignment. Several replies revealed concern for the weak teacher and that the local evaluation process involved more than clinical supervision (see responses 5, 29 and 32).

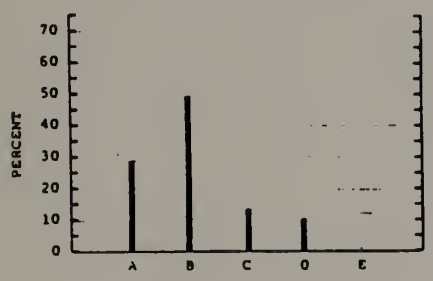
STATEMENT 9.

The use of clinical supervision as a major basis for an evaluation system encourages classroom teaching/learning as the single most important factor which is evaluated.

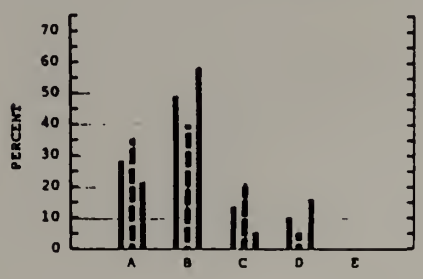
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	11	19	5	4	0
Earlier Group	17	6	9	0	2	0
Later Group	22	5	10	5	2	0
Elementary	20	7	8	4	1	0
Secondary	19	4	11	1	3	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	2	4	1	2	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	3	8	3	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	5	6	1	1	0

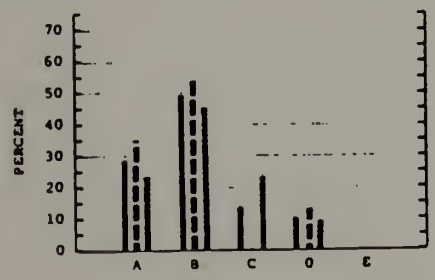
1. TOTAL GROUP



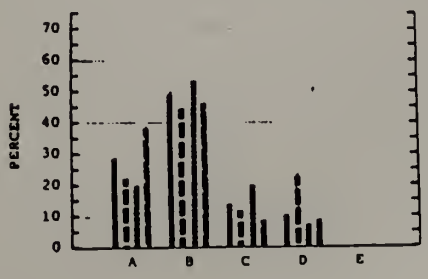
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 9. Comments (44%)

01 I do not believe this is the single most important factor.

03 The observations (clinical) are objective and show how teacher and student behave during instruction. Teaching and learning are the two factors that are observed.

05 Also, it will facilitate the relationship of personnel doing poorly or unwilling to perform--which is another part of the evaluation process.

06 Yes, but it does not eliminate the evaluation of other things going on or the atmosphere of the class in general either.

08 I would like the total teacher experience to count--involvement in sports, coaching, etc. with children. This is also part of learning and interaction with kids.

09 Teachers come to realize that their most important job is to teach children.

12 Classroom teaching/learning has to be the single most important factor of any evaluation system.

13 The whole process focuses on what happens in the classroom.

16 This is the whole ballgame.

18 When this fine statement is implemented against student learning. I have no problems conceptually, only have problems with supervisory expertise in doing this.

22 It can be need in all facets of evaluation.

25 I agree. This is what classroom observation and supervision of staff is all about.

STATEMENT 9. Comments continued.

26 C indicates my own role--supervising special education teachers. I have already explained to them that the special education teachers evaluation process goes beyond classroom teaching/learning as the only or even most important aspect of total evaluation. For example, presentations at PPTs and consulting with staff and parents are also heavily weighed.

29 This is its intent--but in actuality weak teachers are afraid to deal with differences in their teaching style.

32 Staff is well aware that the local evaluation process involves more than clinical supervision.

34 Agree completely.

38 Places emphasis on daily instruction and objectives for that lesson.

39 It has changed my priority. Teachers realize this and know that I am very interested in the instructional process.

STATEMENT TEN

"Clinical supervision is compatible with the school system's staff evaluation program; they can run in an integrated fashion."

This statement actually raised the question "Can clinical supervision be integrated with the district's evaluation program?" The statement as written did call for a reaction to correct district conditions rather than a discussion of future or potential situations. It was expected that this statement would generate negative replies and its position as the statement with the third lowest positive rate was not surprising. Of all the statements, this one had the least positive reaction from the Elementary Group. Three Elementary responders (13, 16 and 18) spoke to more factors than classroom performance that needed to be included in the evaluation format and also had questions about staff readiness and expertise. The concern about possible time constraint came from a Secondary responder (8).

The positive replies indicated that a blend was possible and desirable (see responses 3, 5, 9, 12, 25 and 34). One responder (16) saw supervision and evaluation goals being very different but a helpful administrator could run them together. Another responder (34) struck a

hopeful note when he/she replied to this statement "Not Yet--but working on it."

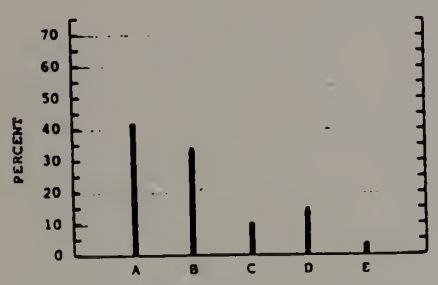
STATEMENT 10.

Clinical Supervision is compatible with the school system's staff evaluation program; they can run in an integrated fashion.

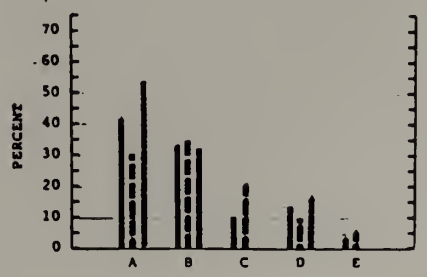
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	16	13	4	5	1
Earlier Group	17	11	5	0	0	1
Later Group	22	5	8	4	5	0
Elementary	20	6	7	4	2	1
Secondary	19	10	6	0	3	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	5	0	1	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	4	4	3	3	1
16+ Years Experience	13	7	4	1	1	0

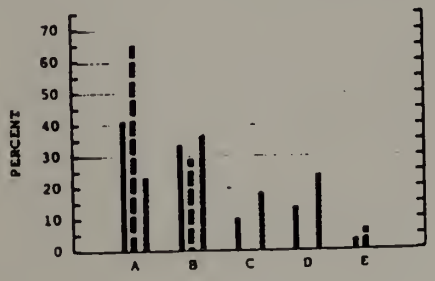
1. TOTAL GROUP



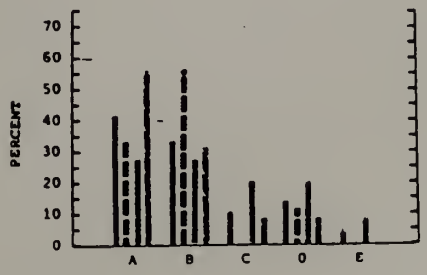
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. 4. a. ELEMENTARY
b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP
b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS
b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE
c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 10. Comments (49%)

02 I philosophically believe that supervision should not be a part of evaluation. To promote trust in a collegial fashion becomes hypocritical if you include it with a superior-subordinate relationship that evaluation is. They should be separate and distinct.

03 I think clinical supervision can be used in any evaluation system and it works well in a job description evaluation procedure.

05 They are interchangeable and they must be so.

06 They may run concurrently without any problems developing.

08 No problem other than time restraints.

09 In Manchester this type of supervision blends well with our system of teacher evaluation and is very non-threatening.

12 I feel that it is completely compatible since our evaluation system is by definition and state law "primarily for the improvement of instruction."

13 It is compatible but not inclusive. There are a number of factors to evaluate in addition to classroom performance.

16 I see clinical supervision goals being very different from evaluation goals. A helpful administrator could run them together.

18 Questionable at this time due to past and present practice. Believe in the concept. Question staff's readiness and expertise to this at this time.

23 Required evaluation forms are somewhat geared to this premise but not as completely as would be appropriate if clinical supervision were used exclusively in the district.

25 Basically this is a true statement in light of "growth issues" we have recently been discussing.

STATEMENT 10. Comments continued.

28 With some adjustments--to look for growth issue for all teachers is unrealistic. Many excellent teachers are self-motivated and continue to grow without prodding from a supervisor.

29 The assumption must be that the teacher is already doing at least satisfactory work.

32 They can blend but it will take bold commitment on the part of all levels of administration and school boards to have it occur.

34 Not yet--but working on it.

35 This can be a piece of the whole--however, the mutual trust can be lacking and the cycle ineffective.

38 Heavy in-service required--time required to evolve program.

39 This can be coordinated. We have found this to be true.

STATEMENT ELEVEN

"Clinical supervision is compatible with the Board of Education expectation that administrators are accountable for teacher evaluation and that clinical supervision is not mutually exclusive from the teacher evaluation process."

This statement dealt with administrator accountability for the teacher evaluation function and the compatibility of clinical supervision with this process. This was the statement with the least positive response netting a seventy (70) percent Total Group reply. It was also the statement with the fewest comments at twenty-eight (28) percent. Allowing for the Later Group, which had the largest percent of uncommitted responses (32) of all the subgroups for all the statements, the spread of positive and negative replies among the subgroup was of a fairly consistent pattern.

There were some strong and opposite feelings on this issue. Several responders claimed that supervision and evaluation were mutually exclusive (see responses 2, 29 and 32). Others stated that the two factors were not only compatible, but inseparable (see responses 5, 9, 12, 18 and 39). One responder (16) questioned whether clinical supervision addressed the legal aspects of teacher evaluation.

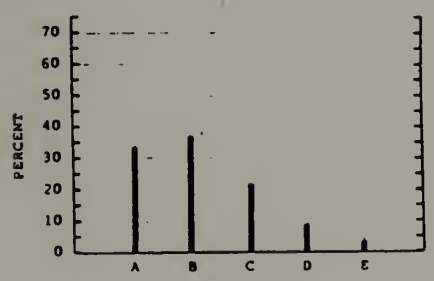
STATEMENT 11.

Clinical Supervision is compatible with the Board of Education expectation that administrators are accountable for teacher evaluation and that clinical supervision is not mutually exclusive from the teacher evaluation.

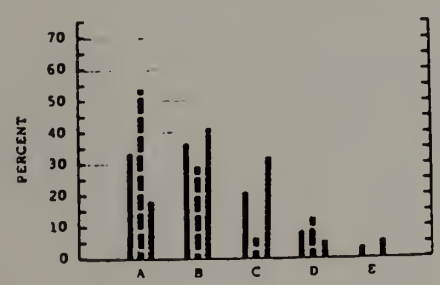
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	13	14	8	3	1
Earlier Group	17	9	5	1	2	0
Later Group	22	4	9	7	1	1
Elementary	20	6	8	5	1	0
Secondary	19	7	6	3	2	1
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	5	0	1	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	4	6	4	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	6	2	4	1	0

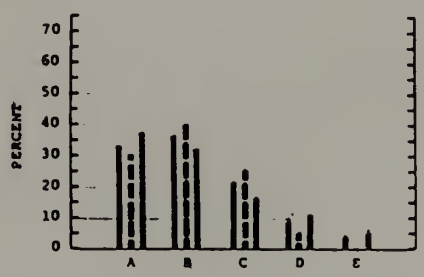
1. TOTAL GROUP



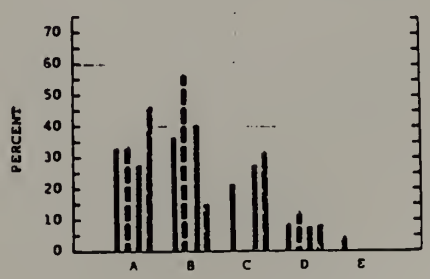
2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 11. Comments (28%)

02 These appear to be two separate statements contained in one. I have to disagree with this in terms of evaluation. It is proof, however, that an administrator is accountable for the educational program in a school.

05 Exactly.

06 The administrator should incorporate both in evaluating and supervising teachers. There is no reason why it should not be done.

09 Works very well. I use this method to complete teacher evaluation reports.

12 As mentioned earlier, this should be the primary responsibility for administrators and the clinical supervision format is compatible with our evaluation system adopted by the Board of Education.

16 Generally I think the board is interested in improving the teaching/learning process which clinical supervision lends itself but the process of teacher evaluation must address the legal aspects of a teacher's performance.

18 Can't separate clinical supervision and evaluation.

25 Any type of staff evaluation affords administration the opportunity to observe staff in action--not necessarily clinical supervision.

29 In my opinion this process is mutually exclusive and contrary to summative evaluation processes existing in our system.

32 First part of the question <u>could</u> be true.

34 Not yet--but working on it.

39 The model can be well defended as a positive way to improve instruction.

STATEMENT TWELVE

"The teacher supervision/evaluation program should have a high priority within a school system and should be the basis for curriculum and staff development decisions."

The statement linked the school's supervision/evaluation system with curriculum and staff development decisions. Ninety (90) percent of the Total Group returned favorable replies to this statement and none of the subgroups had more than an eight (8) percent negative response.

The comments taken in total don't seem to support the high positive rating this statement received. The responders were unanimously in favor of supervision having a high priority, but several would not support the second part of the statement that the supervision/evaluation program be the basis for curriculum and staff development decisions (see responses 6, 8, 13 and 22). One responder stated that "curriculum decisions should be based more upon community needs, not teacher needs" (23).

Two responders (3 and 16) separated supervision (help) and evaluation (rating). Another positive reply (33) was dependent on strong instructional leadership. A good number of responders were totally supportive of the statement and made no qualifying comments (see responses 5, 12, 18, 25, 32 and 39).

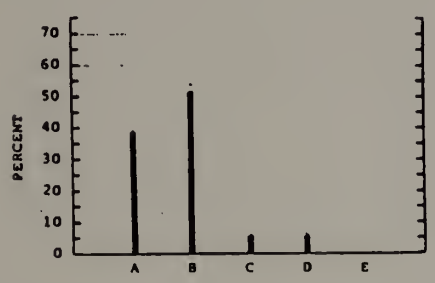
STATEMENT 12.

The teacher supervision/evaluation program should have a high priority within a school system and should be the basis for curriculum and staff development decisions.

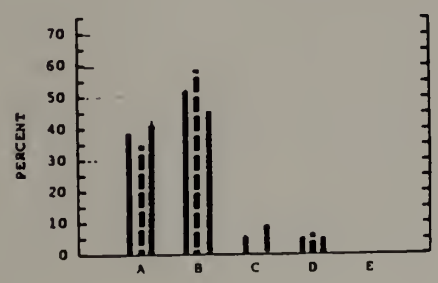
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	15	20	2	2	0
Earlier Group	17	6	10	0	1	0
Later Group	22	9	10	2	1	0
Elementary	20	9	10	0	1	0
Secondary	19	6	10	2	1	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	4	5	0	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	8	6	0	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	2	8	2	1	0

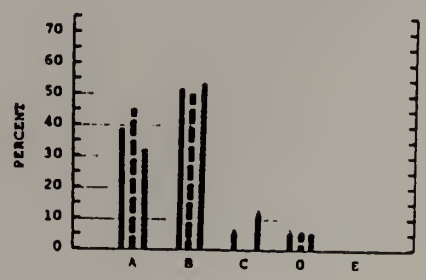
1. TOTAL GROUP



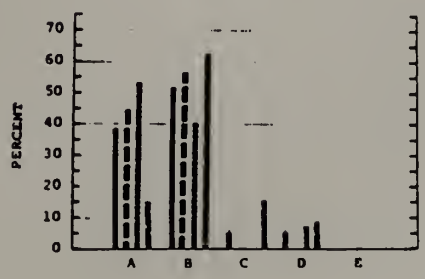
2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP
b. LATER GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY
b. SECONDARY



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS
b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE
c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 12. Comments (44%)

03 Supervision of teachers is the single most important factor in any evaluation system.

05 How can anyone answer this with any answer other than a strong agree.

06 Not necessarily the basis for curriculum development decisions.

08 I would like to use it as part of--not sole basis of curriculum, etc.

09 I'm not sure that it should have a high priority but it is an important program in our schools.

12 It should certainly have a high priority and should be a major factor in curriculum decisions.

13 I agree with "should have a high priority within the school system" and "staff development decisions" but curriculum has a number of other factors which should influence it.

16 I agree but I don't think I see supervision and evaluation in the same way. One is to assist teachers to improve the teaching and learning process. Teacher and administrator working together. Evaluation the administrator is rating a teacher's performance.

18 No doubt about it. However, staff development should be long term.

22 Should not be <u>only</u> basis.

23 Curriculum decisions should be based more upon community needs, not teacher needs. Staff development decisions can be readily made upon evaluations, however.

25 Yes. I believe staff input in the decision-making process is important, and even desirable. Teachers need to know they are part and parcel of the overall education process in their bulding/school system.

29 Ideal--but I wonder where in reality is it carried out.

STAEMENT 12. Comments continued

30 We did try to operate on this basis and found it effective in certain areas.

32 Process could serve as an excellent vehicle for developing in-service as well as curriculum.

33 With a strong instructional leader this is very possible.

34 Starting to happen.

39 It is my #1 priority--the model has changed my thoughts on things. It has been refreshing.

STATEMENT THIRTEEN

"It is possible for the same administrator to be an individual teacher's clinical supervisor and also the school system evaluator."

This statement really asked the question, much discussed in the literature, "Can the administration serve in the dual capacity as supervisor and evaluator?" The Total Group positive response was seventy-seven (77) percent which marked it 12th out of fifteen (15). Yet, the negative rate for the Total Group was just five percent; leaving eighteen (18) percent uncommitted. There were no significant variations among the subgroups.

This was the only statement where one word (yes or no) comments were made; responder (18) replied "yes" and responder (29) said "no." Generally, there was support for the position. The responders evidenced the realization that the administrator could and often must perform both notes without conflict (see responses 2, 4, 5, 9 and 23). Several replies emphasized the factor of mutual trust being very critical in these matters (see responses 16, 34, 35 and 39). These issues of rapport, trust and administrator honesty appeared more frequently in Later Group replies. Two responders (6 and 16) were concerned with the skill of the administrators.

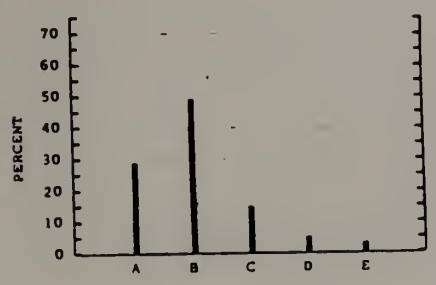
STATEMENT 13.

It is possible for the same administrator to be an individual teacher's clinical supervisor and also the school system evaluator.

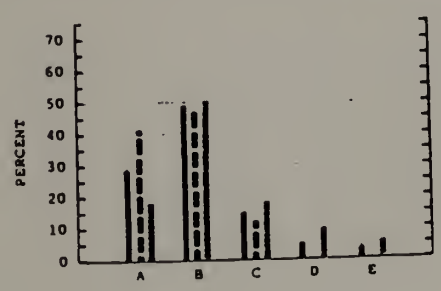
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	11	19	6	2	1
Earlier Group	17	7	8	2	0	0
Later Group	22	4	11	4	2	1
Elementary	20	6	9	4	1	0
Secondary	19	5	10	2	1	1
8 Years Experience or Less	9	2	4	2	1	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	3	9	2	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	5	6	2	0	0

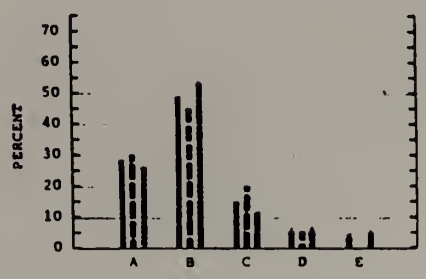
1. TOTAL GROUP



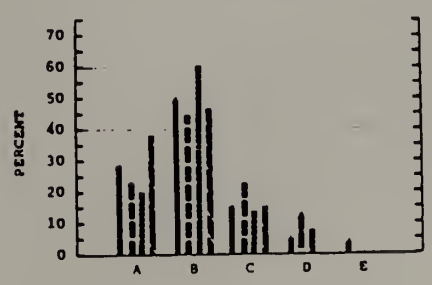
2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 13. Comments (36%)

02 I feel comfortable with both roles--supervisor and evaluator.

04 I find no conflict.

05 The roles are interchangeable, and no conflict is present. The former role leads to the latter.

06 Why not? If the person is intelligent and fair minded, there should be no problem.

09 I see no conflict in this.

12 I feel that this is true in most, but not all, situations.

13 Yes, although it is easier when dealing with competent teachers. It's somewhat more difficult to apply to incompetent teachers.

16 This is a hard one. Depends on the individuals involved. The administrator must wear two hats and a skillful person could serve both roles. C.S. is conducted with mutual trust and evaluation is the individual making judgements.

18 Yes.

23 Within the realities of manpower this may be necessary and could work with the "right" personnel.

25 Yes. It happens now. The administration must be supportive of the teacher and be honest in the appraisal of that performance.

28 It can work well with most staff members but can also be threatening to others.

29 NO!

32 It is possible if the critical level of rapport is established. Unfortunately school systems' evaluation goals and purposes create conflicts.

34 Yes, but <u>trust</u> must be established first.

STATEMENT 13. Comments continued.

35 The element of trust may not be present. It depends on the individual.

39 Yes. Mutual trust is the key. Interest in the same product, the students, and how we can improve their experience.

STATEMENT FOURTEEN

"Clinical supervision has as one of its outgrowths the opportunity for individual teachers to express their needs and request specific assistance."

This statement explored the use of clinical supervision as a vehicle for teachers to ask for help. Ninety-five (95) percent of the Total Group agreed with the statement and all subgroups were over ninety (90) percent.

Most comments were positive with several making the point that the clinical supervision process, especially the post observation conference phase, induced help requests (see responses 2, 5, 8, 13, 34 and 39). Several replies contained the caution that they would support the statement if a trust relationship existed between teacher and supervisor (see responses 9, 12, 16 and 29). One comment (4) included references to climate and less threatening atmosphere. Several responses spoke of the positive focus of clinical supervision on the teaching/learning process and the opportunities it provides for teacher/supervisor communication (see responses 3, 5, 6, 8 and 18).

One negative comment (28) held to the position that teachers won't ask for help since the clinical supervisor

is also the evaluator. Two responders (30 and 32) stressed administrator expertise.

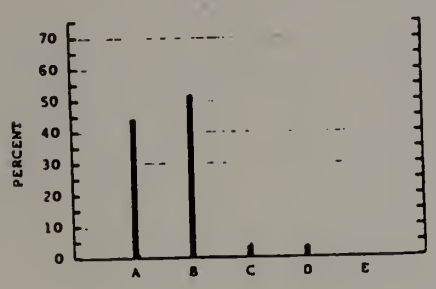
STATEMENT 14.

Clinical supervision has as one of its outgrowths the opportunity for individual teachers to express their needs and request specific assistance.

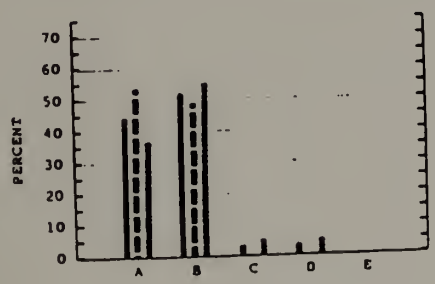
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	17	20	1	1	0
Earlier Group	17	9	8	0	0	0
Later Group	22	8	12	1	1	0
Elementary	20	8	10	1	1	0
Secondary	19	9	10	0	0	0
8 Years Experience or Less	9	3	6	0	0	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	5	9	0	1	0
16+ Years Experience	13	7	5	1	0	0

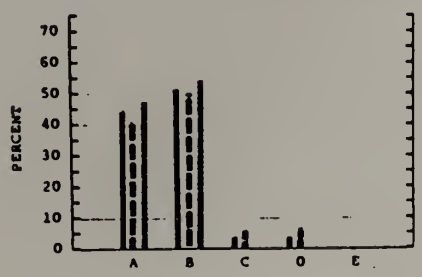
1. TOTAL GROUP



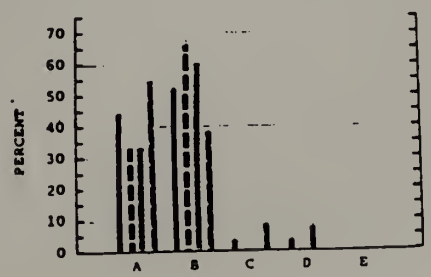
2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 14. Comments (44%)

02 Experience has shown, in my 14 years of doing clinicals, that teachers rarely request assistance devoid of supervisory intervention. What I mean is that usually I present data and the teacher discusses needs and assistance.

03 This will happen because of the positive working relationship between teacher and supervisor.

04 Because a less threatening atmosphere exists.

05 It provides an appropriate logical opportunity for the teacher to communicate with the supervisor.

06 There is providion for give and take between the evaluator and teacher. The teacher has an input not just being critiqued by the evaluator.

08 All the teachers involved with me personally have been able to express their needs. They found it easier based on the conferences which emphasized them and their materials.

09 True, but in any school teachers are free to express their needs and requests, or it is a pretty sad situation.

12 It promotes a trust factor which enables teachers to ask for assistance without feeling inadequate or threatened.

13 These needs usually are drawn out in post conferences.

16 Yes. If the mutual trust is there then this should happen. The teacher must feel comfortable with the person working with him/her.

18 Any form of supervision worth its salt refers to individual teachers being able to express their needs.

25 I have no real response to this question but it does sound reasonable.

28 Very few teachers will express a need for assistance since the clinical supervisor is also the evaluator.

STATEMENT 14. Comments continued.

29 Yes, but this requires a lot of trust in your supervisor.

30 True, if the individual has the capacity to see the need for help and then to express it in an appropriate manner.

32 If the teacher can in fact express to the evalator his needs and the evaluator has the expertise himself or available to him to provide the assistance.

34 Yes, this is very true. Teachers enjoy the process and seek out the process.

39 This is happening. They evaluate themselves in many cases.

STATEMENT FIFTEEN

"Clinical supervision is critical for all teachers, especially as it relates to planning and instructional responsibilities; therefore, a strong case could be made for the proposition that all teachers should be trained to be supervisors."

Should all teachers be trained as supervisors? This was the least most positive statement of the fifteen (15), with a Total Group favorable rate of just fifty-one (51) percent. All the subgroups responded similarly to the Total Group. Interestingly, the group with the most experience had the lowest positive and negative rate, with thirty-one (31) uncommitted replies. This was the largest uncommitted position of all the groups or any of the fifteen (15) statements.

A few of the responses were totally supportive of the statement (see responses 10, 18, 25, 27 and 34). The majority of responders felt that teachers should not be trained as supervisors but should understand the elements of clinical supervision (3, 5, 9, 13, 22, 23, 32, 33 and 38).

Several responders commented that some teachers would not be good as a supervisor, don't want the experience and would resent the time away from their own classroom (see responses 1, 2, 6 and 8). One responder (1) felt it would

be too stressful for teachers. Responder (12) seemed to have offered the best middle ground position possible with the statement "All teachers should be trained to be supervisors in the context of offering collegial assistance and in willingly offering tips, suggestions and constructive criticism."

No other statement had a higher comment rate--sixty-two (62) percent.

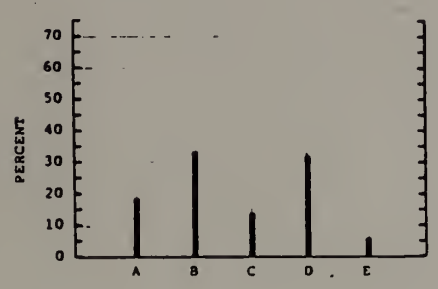
STATEMENT 15.

Clinical supervision is critical for all teachers, especially as it relates to planning and instuctional responsibilities; therefore, a strong case could be made for the proposition that all teachers should be trained to be supervisors.

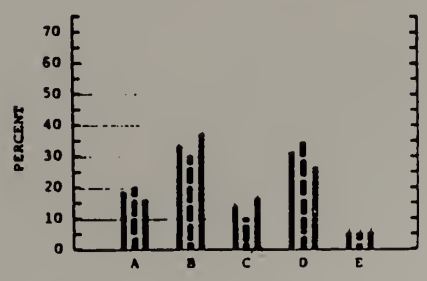
ACTUAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

GROUP/SUB-GROUP	TOTAL RESPONSES	A	B	C	D	E
Total Group	39	7	13	5	12	2
Earlier Group	17	2	7	1	6	1
Later Group	22	5	6	4	6	1
Elementary	20	4	6	2	7	1
Secondary	19	3	7	3	5	1
8 Years Experience or Less	9	0	5	0	4	0
9-15 Years Experience	15	6	3	0	5	1
16+ Years Experience	13	1	4	4	3	1

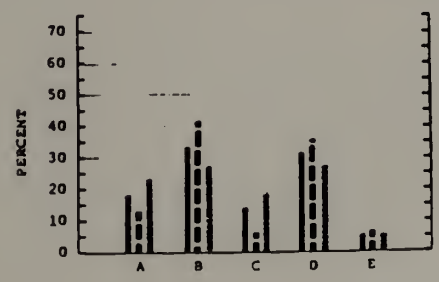
1. TOTAL GROUP



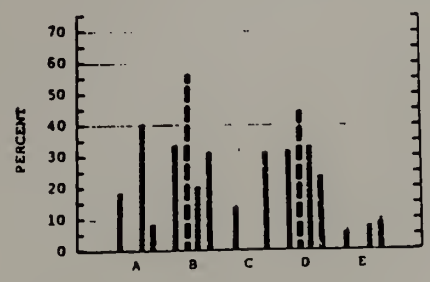
3. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. ELEMENTARY b. SECONDARY



2. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. EARLIER GROUP b. LATER GROUP



4. TOTAL GROUP VS. a. 8 YEARS EXPERIENCE OR LESS b. 9 - 15 YEARS EXPERIENCE c. 16+ YEARS EXPERIENCE



STATEMENT 15. Comments (62%)

01 I do not think all teachers should be trained to be supervisors. The learning styles of some people would cause them a great deal of stress in a supervisory role.

02 I believed this statement for many years. The realization is, however, that teachers in general, don't want to do this. They want to be with their kids and in their own room. They resent peers supervising them and feel we are paid to do it. I am now inclined to believe that as I feel teachers are fragmented enough in trying to keep pace with our continual curriculum changes. If they grow in that area, I'm satisfied.

03 I think teachers should be trained in how to supervise but not how to be a supervisor. Teachers need to understand supervision and how to relate to improving instruction and learning.

05 Agree, in terms of all teachers understanding the expectations and criteria for good teaching.

06 Not all teachers should be trained to be supervisors. Some would do a lousy job even though trained. The interest must be there.

08 Several teachers have expressed reluctance to be involved on that level, do not want to evaluate their peers. They feel it a very strong role of administration--not classroom.

09 Not necessarily to be trained as supervisors but understand the elements of clinical supervision.

10 An important experience not now available to most teachers.

12 All teachers should be trained to be supervisors in the context of offering collegial assistance and in willingly offering tips, suggestions, and constructive criticism.

STATEMENT 15. Comments continued.

13 All teachers should be knowledgeable of the process and how to benefit from it, but they do not need to be trained as supervisors.

14 The knowledge base for individuals must be considered.

16 The word all, in the above statement, bothers me. Some, most, all supervisors in place of the word all, I would class this as "A."

18 It would be very important because it would 1) enhance looking at her own performance in relationship to students' performances, and 2) provide insight into supervision and hopefully assist her in knowing when she is receiving appropriate supervision.

22 Not <u>all.</u>

23 Teachers can be trained to be better "learning guides" without developing the skills necessary to supervise. They should be trained to be self-evaluative.

25 In a way all teachers are supervisors. The need for improvement is forever--but again CLINICAL SUPERVISION is critical for <u>all</u> teachers.

27 Most important statement in the whole document.

28 There are many teachers for whom "growth issues" could be negatively received. This would mainly include the excellent staff members who may view "growth issues" as criticism at relatively insignificant items.

29 Interestingly teachers who are comfortable with clinical procedures utilize similar self-evaluative procedures with their students.

32 Teachers don't have to be trained to be supervisors. They and administrators have to be well trained in techniques and procedures that are effective as well as weaknesses that can weaken effectiveness.

STATEMENT 15. Comments continued.

33 Clinical supervision is important to help the educational atmosphere of building a good non-threatening environment, sharing instructional strengths, patterns and providing trusts among the faculty. Training teachers to become supervisors is not the main priority.

34 All teachers should learn the process and it would help them to support each other.

38 Understanding the process and working within a supervision model is essential. Strengths and weaknesses of individuals must be considered in identifying specific roles. All teachers do not have to be trained as supervisors, nor as principals. The value of clinical supervision should be understood and supported in relation to what happens to the kids in the classroom.

39 We plan to do without department chairpersons.

SUMMARY

The opinionnaire (Appendix D) was submitted to forty-five (45) school administrators in three Connecticut public school systems and thirty-nine (39) completed responses were returned. The data was displayed for each of the fifteen (15) statements and in total. The displays took the form of four (4) bar graphs for each statement and the total group.

The responses were subgrouped according to when the training was received, the number of years of administrative experience and whether the administrator worked in the elementary or secondary area. A general overview of the data showed that there was little difference between the responses among the various subgroups, especially the elementary and secondary subgroups. What differences there were did not form a pattern throughout the fifteen (15) statements and generally reflected positive responses, but occasionally more responders took a neutral position. Significantly, the Earlier Group, who received the training over two years ago and a full year before the Later Group, retained a very high positive attitude about clinical supervision.

The Total Group demonstrated an over eighty-three (83) percent positive rate for the fifteen (15) statements

and that no subgroup had an overall negative rate in excess of eight (8) percent.

The comments sections attached to each statement were critical to this study of administrator attitudes. The comments centered on the positive, supportive and communicative aspects of clinical supervision and related it directly to instructional improvement and job satisfaction. The primary caution throughout the comments sections was concern for the skills, attitudes and training of the supervisors. There was little negative reaction about teacher attitude or union obstruction. There were some concerns about time contraints and the use of clinical supervision with poor teachers. There appears to be little conflict in the opinion of the responders with clinical supervision and the school's ongoing evaluation program.

The statement receiving the most negative response pertained to the training of all teachers to be supervisors. The responders were of the opinion that teachers should be familiar with the process of clinical supervision, but need not be trained to be supervisors.

The positive responses towards clinical supervision found in the opinionnaire findings merit study by proponents of the effective school movement. If changes towards effectiveness are centered in individual schools

and require strong principals who are responsible for the establishment of a positive school climate, then clinical supervision should have a place in such an institution.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

PURPOSE

Clinical supervision is a viable vehicle for principals to gain recognition as instructional leaders in their buildings. Based on twenty-three (23) years of experience as a public school central office administrator and from personal training in clinical supervision and most recently through the professional literature researched for this paper, this writer believes there is a need for more research and related training programs in preparing principals to become instructional leaders. This realization led to this study; an effort to link the research of clinical supervision, the effective school movement and school leadership.

Teachers consistently report their feelings of isolation and that their primary source for instructional help is other teachers. They are generally critical of the amount and quality of help they receive from administrators. Training in clinical supervision could give principals the necessary supervisory skills that relate directly to the work of classroom teachers and they, along with the faculty, could become a prime source of academic help for teachers. It is the intent of this

study to relate clinical supervision to instructional improvement.

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURES

EFFECTIVE SCHOOL RESEARCH

The effective school research identified practices and characteristics associated with measurable improvements in student achievement and behavior. Edmonds and other early researchers included factors such as high staff expectations for student achievement, emphasis on basic instruction, orderly environment (discipline), close monitoring of student performance, and strong leadership. Later researchers would expand this list of factors to include: a clear school mission, productive student time on task and open home-school relations.

These studies have worked backwards from a judgment on the part of researchers of effectiveness in an educational setting to a description of its process and dynamics. As a result, educators have useful lists of positive characteristics but less sense of processes for building those into currently ineffective schools.

There has developed from this rapidly growing effective school research a general body of knowledge that describes certain characteristics and conditions of schools that affect the possibilities of school improvement. This research has provided some conceptual

tools pertaining to school climate and has well documented the fact that a school is a complex organization. In summary, the research indicates that when a school has vital leadership, a committed staff and community support, it is in position to start considering improvements.

Because of the problems in identifying and controlling variables, this kind of study causes researchers more organizational difficulties than the traditional historical (study and interpretation of past events) or experimental (establishment of cause and effect relationships) research efforts.

The frustrations experienced by these researchers were evident and were compounded by the criticisms from scientific purists. It is this writer's opinion that these descriptive studies make a meaningful contribution to the body of educational research and are essential to this effort. Hence, points raised by the critics were explored in detail and an attempt was made to establish certain directions for the practitioner using the findings of effective school research to cause changes in a particular school. First, this research is not to be considered in scientific terms but rather as a framework for creative educational change. Secondly, this research is to be thought of as situational in its application and

the school practioner must understand that no single combination of variables will produce an effective school.

Improvement efforts depend on leadership, staff and community commitment and their collective capacity to initiate and sustain innovations. Whether a school needs to be encouraged to change or given help and what form this help takes depends on a wide variety of local school conditions.

Because it has an intuitive logic, effective school research has become popular among school people. However, the characteristics of an effective school are descriptors of what an effective school looks like and not a recipe for effectiveness. The individual variations among schools often hide the difficulty in achieving the purposes of effectiveness. The hard work of finding strategies that make schools work is just beginning. Clinical supervision, being an ongoing process, should be a useful vehicle for school people in their quest for effectiveness because it has the flexibility to facilitate any classroom occurrence and all subject matter content.

LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

While building management responsibilities cannot be ignored, principals also serve as instructional leaders. Most principals need to provide more time in their daily schedule for instructional matters. The research shows

that this advice is more true for secondary principals. The principal who does not supervise in the classrooms, become involved in instructional planning or follow student academic progress will soon find his/her staff seeking alternative sources for professional help. He/she must have the necessary and varied leadership skills for climate improvement; which requires not only responding to existing concerns and expectations but also possessing the ability to effectively initiate new positive expectations and conditions.

If principals are to become leaders and not just managers, helpers and not just evaluators, and colleagues and not just bosses; they should consider the five strategies outlined in the C.A.C.D. (1982-83)

Model of Instructional Leadership. Instructional leadership has been defined as follows:

> Those acts or behaviors which directly influence the successful accomplishment of the chief mission of the school; namely, the learning of students. The activities in which instructional leaders are most heavily engaged are those that enhance the understanding and application of the skills of effective instruction throughout the curriculum. These activities are 1) school improvement planning, 2) instructional improvement, 3) teacher evaluation, 4) program improvement, and 5) staff development (p. 4).

The principal's leadership is grounded in the "vision" he/she has for the school and communicating these goals of excellence to the staff. The principal makes

this vision operational by becoming skilled in the five (5) strategies listed above. For many principals this will require a significant change in attitudes, a major reordering of time priorities, and extensive training in these skills.

This study has tried to make educational practitioners, seeking to implement change, aware of the problems related to identifying school needs.

To assist the principal in these change implementing/problem solving responsibilities, the study attempts to develop two positions. First, is the proposition that there is no best style of leadership and that successful leaders are those who can adapt to the needs of the staff and the situations peculiar to the school. Secondly, is the proposition that there has emerged from the literature certain key characteristics of effective instructional leadership and they are: goal setting ability, openness, self-confidence, tolerance for ambiguity, assertiveness, sensitivity to the dynamics of power, an analytical perspective, and the ability to "take charge." Those objectives describe a principal implementing educational change viewed as a knowledgeable colleague, process monitor and supportive leader.

CLINICAL SUPERVISION RESEARCH

This study indicated positive support for clinical supervision as a useful process-monitoring tool. In effective schools, teachers and administrators frequently observe each other teaching and provide useful feedback. The focus of clinical supervision is on the practice of what teachers do in the classroom rather than on the making of judgements concerning the competency of the teachers. When properly implemented, clinical supervision develops a positive, collegial relationship between subordinate and supervisor. The intended final outcome is a relationship based on trust; in which the teacher is not afraid to discuss concerns and problems.

This study describes a typical clinical supervision cycle and relates it to the principal's role as an instructional leader.

Clinical supervision is engendered to traditional supervision/evaluation as a vehicle to instructional improvement. Most teacher evaluation plans identify effective or ineffective teaching without addressing the question of how to change teaching behavior. Traditional supervision/evaluation assumes that once teachers are told what ought to be done, they would naturally know what to do and do it. This has often not been the outcome. Too often traditional evaluation has left off with assigning a

teacher a grade on a negative to positive evaluation instrument. Clinical supervision expands this traditional process, so that the end result is not a grade or ranking, but rather a mutually determined educational prescription.

The research supported the proposition that major changes in instruction and curriculum are more likely to be successfully implemented if they are based on collegiality and collaboration rather than on line authority. Clinical supervision, as a function of supervision, could be a valuable tool to the principal in his/her role as change agent.

IN-SERVICE EXPERIENCE

An actual clinical supervision in-service training program is described in this portion of the study. This in-service expereince serves as a "how to" tool for the educational practitioner and as evidence that clinical supervision techniques are being implemented in school systems. This training format also links with the works of McGregor, Maslow and Herzberg.

Before listing the findings that appear to be of special note from the opinionnaire, this portion of the study has limitations inherent within its methodology that restrict the generalization of results. The administrators are drawn from just three school systems, with all principals and supervisory staff offered the

training. In the Earlier/Later subgroups statistics, all responders from one district are in the Earlier Group and the Later Group is composed of the administrators of the remaining two systems.

The comment section feedback is equal in significance to the statistical data. These comments provide the practitioner some insight as to the positive, supportive and communicative aspects of clinical supervision as related to instructional improvement and job satisfaction, and make a contribution towards explaining and even (in some specific situations) predicting administrator attitude.

The comments demonstrate that, through participatory management, greater creativity and production are expected and accomplished. In this mode of supervision, managers are oriented towards people rather than production. These high production managers delegate, allow subordinates to participate in decisions, are relatively nonpunitive, and stress two-way communications. The comments sections stress these points and predict high morale and increased effectiveness for schools where they exist.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The following general findings of the opinionnaire appear to be deserving of special attention:

1. Eighty-three (83) percent of the responses were positive; showing strong principal support for clinical supervision.
2. Clinical supervision did not appear to be an "educational fad" as evidenced by the Earlier Group having a higher positive score than the one year Later Group.
3. There appeared to be no distinction between elementary and secondary administrators in their replies.
4. Even though the group averaged seventeen years administrative experience and most of their previous training in evaluation/supervision techniques had been of a traditional nature, the response to clinical supervision was overwhelmingly positive.
5. Ninety-five (95) percent positive responses were received to the statement linking clinical supervision to instructional improvement and a better than eighty percent rate linking it to encouraging staff to become change agents.
6. There were no negative responses to the statement that clinical supervision promotes a sense of collegiality.

7. The use of clinical supervision as the major basis of teacher evaluation received better than a seventy-five (75) percent favorable response.
8. The fact that ninety-five (95) percent of the responses were favorable to the statement that there was no conflict for a principal serving as a supervisor and as an evaluator contradicts the fear of this dual responsibility raised by some of the researchers.
9. There were cautions highlighted by the opinionnaire and they centered around the possible incompatibility of clinical supervision with district policies and evaluation procedures. Response No. 29 to Statement 12 is the best example of this point. "In my opinion this process is mutually exclusive and contrary to summative evaluation processes existing in our group."
10. There was obvious reluctance with this group of administrators to agree that training in clinical supervision was for all teachers.

The following general findings from the comments sections of the opinionnaire also appear deserving of special attention:

1. Principals report that teachers strongly favored the nonthreatening nature of clinical supervision and

were more willing to share experiences and explore weaknesses.

2. Principals report that clinical supervision was superior to traditional supervision in promoting teacher confidence and morale, and attribute this to the clinical supervision technique of building on strengths and emphasis on self-discovery.
3. Principals report that clinical supervision increased staff sharing, collegiality, mutual support efforts, and rapport.
4. Under a clinical supervision format, it was more likely that teachers saw themselves as change agents, but they coupled this teacher role with administrative support.
5. Clinical supervision experiences make teachers more aware of goal setting and that they were part of an ongoing educational process.
6. The principals report negligible conflict between clinical supervision and the district's evaluation process and feel confident that they can perform both roles.
7. The cautions throughout the comments sections centered on the teachers' concerns with the attitudes, supervision skills and training of the principals. There are also concerns with time

constraints that they see clinical supervision cycles requiring.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

The findings would be beneficial to educational practitioners if future researchers were to conduct a similar survey with teacher groups and compare the results with principal group responses. The comment sections of this opinionnaire were relatively free of negatives about teacher unions, thus indicating that cooperation for such a study might be possible.

Research would benefit from a study that used the opinionnaire in a particular school system and then followed it with a climate inventory survey to compare findings. There are a number of commercial inventory surveys available. This writer is most familiar with the "Effective School Battery" produced by Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc., Odessa, Florida.

An obvious follow-up to this study would be for future works to continue where this one concluded. This study concerned itself with assessing principal attitudes about clinical supervision. It does not address the question of actual implementation. The comment sections give some indication of implementation efforts but not in any organized and measurable fashion.

An onsite study of schools, who have trained their staff in clinical supervision, is crucial in order to determine the degree of implementation and staff receptivity. It would have added significance if the study spanned several years and several visits were made to each school included in the study by the research team.

Much of the literature on instructional supervision has addressed supervisory tasks and the "role" of supervision. Future research efforts must address in depth the identification and development of the skills needed to make supervision effective. The work of Hall and others included in this study are an important effort in this direction, but much more research needs to be done. Complicating this type of research is the already established fact that no single skill or set of skills can make supervision effective but rather must be adapted within a situational context. Educational researchers are just beginning to get an understanding of the many behaviors that exist in this complex human organization and to develop this data into essential concepts.

The material contained in this study would be useful to stimulate additional inquiry into expanded research in the areas of principal selection and in-service training; especially in relation to staff supervision. Too often these selection and training activities focus on

management skills rather than human. While both skills are important, it has been this writer's experience that principals using a preponderance of managerial skills provide supervision that is long on style and short on substance. This study outlines those positive behaviors necessary for effective supervision. These behaviors need to be further described, field tested and packaged in usable form for those responsible for principal selection and training.

This study briefly mentions peer supervision. There is an important role in today's school for peer supervision and it would be beneficial if more research in this area were conducted. This concept is becoming more important each year as principals get busier and left with less time for observing teachers. "The experiences of systematically observing one's colleagues, analyzing collected data, and structuring and conducting conferences may well contribute as much or more to the professional development of the observer as to the refined practice of the teacher being observed" (Goldsberry, 1984).

Finally, more field research is needed concerning clinical supervision as an intervention vehicle in relation to other organizational interventions the school is using. This supervisory approach would have little effect in schools unless it harmonized with staff

development, teacher evaluation and curriculum development.

In summary, this study has demonstrated via the review of related literature, an actual in-service experience and the results of an opinionnaire that clinical supervision can be a powerful supervisory tool in the hands of a properly trained principal. Those holding leadership positions in education must bring this training to principals and potential principals, for these are the change agents with the responsibility for instructional improvement. No other position offers as much hope for exerting influence on school life.

EPILOGUE

Collegial supervision focused on learning processes. There was little inclusion of data and/or recommendations from over a dozen national reports on excellence. Those reports stressed factors such as increased course credits, increased certification credits for teachers, merit pay, minimum competency tests of basic skills, more homework, increased evaluation of staff, and standardization of course offerings. Many of those factors had political popularity because of their relative minor cost. Factors such as increased funds for staff salaries and staff

development activities were sometimes mentioned, but rarely implemented.

Education practitioners should pay less heed to input/output factors (Duke, 1985) and focus more on classroom teaching/learning processes in order to develop and nurture a positive and sustained professional climate. Most schools seeking educational improvements will continue with existing staff and funds. Collegial supervision can be accomplished within current school resources.

APPENDIX A

Figure 1. Characteristics of "Effective" Schools.

Brookover and Lezotte (1979)	Edmonds* (1981)	Phi Delta Kappa (1980)	Rutter and others (1979)
• Improving schools accept and emphasize the importance of basic skills mastery as prime goals and objectives • Staff of improving schools believe *all* students can master the basic skills objectives and they believe the principal shares this belief • Staff of improving schools expect their students will go on with their education • Staff of improving schools do not make excuses: they assume responsibility for teaching basic skills and are committed to do so • Staff of improving schools spend more time on achieving basic skills objectives • Principals at improving schools are assertive instructional leaders and disciplinarians: and they assume responsibility for the evaluation of the achievement of basic skills objectives • Staff at improving schools accept the concept of accountability and are involved in developing (or using) accountability models • Teachers at improving schools are not very satisfied or complacent about the status quo • There is more parent-initiated contact and involvement at improving schools (even though the overall amount of parent involvement is less) • The compensatory education programs in improving schools de-emphasize paraprofessional involvement and teacher involvement in the selection of Comp-Ed-bound students	• Clarity that pupil acquisition of the basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities • There is a climate of expectation in which no children are permitted to fall below minimum but efficacious levels of achievement • Administrative leadership is strong and without it the disparate elements of good schooling can be neither brought together nor kept together • A means is present by which pupil progress can be frequently monitored • There is an atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conducive to the instructional business at hand	• Successful schools are characterized by clearly stated curricular goals and objectives • The leaders' attitudes toward urban education and expectations for school or program success determine the impact of the leader on exceptional schools • The behavior of the designated school or program leader is crucial in determining school success • Successful urban schools frequently employ techniques of individualized instruction • Structured learning environments are particularly successful in urban classrooms • Reductions in adult/child ratios are associated with positive school performance • Successful schools are often supported with special project funds from federal, state, and local sources • Successful urban schools are characterized by high levels of parental contact with the school and parental involvement with school activities • Successful schools frequently use staff development or inservice training programs to realize their objectives • The greater the specificity or focus of the training program in terms of goals or processes, the greater the likelihood of its success • Resource and facility manipulations alone are insufficient to affect school outcomes	• Outcomes were better in schools where teachers expected the children to achieve well • Outcomes were better in schools that provided pleasant working conditions for the pupils • Outcomes were better in schools where immediate, direct praise and approval were the prevalent means of classroom feedback • Outcomes were better in schools where teachers presented themselves as positive role models demonstrating punctuality, concern for the physical well-being of the school building, concern for the emotional well-being of the pupils, and restraint in the use of physical punishment • Children's behavior was better in schools where teachers were readily available to be consulted by children about problems and where many children consulted with teachers • Outcomes were better in schools where a high proportion of children held some kind of position of responsibility in the school system • A school's atmosphere is influenced positively by the degree to which it functions as a coherent whole, with agreed ways of doing things that are consistent throughout the school and that have the general support of all staff

*Edmonds' characteristics are drawn from a later report. They do not come from his and Fredericksen's 1979 study

Taken from: D'Amico, J. Each effective school may be one of a kind. Educational Leadership, 1982, 40(3), 61-62.

APPENDIX B

Elements of Effective Schooling

Leadership

- Identifying School Needs
- Determining Implementation Level of Effective Schooling Practices
- Developing Status Report
- Defining Improvement Goals
- Planning Improvement Approach
- Preparing Staff for Improvement Implementation
- Securing Resources to Support Improvements
- Monitoring and Evaluating Implementation of Improvements
- Renewing Improvement Efforts Annually or Biennially

School Environment

- Expectations for Student Learning
- Expectations for Student Social Behavior
- Expectations for Staff
- Use of Time
- Rewards and Incentives
- Parent Involvement

Curriculum

- Learning Objectives
- Resources
- Instructional Strategies and Techniques

Classroom Instruction and Management

- Expectations for Behavior
- Classroom Routines and Procedures
- Managing Student Behavior
- Expectations for Learning
- Placement and Grouping
- Stage Setting
- Instruction and Direction
- Use of Time
- Review and Reteaching
- Student/Teacher Interactions
- Incentives and Rewards for Student Achievement and Behaviors

Assessment and Evaluation

- Alignment
- Procedures
- Uses of Assessment Data
- Monitoring Staff Performance.

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APPENDIX C

INDICATORS OF CHANGE FACILITATOR STYLE

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Vision and Goal Setting	Accepts district goals as school goals	Accepts district goals but makes adjustments at school level to accommodate particular needs of the school	Respects district goals but insists on goals for school that give priority to this school's student needs
	Allows others to generate the initiative for any school improvement that is needed	Engages others in regular review of school situation to avoid any reduction in school effectiveness.	Identifies areas in need of improvement and initiates action for change
	Relies primarily on others for introduction of new ideas into the school	Open to new ideas and introduces some to faculty as well as allowing others in school to do so	Sorts through new ideas presented from within and outside the school and implements those deemed to have high promise for school improvement in designated priority areas
	Future goals/ direction of school are determined in response to district level goals/priorities	Anticipates the instructional and management needs of school and plans for them	Takes the lead in identifying future goals and priorities for the school and for accomplishing them
	Responds to teachers', students' and parents' interest in terms of goals of school and district	Collaborates with others in reviewing and identifying school goals	Establishes framework of expectations for the school and involves others in setting goals within that framework

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Structuring the School as a Work Place	Grants teachers much autonomy and independence and allows them to provide guidelines for students	Provides guidelines and expectations for teachers and parents to maintain effective operation of the school	Sets standards and expects high performance levels for teachers, students and self
	Ensures that school and district policies are followed and strives to see that disruptions in the school day are minimal	Works with teachers, students and parents to maintain effective operation of the school	Establishes instructional program as first priority; personal and collaborative efforts are directed at supporting that priority
	Responds to requests and needs as they arise in an effort to keep all involved persons comfortable and satisfied	Expects all involved to contribute to effective instruction and management	Insists that all persons involved give priority to teaching and learning
	Indefinitely delays having staff do tasks if it is perceived staff are overloaded	Contends that staff are already very busy and paces request and task loads accordingly	Will knowingly sacrifice short term feelings of staff if doing a task now is necessary for the success of longer term school goals
	Allows school norms to evolve over time	Helps establish and clarify norms for the school	Establishes, clarifies and models norms for the school
Managing Change	Accepts district expectations for change	Meets district expectations for changes required	Accommodates district expectations for change and pushes adjustments and additions that will benefit his/her school

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Managing Change	Sanctions the change process and attempts to resolve conflicts when they arise	Maintains regular involvement in the change process sometimes with a focus on management and at other times with a focus on the impact of the change	Directs the change process in ways that aim toward effective innovation use by all teachers
	Relies on information provided by other change facilitators, usually from outside the school for knowledge of the innovation	Uses information from a variety of sources for gaining knowledge of the innovation	Seeks out information from teachers, district personnel, and others to gain an understanding of the innovation and its demands
	Develops minimal knowledge of what use of the innovation entails	Becomes knowledgeable about general use of the innovation and what is needed to support use	Develops sufficient knowledge about use to be able to make specific teaching suggestions and troubleshoot problems that may emerge
	Communicates expectations relative to change only in very general terms	Informs teachers that they are expected to use the innovation	Gives teachers specific expectations and steps regarding use of the innovation
	Monitors change effort primarily through brief, spontaneous conversations and unsolicited reports	Monitors the change effort through planned conversations with individuals and groups and informal observations of instruction	Closely monitors the change effort through classroom observation, review of lesson plans and student performance

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Managing Change	Information gained through monitoring may or may not be discussed with a teacher	Information gained through monitoring is discussed with teachers and compared with expected behavior	Information gained through monitoring is fed back directly to teachers, compared with expected behavior and a plan for next steps including improvements is established
Collaborating and Delegating	Ideas are registered by every staff member with one or two most heavily influencing the ultimate flow	Ideas are offered by both staff and the principal and consensus is gradually developed	Ideas are sought from teachers as well as their reactions to principal's ideas; then priorities are set
	Allows others to assume responsibility for the change effort	Tends to do most of the intervening on the change effort but will share some responsibility	Will delegate to carefully chosen others some of the responsibility for the change effort
	Those who assume responsibility have considerable autonomy and independence	Coordinates responsibilities and stays informed about how others are handling their responsibilities	Establishes first which responsibilities will be delegated and how they are to be accomplished, then monitors closely the carrying out of tasks
	Those who assume responsibility are more likely to be from outside the school e.g. district facilitators	Others who assume responsibility may come from within or from outside the school	Others who assume responsibility are likely to be from within the school
Decision Making	Accepts the rules of the district	Lives by the rules of the district, but goes beyond minimum requirements	Respects the rules of the district but determines behavior by what is required for maximum school effectiveness

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Decision Making	As the deadlines approach makes those decisions required for on-going operation of the school	Actively involved in routine decision-making relative to instructional and administrative affairs	Routine decisions are handled through established responsibilities. Non-routine decisions are handled with dispatch following solocitation of teacher ideas
	Decisions are influenced more by immediate circumstances of the situation and formal policies than longer term consequences	Decisions are based on the norms and expectations that guide the school and the management needs of the school	Decisions are based on the standards of high expectations and what is best for the school as a whole, particularly learning outcomes and the longer term goals
	Allows all interested parties to participate in decision making or to make decisions independently	Allows others to participate in decision making, but maintains control of the process through personal involvement	Allows others to participate in decision making and delegates decision making to others but within carefully established parameters related to goals and expectations
Guiding and Supporting	Believes teachers are professionals and leaves them alone to do their work unless they request assistance or support	Believes teachers are a part of total faculty and establishes guidelines for all teachers for involvement with the change effort	Believes teachers are responsible for developing the best possible instruction and establishes expectations consistent with this view
	When requests for assistance or support are received, attempts to respond in a way that is satisfying to one who made the request	Monitors the progress of the change effort and attempts to anticipate needed assistance and resources	Anticipates the need for assistance and resources and provides support as needed (whether or not requested) and sometimes in advance of potential blockages

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Guiding and Supporting	Relies on teachers to report how things are going and to share any major problems	Maintains close contact with teachers and the change effort in an attempt to identify things that might be done to assist teachers with the change	Collects and uses information from a variety of sources to monitor the change effort and to plan interventions that will increase the probability of a successful, quality implementation
	Relies on teachers to report how things are going and to share any major problems	In addition to the regularly provided assistance, seeks and uses sources within and outside the school to develop teacher knowledge and skills	Takes the lead in identifying when teachers have need for increased knowledge and skills and will see that it is provided, most likely using the personnel and resources from within the building
	Provides general support for teachers as persons and as professionals	Support is directed to individuals and subgroups for specific purposes related to the change as well as to provide for their personal welfare	Provides direct programmatic support through interventions targeted to individuals and the staff as a whole
	Tries to minimize the demands of the change effort on teachers	Modifies demands of the change effort to protect teachers from perceived overloads	Keeps ever present demands on teachers for effective implementation
Structuring their Leadership Role	Sees role as administrator	Sees roles as avoiding or minimizing problems so instruction may occur	Sees role as one of ensuring school has strong instructional program and that teachers are teaching and students are learning

Dimensions/ Behaviors	Responder	Manager	Initiator
Structuring their Leadership Role	Identification and accomplishment of tasks are determined by the opinions and concerns presented	Is consistent in setting and accomplishing tasks and does much of it himself/herself	Identified and accomplished tasks are consistant with school priorities but responsibility may be delegated to others
	Maintains a general sense of "where the school is" and how teachers are feeling about things	Is well informed about what is happening in the school and who is doing what	Maintains specific knowledge of all that is going on in the school including classrooms through direct contact with individual teachers and students
	Responds to others in a manner intended to please them	Responds to others in a way that will be supportive of the operation of the school	Responds to others with concern but places student priorities above all else

(Hall, G. et al., 1984, pp. 25-29)

APPENDIX D

CLINICAL SUPERVISION OPINIONNAIRE

This opinionnaire is being sent to certain administrators and supervisors in three (3) Connecticut public school systems who have recently experienced a series of clinical supervision cycles. The purpose of this instrument is to attempt to measure the effect of these clinical supervision activities on you and to determine what changes in your supervisory/administrative behavior have also taken place.

There is no intent in this study to evaluate individuals or schools. To allay any concerns that you might have in this regard, your anonymous response is certainly acceptable.

On the attached sheets you will find fifteen (15) statements, each devoted to what is generally considered an important area of administrative/supervisory responsibility. We ask that you carefully study each statement and make a determination comparing your performance in your current position, now that you have had a clinical supervision experience, with your performance in each area prior to the clinical supervision opportunities. For each statement you are asked to select one of five responses and they are:

A - Strongly Agree
B - Agree
C - No Opinion/Not Applicable
D - Disagree
E - Strongly Disagree

After each there is an opportunity for you to share an experience that relates to this area of responsibility (either positive or negative). You are urged to relate as many experiences and examples of activities as possible. This is an important part of this study. The results of this study will be shared with anyone that is interested. The data will be part of a doctoral dissertation on-going at the University of Massachusetts. I wish to express my thanks to you for taking the time to complete this opinionnaure. Hopefully, you have helped advance the study of clinical supervision. Please do not hesitate to call upon me for any service I can render now or future.

Wilson E. Deakin, Jr.
Assistant Superintendent for Administration
Manchester Public Schools
45 North School Street
Manchester, Connecticut 06040

CLINICAL SUPERVISION OPINIONNAIRE

Please circle one letter code after each statement.

1. Clinical supervision can be an important tool in unifying a faculty and identifying staff-related schoolwide goals and objectives.

A B C D E

2. Clinical supervision has the potential to broaden teacher horizons by increasing teachers' involvement in the school's educational process.

A B C D E

3. Clinical supervision promotes increased staff self-direction and analysis and can result in significant instructional improvement.

A B C D E

4. Clinical supervision emphasizes the gathering of performance information and offers individualized assistance in building upon a teacher's strengths.

A B C D E

5. Clinical supervision experiences require the administrator to have a belief in the worth of others and promotes within the administrator and teachers a sense of collegiality.

A B C D E

6. Clinical supervision promotes recognition of staff members which is so necessary for morale purposes. It assists in relating this recognition to school goals as well as to overall educational goals.

A B C D E

7. Clinical supervision promotes a collegial relationship between and among teachers and administrators that reflects mutual respect and confidence.

A B C D E

8. Clinical supervision encourages staff to become change agents and to explore different strategies and procedures.

A B C D E

9. The use of clinical supervision as a major basis for an evaluation system encourages classroom teaching/learning as the single most important factor which is evaluated.

A B C D E

10. Clinical supervision is compatible with the school system's staff evaluation program; they can run in an integrated fashion.

A B C D E

11. Clinical supervision is compatible with the Board of Education expectation that administrators are accountable for teacher evaluation and that clinical supervision is not mutually exclusive from the teacher evaluation process.

A B C D E

12. The teacher supervision/evaluation program should have a high priority within a school system and should be the basis for curriculum and staff development decisions.

A B C D E

13. It is possible for the same administrator to be an individual teacher's clinical supervisor and also the school system evaluator.

A B C D E

14. Clinical supervision has as one of its outgrowths the opportunity for individual teachers to express their needs and request specific assistance.

A B C D E

15. Clinical supervision is critical for all teachers, especially as it relates to planning and instructional responsibilities; therefore, a strong case could be made for the proposition that all teachers should be trained to be supervisors.

A B C D E

Please identify your position:

/ / Elementary
/ / Secondary
/ / Central Office

/ / Administrator
/ / Supervisor

/ / Total Years of Administrative Experience

Please return by _____
Date

2/6/84

APPENDIX E

DEFINITION OF TERMS IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Academic/Achievement: This refers to student learning performances and behaviors in the classroom.

Clinical Supervision: A form of supervision that has a focus on 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 (Acheson and Gall 1980).

Collegial Relationship: A non-hierarchical method of supervision characterized by the collaborative efforts of teachers (not necessarily to the exclusion of supervisors) to accomplish the common goals of instructional improvement, recognition of achievement and the introduction of innovations (Sergiovanni, 1982).

Effective Schools: Schools in which there are no educationally significant differences between different racial, ethnic and social class groups of students and/or one in which the individual level correlation between pupil background and performance is statistically and educationally significantly lower than it is in the general population (Cohen 1980, p 9).

Instructional Leadership: Actions that a principal (the focus for this project) takes, or delegates to others to promote growth in student learning (DeBevoise 1984).

School Climate: The prevailing or normative conditions, practices and events (formed by the norms, beliefs and attitudes of those in the school environment) which affect the attainment of satisfaction and accomplishment (Kelley 1980).

Traditional Supervision and Evaluation: This refers to a process of making considerable judgements concerning professional accomplishments and competencies, based on a broad knowledge of the areas of performance involved, the characteristics of the situation of the individual being evaluated and the specific standards of performance preestablished for this position.

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