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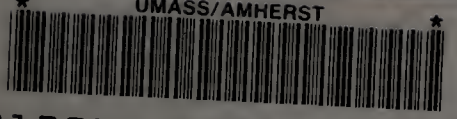
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FIVE COLLEGE DEPOSITORY

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL EVALUATION
PROCESS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

A Dissertation Presented

by

JOSE Z. DIAZ

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

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 1991

School of Education

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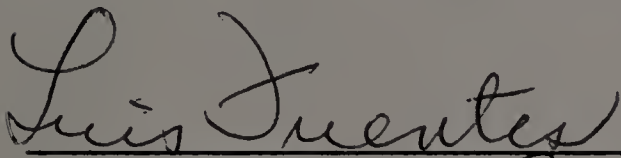
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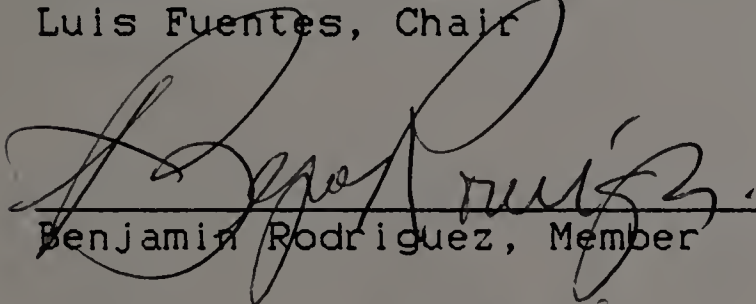
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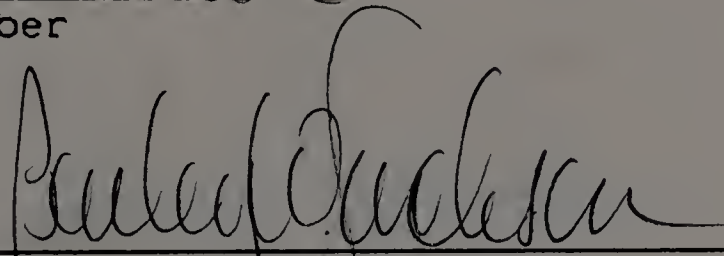
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DEDICATION

This is a moment of joy and pride; the fact that I have reached the top of the educational ladder, representing many years of study and sacrifice.

The seventh of eleven brothers and sisters in the Diaz family finds it a real pleasure to present this dissertation representing many efforts, sacrifice, and over a lengthy time to achieve this long expected goal. Other goals will follow, (if God permits), but for the present I am overwhelmed.

It is with great pleasure that I dedicate this dissertation to my parents, who guided my first steps in life and motivated me to stay on the educational ladder. For that and many other good reasons, Mr. Jose (Cheo) Diaz Nunez (in memory) and Mrs. Ramona Diaz Flores, I say thanks for teaching me to follow the right path and to understand that everything one gets is based on effort and sacrifice.

My family has followed my progress at each stage, and are witnesses to the many hours of work and effort expended in the endeavor. To my wife, Mariana Carrasquillo de Diaz, my daughter, Liz Sandra Diaz, and my son, Jose Fernando Diaz, thank you for your support and patience.

To my brothers and sister who have been supportive during all these years.

There is another person whom I give a lot of credit because of his motivation to continue undergraduate and graduate studies in the field of education. Gaspar Rodriguez, thank you for your advice as a teacher and a friend.

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I wish to express my deepest gratitude to some of the people who provided support, encouragement and guidance throughout this process. I am very thankful to all of them for their invaluable help.

Dr. Luis Fuentes, chairperson of my committee who, apart from being a wonderful professor, possesses so many enviable qualities as a human being that I feel myself very comfortable talking to him, I say thank you for all your advise and support.

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Hector Ortiz, the other part of the "TRIO", thank you for the unselfish assistance you gave us when we first came to Springfield.

I also thank the Western Mass Public Schools and the School District personnel who helped me complete the research.

ABSTRACT

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL EVALUATION
PROCESS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

SEPTEMBER 1991

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Directed by Professor Luis Fuentes

This study is motivated by the fact that pedagogy has become a major political issue in this decade. State and Federal Governments, Boards of Education, School Systems, and Educators at all levels are trying to come up with strategies to put education on the right track and to recapture the interest of young people.

Financial problems, drugs, lack of interest from parents and students, and poorly motivated personnel, may be some of the factors affecting the teaching process in school environment resulting in the lowering of the quality of instruction.

Among the factors that might be affecting the teaching process in the schools are poorly motivated instructional personnel, who play so important a role in creating a successful school environment. If a teacher is not well motivated, student achievement will be negatively affected and the schools can still fail.

Even if one works in a new building with modern facilities, with the best instructional materials, selected students, flexible schedules, is fairly well paid, and has competent colleagues, there are no guarantees of success if teacher motivation is low.

If a supervisor detects that the staff is not well motivated for whatever reason, a solution must be found.

Through this study, I reviewed various styles of supervision that instructional supervisors can use as models for assessing classroom teachers. The study focused on five of the most common models used in different school districts within the state.

1. Cooperative Supervision
2. Self-directed Supervision
3. Clinical Supervision
4. Oriented Monitoring
5. Differentiated Supervision

The study was conducted among teachers in a Western Massachusetts Public School System. A questionnaire was administered to collect the data. The collected data answered the following questions:

1. Is the teacher evaluation process contributing to the teaching-learning process in the classroom?
2. Are supervisors providing information about the options that teachers have to be evaluated?

A theoretical model based on Clinical Supervision and Administrative Monitoring was prepared by the researcher as an instrument that supervisors can use to evaluate teacher effectiveness.

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C H A P T E R I

EXAMINING VARIOUS MODELS OF SUPERVISION AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THEM DURING THE EVALUATION PROCESS

This study explores on some of the models of supervision commonly used in the Public School System to evaluate teachers' performance. This study will detail the rationale, the pros and cons of the following models:

1. Cooperative Supervision
2. Self-directed Supervision
3. Clinical Supervision
4. Oriented Monitoring
5. Differentiated Supervision

This study will give special emphasis to teachers' perceptions of these models during the evaluation process. An instrument has been developed to measure teachers' opinions about the evaluation process. This instrument has been administered to teachers of the Public School System in one district of the Western part of Massachusetts.

Statement of the Problem

This study was motivated by the fact that education has become a major political and social issue for the 90s. State and federal governments, boards of education, school systems, and educators at all levels

are trying to come up with strategies to put education on a successful track and to recapture the interest of young people.

Financial problems, drugs, lack of interest from parents and students, and poorly motivated personnel, might be factors affecting the teaching process in schools and lowering the quality of instruction.

Other factors that might be affecting the teaching process in the schools are poorly motivated personnel, which plays an important role in the school environment. Even if one works in a new building with modern facilities, with the best instructional materials, selected students, flexible schedules, is fairly well paid and has competent colleagues, there are no guarantees of success; if one is not well motivated, student achievement will be negatively affected and the schools can still fail.

If a supervisor detects that individuals or a staff are not well motivated for whatever reason, a solution must be found.

Through this study, I reviewed some styles of supervision that can be used as models for assessing classroom teachers.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to examine different models of supervision that can be implemented to supervise teacher performance in any school system.

The systems examined are Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Supervision, Self-professional Development, Monitoring Supervision, and Differentiated Supervision.

A theoretical model was developed by taking ideas from two of the examined models, Clinical and Monitoring Supervision.

A field test which emerges from the theoretical model will be administered to teachers in one of the Western Massachusetts School Districts. (See Chapter IV.)

Definition of the Terminology

Clinical Supervision - A rational and practical design toward improving teacher, supervision and student effectiveness in the teaching-learning process.

Cooperative Supervision - A process in which a group of 4 or 5 teachers work together for their own improvement.

Differentiated Supervision - A process in which the supervisor can use different techniques with the purpose of improving the teaching-learning phase.

Education - A formal or informal process that helps to develop the potentialities of human beings including their knowledge, capabilities, behavior patterns, and values. The Concise Dictionary of Ed. Hawes/Haves p. 73.

Evaluation - An assessment or appraisal of any appropriate entity, expressed descriptively or numerically.

Feedback - Information received by the teacher from the supervisor immediately after a class observation.

Learning - The process of acquiring knowledge, skills and beliefs through study, education, and experience.

Observation of instruction - The inspection of classroom teaching by a supervisor for such purposes as evaluation of teacher and student performance or diagnosis of instructional difficulties.

Oriented monitoring - Short informal visits by the Principal or Assistant Principal to identify any critical situation in the school.

Performance - The carrying out of work by a student in an actual assignment, test, or course.

Self-directed supervision - The teacher develops and follows a program oriented toward his/her objectives for his/her improvement.

Supervision - Function of control which evaluates current action while in progress and assures that education is taking place in accordance with plans and instructions.

System - The structure of organization of an orderly whole, showing the interrelationship of the parts to each other.

Technique - Procedure used by the teacher to instruct the students.

Limitation of the Study

This study is limited to investigating the effectiveness of the teacher evaluation process within the classroom and the relation that it has to the teaching-learning process.

The study was conducted among a sample teacher population in a Western Massachusetts Public School System.

A questionnaire was administered to collect the data. The collected data showed enough information to answer the following questions:

1. Is the teacher evaluation process contributing to the teaching-learning process in the classroom?
2. Are supervisors providing information about the options that teachers have to be evaluated?

Organization of the Study

This study was divided into five chapters. The first chapter contains the Introduction, Statement of the Problem, Purpose of the Study, Definition of the Terminology, Significance of the Study, and the Limitation of the Study. In the second chapter the Review of the Literature is presented. The Methodology followed and the research appears in Chapter III. The Results and Analysis of Data make up Chapter IV, and Chapter V details the Conclusions from the Study, suggested recommendations and prototype model for instructional supervision.

Site of the Study

The school district selected for this study is located in Western Massachusetts. It is one of the largest districts in population in the state and thus one of the largest and most complex school systems. All schools are servicing at full capacity. This large number of students forces the school system to create new programs and alternatives to serve all academic areas, and to create space to take care of all the students.

The following tables show the pupil enrollment, the number of drop outs, and drop out percentage 1977 through 1990.

Table 1
Student Information

Enrollment Month	Dates Year	Enrollment	Number of Drop Outs	Dropout Percentage
October	1987	22,953	521	10.95
October	1988	23,355	541	11.47
October	1989	23,662	509	11.18
October	1990	24,189		

Population

The target population of this study consists of 250 from 1,450 active teachers in the selected school districts. The respondent population represents at least four (4) ethnic groups. It also represents tenured and non-tenured teachers.

Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher approached some of the school principals in the district to discuss the possibility of conducting the study in their school. A formal letter followed with a copy to the superintendent of the school system. After receiving approval for the study to be conducted in the school, a questionnaire was distributed among the staff. The teachers completed the questionnaire and returned it by giving it to me personally or placing it in a box located in

the teachers room. This process was considered to be the least disruptive.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire consists of twenty-three (23) questions or statements related to the principal as a leader, as supervisor, and to the teacher evaluation process.

The questionnaire served to gather information needed to answer the major research questions.

Each item was evaluated by a Likert Scale with one of the four different responses. Two of the responses appear positive and two negative, varying the intensity of approval or disapproval.

The questionnaire revealed whether the staff agreed or disagreed with the evaluation process carried out by the school principal. It also gave the principals of the schools some idea about the feeling of the staff in relation to the management fulfillment of his/her roles as supervisor-evaluator.

Significance of the Problem

Educators generally agree that the idea of performance appraisal is good. Evaluation is based on the premise that every individual is capable of improving his or her performance (Curran, 1986). Iwanicki (1981) asserts that the probability that

improvement will occur is increased when evaluation is carried out systematically, and in accordance with careful planning between the teacher and supervisor, with conscientious follow through and careful assessment of results.

The Rand Corporation's study of teacher evaluation practices, conducted by Wise and Darling-Harmond (1984) found that, in many school districts, teacher evaluation is a perfunctory, routine, bureaucratic requirement that yields no help to teachers and no decision-oriented information to the school district. The process does nothing for teachers except contribute to their weariness and reinforce their skepticism of bureaucratic routine. Isolated from decision making and planning, it does little for administrators except add to their workload. It does not provide a mechanism for the school system to communicate its expectations concerning teaching, except to imply that teaching is a fit subject for bureaucratization.

The Rand Corporation study found that very rarely does this bureaucratic process of teacher evaluation have other outcomes such as the special recognition of a teacher or termination of his or her employment, the improvement of curriculum or program activities, or the deployment of staff development resources to meet teachers' specific instructional strengths. Rather,

the ritual exists most exclusively to satisfy the bureaucratic imperative that every teacher be observed by an administrator every year.

Wise and Darling-Harmond (1984) conclude that the time of the evaluation is too short, the ratio of teachers to supervisors too large, and the subject matter expertise too limited to produce reliable and valid insights that might lead to significant action. Instead, actions predicted on the ritual alone prove difficult to institute and/or maintain because the evaluation criteria are too sparse and unstable to withstand the scrutiny that accompanies any important change in teacher status or teaching practice (Curran, 1986).

The principal is the most important person in the school when it comes to setting school climate and providing leadership. In more effective schools, the principal is 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 are aware of the effect of their planning, instruction and management patterns (Squires, 1980; Cox, 1983).

Research has repeatedly supported the contention that a crucial factor in any school improvement project is the principal. Unfortunately, specific information

about the behavior of the principal as a facilitator of change is less clear.

Chapter I gives us the topics to be treated during this exploratory study. Among the topics, you find the "Statement of the Problem," "Purpose of the Study," "Limitation of the Study," "Organization of the Study," "Site of the Study," "Population," "Procedure for Data Collection," "Data Analysis," and "Significance of the Problem." After reviewing these topics the reader will have an idea about the situation and how the study is going to be carried out.

In the following chapter the reader will be in contact with some of the most common Teacher Supervision Models that are used in school systems around the country. These models are:

1. Differentiated Supervision
2. Clinical Supervision
3. Cooperative Supervision
4. Self-directed Supervision.

A review of the literature on each one of them is included.

C H A P T E R I I

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO VARIOUS MODELS OF SUPERVISION

Introduction

This study examines both historical and current conceptions of the supervision of teachers in American schools, including role expectations and functions of supervisors. Studies of supervisory behavior and attitudes toward supervision are reviewed.

Historical and Current Conceptions

"Supervision" is a term used to describe a wide variety of behaviors carried out by a diverse group of people within the context of specific school systems. Although most contemporary writers agree that the primary purpose of supervision is to improve instruction, Mosher and Purpel (1972), Harris (1979), and Blumberg (1978) all indicate that a review of the literature reveals virtually no research suggesting that supervision of teaching makes an appreciable difference in the way teachers conduct their classes. The role expectations for supervisors are ambiguous and often conflicting; for example, helper versus evaluator, administrator versus consultant. Significant research on supervision is scarce, and theory is underdeveloped. The ratio of teachers to

supervisor is usually so disproportionate as to make meaningful interaction an unrealistic expectation. Supervisors often lack appropriate status and leverage within the organization system. Training and certification programs for supervisors stress administrative competence rather than emphasizing diagnostic skills for analysis of teaching. The lack of clearcut evidence on what constitutes effective teaching behavior undermines the supervisor's position as an expert on teaching competence. All of these reasons, and others, combine to make the supervisor's role in the school organization a rather weak one. In spite of this situation, promising new developments, particularly in the areas of clinical and peer supervision, project hope for improving supervisory practices and the supervisor's lot.

"Instructional Supervision" is defined by Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) as "behavior officially designated by the organization that directly affects teacher behavior in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and achieve the goals of the organization." The tasks of supervision are considered by Mosher and Purpel (1972) to be "teaching teachers how to teach. . . and professional leadership in reformulating public education more specifically, its curriculum, its teaching and its forms".

Supervision in American schools began in the seventeenth century, when special committees of laymen were appointed to visit schools for the purpose of controlling standards. These "supervisors" inspected schools and teachers to evaluate school facilities and student progress. Helping teachers improve instruction was not a concern of these lay inspectors. This administrative inspection period lasted until the late nineteenth century.

Although supervision maintained its inspective emphasis from the beginning of the twentieth century until the 1930s, its focus was on efficiency and scientific management, and professional personnel replaced the lay committees (Lucio & McNeil, 1979). As new subjects were added to the curriculum, special supervisors were hired to demonstrate how these subjects were to be taught. Head teachers or principals visited classrooms to suggest ways in which instruction could be improved. Burnham (1976) suggests that it was during this period that the supervisor became identified as one with "supervision" and the concept of leadership for improvement emerged.

Wiles and Lovell (1975) characterize the 1930s as a period of democratic supervision, one in which kind treatment of individual teachers was emphasized. This phase of supervision evolved into a cooperative

enterprise during the 1940s and 1950s; the supervisor and teacher worked together in a group decision-making process. At the same time, Wiles (1955) was making substantial contributions to the theory of supervision by championing the "supervision as human relations" approach.

Social and educational challenges altered the supervisor's primary tasks during the next decade. Primarily because of the tremendous spurt of federal money into education, spawned by the launching of sputnik in 1957, and 1960s saw the introduction of many curriculum and instructional changes in the public schools. Supervisors were now expected to help teachers implement these new curriculum and instructional programs. "Innovation" and "Change" were the buzzwords of the 1960s, with the expectation that the supervisor would function as a "change agent."

The 1970s are so temporally close that perspective is difficult. However, retrenchment and the accountability movement have directed the supervisor into responsibilities related to teacher evaluation and in-service education (Harris, 1978). The past decade has also seen literature stressing clinical supervision and peer supervision as potentially effective models for helping teachers improve their instruction.

Supervision has been and is currently performed by both line and staff positions. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) argue that viewing supervision as a process is more meaningful than viewing it as a role, or the supervisor as a particular role incumbent. Although many school districts do have personnel who are labeled as supervisors, there are many other people with a variety of titles who perform supervisory functions related to improving instruction: principals, department chairpersons, curriculum directors, assistant superintendents for instruction, evaluators, coordinators, and consultants. When supervision is viewed as a process, these difficult school personnel all engage in supervisory behavior at one time or another. Because many of these role incumbents also perform administrative functions, Sergiovanni and Starratt distinguish between supervisory and administrative behavior. According to these authors, supervisor behavior depends directly upon others to help achieve the school's goals. Administrative behavior, on the other hand, is characterized by direct action toward the achievement of school goals and is not dependent upon others for success. Supervisory behavior involves and depends upon the acceptance, identity, and commitment of people to achieve school goals. If one thinks of supervision

as a process, then it is not particularly fruitful to distinguish between line and staff authority.

Sometimes supervision is performed by line positions, for example, principals, and at other times by staff personnel, for example, supervisors.

If supervision is viewed as a process, then of what does the process consist? The real core of a program of supervisory services, according to Harris (1975), is usually found in five task areas:

evaluation, curriculum development, in-service education, materials development, and staffing.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) concur with Harris's first three tasks, but add a fourth, improvement of teaching.

Because of functions of supervision are performed by so many varied personnel, differing from school system to school system, the role of supervisor is clouded with ambiguity. Although there is agreement about the general goal of supervision, that is, improvement of instruction, there is no consensus as to the methods by which this goal can be achieved, or even who should have which responsibilities for its achievement. Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) believe that:

This confusion arises because seldom is there a person or agency within the school system solely responsible for providing instructional

supervision; neither is there a single client constituency, a group or activity which is the beneficiary of such supervision. Rather, instructional supervision responsibilities are assigned to whichever person/agency is best able to absorb them without much disturbance of the on-going operation. (p. 18)

The ambiguity and confusion that exists regarding supervisory personnel and their responsibilities negatively affect not only supervisory practice but also the potential contribution of research on supervision.

Research findings can sometimes provide guidelines and insights that help reduce the conceptual confusion in the practice of instructional supervision. Unfortunately, few findings are available that lend direction to supervisory behavior. As Hawthorne (1978) states,

Instructional supervision, a field in its conceptual infancy in spite of its longevity in practice, needs to generate not only alternative postures about instructional supervision, but alternative modes of inquiry. In sum, it needs an array of paradigms to guide its inquiry and practice. (p. 8)

Denham (1977) reports that, between the years 1971 and 1977, the review of educational research contained no review of studies on supervision, improvement of instruction, or efforts of any kind to help teachers change or improve. Crosby (1969) studied Educational Leadership, the official publication of the association for supervision and curriculum development, from 1960

to 1968 and found an average of fewer than seven published articles on supervision per year, almost none of which used either research or practical bases. Although research on instructional supervision is scarce, it is not totally lacking. Except for those recent studies on clinical supervision, most of the research does not derive from a theoretically developed model of supervision, applied experimentally and its effects documented. The research can be grouped, however, into several broad categories.

Carman (1970) reviewed 135 studies completed between 1955 and 1969 and concluded that the responsibilities most often reported for general supervision were coordinating in-service education, fostering improvement in human relations, and providing consultative and instructional services. She also found that the degree of consensus among supervisors' ideal roles of supervision was relatively high. In contrast, Carlton (1970) surveyed over 1,000 elementary teachers and 52 principals in selected schools and discovered few similarities between respondents' perceptions of the supervisor's actual role and the ideal role. The highest ranked activities for actual role was assisting in development of programs for federal funding; performing routine administrative duties; participating in formulation of policy;

participating in in-service education programs and workshops; and assisting textbook selection committees. The ideal role of the supervisor was seen as centering around the following activities: planning and arranging in-service visitations to observe promising practices; assisting teachers in location, selection, and interpretation of materials; assisting in orientation of new and beginning teachers; coordinating instructional programs; and visiting and observing classrooms. Colbert (1967) discovered that teachers perceived supervisors to be most effective when they assisted teachers with teaching techniques, demonstrated teaching, offered constructive criticism, held conferences following observations of teaching, gave specific advice, were unobtrusive during visitations, and assisted teachers with evaluation of their teaching.

Hathaway (1974) surveyed high school teachers and their principals regarding the use and value of selected supervisory techniques and practices. The teachers perceived classroom visitation, individual communication, orientation meetings, visits to other schools, curriculum development, and visits to classes within the school as occurring less frequently than did principals. Principals also viewed classroom visitation, individual communication, and curriculum

development as being more valuable than did the teachers.

Tony (1971) examined the perceptions of elementary school teachers, supervisors, and administrators regarding classroom visitation and concluded that there existed a lack of teacher involvement at the preplanning stage for classroom visitation, that teachers were subjected to evaluative criteria established by personnel other than themselves, and that teachers wanted more involvement in the formulation of policy and procedures for classroom visitation.

Attitudes Toward Supervision

Goldstein (1973) reported that highly experienced teachers, in contrast to those with less experience, (1) interact more frequently with supervisors, (2) are more cognizant of conflict in supervisor-teacher interaction, (3) perceive supervisors as being more supportive and less involved with rules and regulations, and (4) perceive supervisors as being more available for assistance.

A 1976 study of the perceptions of teachers, principals, and supervisors on the practice of supervision in Tennessee (Lovell & Phelps, 1976) found that over 80 percent of the teacher respondents

reported no observation by, or conferences with, supervisors. Of those conferences and observations reported, over 93 percent lasted between one and thirty minutes. Sixty-nine percent of the teachers surveyed reported the observation was not disruptive, whereas 13 percent saw the observation as disruptive. Heichberger and Young (1975) reported on a survey of elementary teachers in Western New York in which 82 percent of teachers felt there was a definite need for supervision and evaluation in the schools, but 70 percent indicated that the supervisor is often perceived as potentially dangerous.

Blumberg (1980) summarized research studies on teacher and supervisor attitudes toward supervision in the following way:

Teachers tend to say they find their supervision of little value. Supervisors say their work has a lot of value. Supervisors seem to be saying that they want to spend more time doing what their clients (the teachers) consider to be relatively useless. (p. 20)

The end result, Blumberg concludes, is an uncommunicative system that requires increasingly scarce resources or an activity with little reward, at least as far as the teachers are concerned.

Supervisory Behavior

Blumberg and Amidon (1965) adapted Flanders's classroom observation system to describe supervisor-teacher verbal interactions. They concluded that (1) when supervisors are either predominantly indirect or both indirect and direct, teachers perceive supervisory conferences as more productive; (2) teachers learn more about themselves as teachers and persons when supervisors evidence both high indirect and high direct behavior; (3) when supervisors are highly direct, teachers perceive freedom of communication as being curtailed; and (4) teachers are most dissatisfied with supervisors who exhibit high direct behavior and low indirect behavior.

Blumberg and Cusick (1970) analyzed fifty audiotape recordings of conferences between supervisors and teachers. In this sample, teachers talked slightly more than supervisors, supervisors gave information five times as often as they asked for it, supervisors told the teachers what to do seven times more often than they asked them for ideas or suggestions for action, and teachers rarely asked supervisors questions. The researchers concluded that the interaction does not appear to be collaborative.

Blumberg, Loehr, and Goldstein (1978) investigated the substance of supervisor-teacher interaction and identified five categories of substantive issues, in descending order of emphasis: individual student problems, classroom environment and behavior, general school or department matters, individuated teacher concerns with self, and socializing. Topics far removed from the person of either party are perceived as "safe," whereas the parties are more constrained in discussing topics related to the self.

Blumberg's research on supervisor-teacher interactions during conferences suggests that teachers prefer supervisors who use an indirect style as opposed to a direct one, although a combination of two is also viewed positively. However, in practice, supervisors tend to be direct rather than indirect, and the interactions between teachers and supervisors seem to be the kind that neither party wants to have. Personal issues seem to be avoided, whereas both parties prefer to discuss "safe" topics. Interactions of this type do not appear to have much chance to help teachers improve instructions.

There have been many studies (Acheson, 1964; McDonald, Allen, & Orme, 1965; Adair & Kyle, 1969; Griffin, 1973) that have investigated the type and amount of feedback given a teacher during supervision.

These studies have demonstrated that providing teachers with videotape feedback on their teaching produces intended changes in teacher classroom behavior. All of these studies and Hill (1972) suggest that a combination of personalized feedback by a supervisor in conjunction with videotape feedback is more effective in producing intended teacher behavior change than videotape feedback alone. Brown, Cobban and Waterman (1965) investigated the effect of having teachers set objectives for themselves. They concluded that a commitment to specific objectives, followed up with supervisory conferences, is associated with significant changes in teachers to improve their performance, and giving support to teacher-made decisions.

In summary, the research on supervision indicates that teachers are threatened by supervisors, see little benefit in supervision as it is currently being practiced, yet still see a need for supervision. Teachers believe conferences are more productive when supervisors use an indirect or combination indirect and direct style, as opposed to a direct style alone. Limited research indicates, however, that, in practice, supervisors tend to use a direct rather than an indirect style. Actual observations of teachers by supervisors are few and of short duration, as are follow-up conferences. Interactions between

supervisors and teachers tend to be on "safe" topics that are not threatening to either party. Existing research leads to the conclusion that little of significance is happening in face-to-face interactions between supervisors and teachers. Clinical and peer supervision are models that attempt to create more significant interactions between teachers and supervisors by altering some basic assumptions upon which supervision is based.

Clinical supervision. A significant recent development in the field of supervision is the emergence of clinical supervision. Developed at Harvard University by Morris Coggan, Robert Goldhammer, and Robert Anderson, this form of supervision has generated considerable interest. "Clinical supervision" can be defined as:

That phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors and activities for instructional improvement. (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1980, pp. 19-20)

Clinical supervision is based on the proposition that the relationship between supervisor and teacher is mutual and that the two work together as colleagues rather than in a supervisor-subordinate relationship. Most writers in the field of clinical supervisor describe the model as consisting of stages or phases

(Coggan, 1973); Acheson & Gall, 1980); Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1980). Although they disagree as to the number and names of the phases, their models have similar content and include establishing the supervisor-teacher relationship, agreeing on the focus of the observations, observing and collecting descriptive data, analyzing the data, discussing the data's meaning and implications for the teacher's behavior, and planning for long-term teacher development and future observations. Proponents of clinical supervision argue that if instructional improvement in the classroom is the ultimate goal of supervision, then the supervisor must be willing to spend considerable time working with individual teachers on classroom problems or issues that the teachers themselves have identified and about which they want more information. In doing so, the supervisor must have planning, data-collecting, analysis, and human relations skills.

To date, the research literature on clinical supervision itself has been sparse, although several of the individual components and techniques associated with clinical supervision have been investigated separately, for example, effects of feedback to teachers and involvement of teachers in decisions related to the supervisory process. In a clinical supervision

setting, several studies have found that desirable changes in the teacher's classroom behavior do occur (Garman, 1971; Skrak, 1973; Kerr, 1976; Krajewski, 1976). Shuma (1973) found evidence of teacher growth in self-confidence and self-direction as a result of clinical supervision experiences. Eaker (1972) surveyed perceptions of clinical supervision by teachers and administrators and concluded that both groups agree with the basic assumptions of clinical supervision, although the teachers tend to agree more strongly with assumptions than with specific procedures. Rapport and openness are important characteristics in the clinical supervisor-teacher relationship (Zonca, 1972; Turner, 1976) and Reavis (1977) found clinical supervision to be more democratic than other supervisory approaches.

Weller (1971) investigated supervisor-teacher interactions where clinical supervision was being employed. Ninety-three percent of the conference time involve the analysis of instruction, with the foci evenly divided between methods and materials (37.3 percent) and instructional interactions (35.9 percent), whereas objectives and content received less emphasis (20 percent). Two thirds of the discussions focused on the cognitive domain, whereas the affective and social-disciplinary domains each accounted for only 14

percent of the discourse; however, considerable differences in percentages existed between elementary and secondary groups. Discussion in the elementary group was relatively analytical, diagnostic, and complex, whereas discussion in the high school group was relatively evaluative, prescriptive, and simple. Weller discovered that, compared with the elementary supervisors, the high school supervisors spoke more than twice as much and produced almost three times as many structuring moves, reactions, and summary reactions.

The personalities of both teacher and supervisor may affect the implementation of a clinical supervision model. In the study by Sirois (1978), teachers with strong internal locus of control responded in a significantly more effective manner to clinical supervision than did teachers with external locus of control, particularly when the former worked with nondirective-style supervisors and/or internal control-type supervisors. Sirois concludes that the single most significant variable in the model of clinical supervision in nondirective-style supervisory behavior, which he found effective with all types of teachers.

Weller (1971) cautions against unwarranted generalizations regarding clinical supervision when he argues that

Clinical supervision, like teaching itself, is not founded on any one overriding theory translated into practice. It is rather a process that has evolved through experience, intuition, and trial and error. There is no one 'style' of clinical supervision, but rather a variety of idiosyncratic styles that are individually developed much as individual teaching styles are developed.

Although the basic tenets of clinical supervision appeal to many educators, there is little evidence to indicate that it is being widely used. concerns over adequate training for supervisors, time demands on both teachers and supervisors, and whether or not the ideal of collegueship is attainable in current supervisor-teacher relationships have thus far impeded the widespread implementation of clinical supervision (Sullivan, 1980).

Peer supervision. The supervisory literature in recent years has seen a number of proponents of peer supervision. They argue that, given teachers' high level of distrust of their supervisors, the disproportionate teacher-supervisor ratios existing in most school districts, and the threat of formal evaluation visits, teachers are more apt to benefit from a system of peer supervision than from traditional forms of supervision, having more confidence in their

colleagues' understanding of specific problems collectively faced in a given school. Alfonso (1977) posits that when peer supervision focuses primarily on the processes of observation, analysis, and feedback, teachers might, in fact, be their own best supervisors. However, within the broader context of supervision-curriculum development, in-service education, goal setting, evaluation, selecting materials, and long-range planning, he argues that peer supervision is severely limited and should only be used as an adjunct to a broad-based program of instructional improvement and not as a replacement.

As with clinical supervision, the research base supporting peer supervision is thin. In a questionnaire study, Richards (1970) concluded that elementary school staffs are more favorable disposed toward peer supervision than secondary school staffs and that peer supervision practices only work in teams that are mutually secure, knowledgeable, and trusting. Freeman, Palmer, and Ferren (1980) reported on the results of a peer clinical supervision training program that involved 26 schools, 65 administrators, and 323 teachers. Both administrators and teachers in the public schools of the district received training in skills of supervision, planned a program of peer support, and implemented the plan. At the end of the

training year, 89 percent of the teachers had a more positive attitude toward supervision; 98 percent professed an interest in improving instruction; and 94 percent expressed confidence in the clinical supervision model as an aid in the improvement of instruction. The authors concluded, "while it cannot be proved that classroom instruction has improved as a result of this effort, there is clearly a renewed sense of commitment to the potential of supervision and confidence in the merits of peer supervision". In another peer clinical supervision peer program, elementary school teachers were reported to be more receptive to supervision when (1) they help to determine its purposes and procedures; (2) the supervision is for the purpose of assisting them to do a better job and not for evaluation; and (3) the problems being worked on are perceived by the teacher as being his or her own (Ellis, Smith, & Abbott, 1979). Alfonso (1977) reports a study by Gray in which clinical supervision by peers was attempted. The results indicate that peer supervision can bring about important changes in teaching, even among senior teachers, and that the teachers express greater self-confidence and increased admiration and respect for fellow teachers.

Probably the most extensive use of peer supervision has occurred within the context of individually guided education, a staff-development process designed to help teachers individualize instruction. Withall and Wood (1979) reported that initial teacher reactions to opportunities to observe colleagues and be observed themselves were negative and produced high anxiety levels. However, after one or two experiences with the process of peer supervision, and teachers' commitment to the process, as well as how they perceived their ability to improve their own and others' professional performance, increased significantly.

If teachers receive training in observation, collection, and analysis of data, the existing research suggests that peer supervision is a promising practice in the improvement of instruction. Developing these skills, however, requires time that may conflict with time available for planning and developing instructional material. Whether or not teachers will derive enough benefit from a significant time investment related to peer supervision, when compared with how they otherwise might use the time, is a major issue.

In-service education. One of the major functions of instructional supervisors is to provide leadership

and direction for teacher in-service education and staff development. Lawrence (1974) reviewed ninety-seven research studies on in-service teacher education programs and synthesized those practices that were successful in changing teacher behavior. His conclusions have implications for supervisors planning in-service teacher education activities. First, in-service programs conducted in elementary and secondary schools seem to be more successful in influencing complex behavior and attitude change in teachers than those programs conducted on college campuses. Second, school-based programs in which teachers assist one another or aid in the planning tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs conducted without the assistance of teachers. Third, school-based programs in which supervisors or administrators either help plan or actually conduct the programs tend to be more successful in accomplishing their objectives than do programs involving either college or outside personnel alone. Fourth, in-service education objectives dealing with changing teachers' concepts of enlarging their information base have a high rate of realization; objectives seeking to change teaching behavior are less often realized; and objectives involving changes in teacher attitudes or values are least often realized.

Describing effective patterns of management in in-service education, Lawrence concludes that, (1) individualized programs are more likely to accomplish their objectives than programs having common activities for all participants; (2) programs that place the teacher in an active role, such as constructing materials, are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs that place the teacher in a receptive role; (3) programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials, and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs requiring teachers to store up ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time; (4) programs in which teachers share and provide mutual assistance are more likely to accomplish their objectives than are programs in which teachers work separately; (5) programs that are linked to a general effort of the school as opposed to "one-shot" programs that are not part of a general staff development plan are more likely to benefit teachers; and (6) programs in which teachers can choose goals and activities for themselves, as opposed to programs in which these are preplanned, tend to be of more benefit to teachers. Joyce and Showers (1980) summarize research on in-service teacher training by concluding that, to be most effective, training activities should combine

theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching until adequately applied in the classroom.

State and national studies conducted during the past decade suggest that the majority of teachers, administrators, and college personnel are not satisfied with current staff development inservice programs (Wood & Thompson, 1980). The most common defects cited are poor planning and organization, activities unrelated to the everyday problems of participants, lack of participant involvement in planning and implementation, inadequate needs assessment, unclear objectives, and the lack of follow-up in the classroom. Although there is discontent about current practice, nearly all teachers and administrators see in-service education as crucial to improved school programs and practice. Unlike much of the research on supervision, which is limited, inconclusive, and sometimes contradictory, there are clear guidelines from research for the instructional supervisor on how to conduct effective inservice training. Involve teachers in planning and implementation, select topics of interest and concern to their everyday teaching, individualize programs as much as possible, offer these programs in the schools, use appropriate training methodology (theory, modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching), and provide support for followup activities in the classroom.

Related research. Instructional supervision is a field that borrows constructs from managements, communication, social psychology, decision making and change theories. Because so much of the theory of and research on instructional supervision comes from these other fields, a brief review of relevant research from the areas of leadership, communication, and decision making is warranted.

Leadership. Instructional supervisors assume leadership responsibilities for helping teachers modify their behavior so that schools can better achieve their goals. Without successful leadership behavior, instructional supervisors cannot perform effectively. Tannenbaum, Weschles, and Massarik (1961) define leadership as "interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals." (p. 24)

Studies attempting to relate leadership traits and personal characteristics to effective leadership behavior have generally produced no significant findings. After Stogdill (1948) reviewed over 120 studies on personal variables, such as intelligence, originality, and introversion versus extroversion, he concluded that leadership traits differ with the situation and are not constant from group to group.

Numerous studies on leadership indicate that the greater the congruence between leadership style and group expectation, the more successful the leader is. Considering the conflicting role expectations of instructional supervisors, it is little wonder that so many teachers perceive their supervisors as being ineffective leaders.

Newcomb, Turner, and Converse (1969) found that the following leadership behaviors facilitate interpersonal relationships and participation: (1) providing warmth and friendliness; (2) conciliating, resolving conflict, relieving tension; (3) providing personal help, counsel, and encouragement; (4) showing understanding and tolerance of different points of view; and (5) showing fairness and impartiality. Myers (1954) synthesized the research in leadership conducted from 1900 to 1952 in labor forces, the armed forces, industries, and education concluded that common elements that can be identified in leadership are social insight (being sensitive to the feelings of others); initiative (being active, instead of waiting for the things to happen); and creativeness (being able to come up with new ideas).

Citing the work of Fiedler (1967) and Bass (1960), Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) conclude that leadership is a function of both power and ability.

Successful leadership increases power and esteem, which, in turn, make additional leadership attempts increasingly possible and more effective. Merei's research (1949) indicates that power and authority are not enough and that only when leaders are accepted as working members of the group can they exert maximum influence on the group's direction and purposes. The implication is that supervisors are regarded as outsiders and viewed with suspicion until they prove themselves in their dealings with teachers.

Summarizing numerous research studies on group dimensions of leadership behavior, Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) state that supervisors should systematically include teachers in the determination of decisions that are going to affect them. Furthermore, the involvement must be active and genuine and carry with it the expectation of influence. They go on to say that leadership is more effective when the leader has status and power within the organization. To make supervision effective, the organization must extend to supervisors authority and visible symbols of power and status that provide them with credibility and leverage in working with others. Without such authority, supervisors must depend almost solely on their persuasive powers.

Communication and decision making. Since improvement of instruction is the central function of instructional supervisors, communication is at the heart of the supervisory process. It is difficult to conceive how changes and improvement in instruction can be made without effective communication occurring among the concerned parties.

Leavitt (1965) reports that change is more readily achieved in systems with many communication channels. Situations in which two-way interaction occurs permit change to take place more easily than in one-way communication. Berlo (1960) reports that ambiguity of authority interferes with communication, increases internal tensions, and reduces the satisfaction that members obtain from belonging to an organization.

Changes in group behavior occur more readily by group discussion methods than by a lecture (Lewin, 1943). Shared decision-making roles can serve the same function as group discussion in changing collective behavior. As Maier (1950) states, "the experimental evidence on group decision thus far indicates that a solution worked out by a group is more acceptable to the group than one imposed on the group by an authority." (p. 156) Berelson and Steiner (1964) report that when there is an obvious incompatibility between the sender's message and the approval accorded

by receivers, the latter tend to misperceive the actual content and distort it in a direction favorable to their own previous position. They further report that the more trustworthy, credible, or prestigious the communicator is perceived to be the greater in the tendency to accept the person's conclusions.

Attitudes and feelings are most often communicated through nonverbal cues, such as facial expressions, movements, postures, vocal tones, and mannerisms. Mehrabian (1972) estimates that as much as 93 percent of an affective message can be transmitted nonverbally. Caution must be exercised, however, in interpreting nonverbal behavior, since such cues are learned in a particular cultural setting and vary greatly in meaning from culture to culture.

Summarizing the communication research findings for supervisors, Wiles and Lovell (1975) state that supervisors are likely to be more effective if they remember that: communication is a process in which people attempt to share personal feelings and ideas and to understand the other person's feelings and ideas; is part of self-disclosure and part seeking to understand the other; is decreased by feelings of superiority and inferiority, and by fear and anxiety, by rigid social organizations, by attempts to pressure or control, and by pressure to achieve, produce, or conform; is

increased as trust is developed when we wish to explore differences is present, when each person is free to make his own interpretation and form his own values, when consensus is sought without coercion or manipulation, when individuals like and accept each other, and when people support each other in sharing emotion.

These conclusions from leadership and communication research explain the present movement toward supervision that is less authoritarian, more collegial, and more self-directive. The current interest in clinical and peer supervision reflects this direction.

Evaluation. One of the most common supervisory functions is evaluation, particularly evaluation of teachers. A great dilemma for persons charged with supervisory responsibilities is how to balance their conflicting roles as evaluators and helpers. Supervisors are expected to develop open, trusting, and supportive interpersonal climates with teachers, although they are also expected to make judgements regarding teachers' effectiveness and fitness to remain in the school district. The evaluation function of supervision threatens many teachers and probably forces them into projecting an image of themselves as competent professionals who do not need help from

supervisors, rather than admitting a weakness or problem area to someone responsible for their evaluation. Blumberg (1980) reports studies by Desanctis and Blumberg and Milikan that support this position by revealing that teachers seek assistance from other teachers far more often than they call on their formal supervisors, consultants, and principals.

Historically, supervision has involved the inspection function, based on the belief that because of their expertise and experience, supervisors know what constitutes good teaching. Recent summaries of research on teacher effectiveness (Medley, 1977; Brophy, 1979) reveal that effective teaching behavior varies from context to context and is affected by such factors as socioeconomic status of children, grade level, and subject taught. Thus, there is no such thing as effective teaching behavior across all contexts; rather, teaching effectiveness must be considered within the context of each classroom. However, many school districts that have developed forms to evaluate teaching apply the criteria uniformly across teachers and classrooms, as if good teaching were universal, rather than situation-specific (NEA, 1964). Commenting on teacher-rating forms, Guba and Bidwell (1957) posit that a principal's estimation of a teacher's effectiveness is in reality an estimate of

the degree to which a teacher fits the principal's expectation of the teacher role.

The comprehensive study of evaluation procedures completed by the National Education Association (1964) revealed some interesting findings. Only one-half of the school systems reported using formal teacher evaluation procedures, including clearly defined criteria describing good teaching; written ratings or evaluations were required in three-fourths of the schools for probationary teachers and in two-thirds for continuing teachers, and the principal was the primary official responsible for teacher evaluation, although the responsibility was sometimes shared with other officials, such as supervisors. In most school systems with 25,000 or more pupils, continuing teachers were evaluated less often than once a year. Approximately 40 percent of the secondary school teachers were not observed even once for a period of five minutes while teaching. Teachers reported that the evaluations were not accurate and that the administrative staff were too busy to do an effective job of evaluation.

Stemmock (1969) reports that nine out of ten teacher respondents in a survey of evaluation procedures in school systems indicated approval of regular evaluation of teachers, and virtually all agreed that the principal should be responsible for the

evaluation. There was disagreement, however, regarding the purposes of the evaluation. Almost 93 percent of the respondents favored using the evaluation to assist the teacher to improve teaching competency, whereas 54 percent of the respondents through evaluations should be used to make it possible to dismiss poor teachers, and only 17 percent of the respondents thought evaluation should be used for determining pay advancements based on merit.

McNeil and Popham (1973) criticize the use of rating scales by principals and supervisors for measuring teaching effectiveness. These scales commonly use vaguely worded items, such as "planning and organizing appropriately," "methods and instructional skills". Many rating scales combine these items with such noninstructionally related topics as "professional improvement," "staff relations," "professional attitude," and "cooperation". In spite of these admonitions, an analysis of teacher evaluation programs from seventy school systems in thirty-eight states reveals the major touchstones used to evaluate teachers are the generalize categories of "professional attitudes," "teaching techniques," and "personal characteristics".

Research supports the effectiveness of open two-way communication, shared leadership and

decision-making responsibilities, and relationships of trust between supervisors and teachers. The teacher evaluation function of supervisors places a severe strain on the development of a collegial relationship. Some school districts handle this problem by separating the helping and evaluation function, assigning the helping role to a consultant or instructional specialist who has no evaluation responsibilities. Although this approach is generally a good one, most school districts cannot afford a sufficient number of helping supervisors to affect significantly the large number of teachers to whom they are assigned. Addressing whether or not there is a way out of this dilemma of conflicting functions, Blumberg (1980) answers probably not, short of a drastic restructuring of the systems currently being used to evaluate teachers' performance.

Certification and preparation. A study conducted by a working group of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development reported that less than one-half of the states offer certification in supervision. Of those states with supervisory-certification programs, the major requirements are university courses and teaching experience, with all but four states requiring the master's degree. Although teaching experience is

required, ranging from two to five years, supervision experience or internship is not required. The same study also surveyed universities that prepare students in the field of educational administration to determine what their requirements were for the supervisory program. The majority of the programs were at the master's level and required between thirty and thirty-six semester hours for the degree. In most programs, the courses center around curriculum, administration, and supervision. Summarizing the requirements for preparing instructional supervisors, the report states that the present requirements reflect the "influence of administrative preparation rather than close working relationships with classroom teachers. Universities seem to be preparing supervisors for a job market that would not have to culminate in a position as an instructional supervisor." The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) report further recommended that universities, school districts, and state departments of education distinguish between two different types of supervisors: administrative and consultative. Each position would require different preparation and certification programs. The administrative instructional supervisor would have such responsibilities as quality control, development and

evaluation of educational objectives for school programs, and the selection, allocation, and evaluation of professional personnel. The consultative instructional supervisor would be primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction and would work closely with teachers. This type of supervisor would be assigned to a specific building and would be expert in analyzing classroom instruction and working with teachers for the improvement of the classroom learning environment. If these recommendations are ever implemented, they might help clarify the confusion that currently exists regarding the supervisor's appropriate role. Implementation would require, however, a much greater commitment to improving instruction through supervision than currently exists in most school districts.

Improving instruction is a complex, time-consuming, and costly process. Supervisors' ambiguous roles, conflicting functions, and excessive demands have resulted in an ineffective form of supervision in American schools. As long as the current organizational structures, roles, and expectations exist, there is little hope for significant improvement of instructional supervision within school districts. New forms of supervision in which teachers assume major responsibility and a more

active role are needed. Supervisory behavior must allow for more self-direction by teachers. A beginning point, perhaps, is the acceptance of the distinction between administrative and consultative supervision, and the development of appropriate training programs for the consultative supervisor utilizing clinical supervision skills and techniques. When there are sufficient numbers of trained consultative supervisors to work with teachers and peer supervision programs have been implemented, then more positive effects of instructional supervision can be expected.

Differentiated Supervision

A Rationale for Differentiated Supervision

In contrast to the situation that prevails in most schools, teachers should have some choice about the kind of supervision they receive. In typical schools all teachers are observed once or twice a year by the principal, usually to evaluate performance. In some forward-looking schools the principal or supervisor tries to provide clinical supervision to all teachers. In neither situation are teachers given a choice. All are treated the same, even though they have very different needs.

In the differentiated system, teachers can choose, within limits, whether they wish to receive clinical

supervision, work with a colleague in a program of cooperative development, direct their own professional growth, or have their teaching monitored by an administrator. They are given options, in the expectation that their individual choices will be more responsive to their special needs.

A Rationale for the Differentiated System

Why is this system needed? There are three major reasons why a differentiated approach seems desirable.

First, the standard supervisory practice of administrators and supervisors is often both inadequate and ineffective. The findings of Lovell and Phelps (1976) about supervisory practices in Tennessee seem typical of the nation as a whole and, along with those of several other studies, provide evidence for the inadequacy of present practice. More than 80 percent of the teachers surveyed reported that they had not been observed during the year in question, and when observations were made, they typically were neither preceded nor followed by a conference. And other evidence about the ineffectiveness of standard supervisory practices is abundant. For example, 70 percent of the teachers in Young and Heichberger's (1975) survey indicated that they believe supervisors are often perceived as "potentially dangerous." And

less than one third of the teachers in Cawelti and Reavis's (1980) study rated their supervisory services as "high."

Second, it is neither feasible nor necessary to provide clinical supervision to all teachers. To begin with, clinical supervision is so time consuming that it is not practical to use with all teachers. To understand this difficulty, consider the viewpoint of a supervisor in a large school system. During a 40-hour week, that supervisor probably spends about three hours a week on classroom observation and inservice education. In a 36-week school year, therefore, that supervisor would be able to devote approximately 100 hours to instructional supervision--enough time to provide intensive clinical supervision to only 10 teachers, if the supervisor followed the guidelines offered by such experts as Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973). Obviously, no district can afford to have one supervisor for every ten teachers.

Even if it were feasible to provide clinical supervision to all teachers, it would simply not be necessary. Clinical supervision was first developed to assist student teachers, and, according to Blumberg (1980) and other experts in the field of supervision, beginning teachers seem to profit most from its intensive scrutiny. There is no conclusive evidence

that clinical supervision improves the performance of competent experienced teachers. In fact, they often consider it the least useful of all the functions the supervisor can provide, as Ritz and Cashell's (1980) study noted.

The third argument in favor of differentiated supervision is that teachers have different growth needs and learning styles. They differ, first, in the type of interaction they prefer. Copeland's (1980) study is one of several that conclude that some teachers prefer a directive supervisory style, while others prefer nondirective interactions. Teachers differ also about the supervisory relationships they prefer. Young and Heichberger report that 62 percent of the teachers they surveyed preferred a "helping" relationship, while 36 percent wanted a "colleague-ship" relationship. And they differ in the kind of environments in which they work and in their ability to learn in that environment. After studying several thousand teachers, Joyce and McKibbing (1982) concluded, "enormous differences exists in the extent to which teachers pull growth producing experiences from their environments and exploit personal and professional activities." And the irony, of course, is that administrators and supervisors who urge teachers

to individualize their teaching rarely individualize their supervising.

How can supervision be individualized? One proposal that deserves careful attention is that advanced by Glickman (1981). After arguing that teachers can be classified as one of four types (analytical observers, teacher dropouts, professionals, and unfocused workers), Glickman recommends that the supervisor respond differentially to each type: "The supervisor can work toward that ideal (of enabling each teacher to become a professional) by assessing the current levels of teacher development, taking each teacher at his or her level, and helping the teacher move toward the next stage of development." Glickman's proposal offers the teacher four varieties of clinical supervision, depending on the teacher's present growth state.

An Overview of the Differentiated System

The differentiated system advocated in this work takes a very different approach. Instead of categorizing teachers and responding to them accordingly, it lets teachers decide which options they wish. Instead of making more demands on supervisor time, it helps the supervisor focus his or her efforts where they are most critically needed. And instead of

offering the teacher four varieties of clinical supervision, it gives the teacher a choice of four types of supervision: Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Professional Development, Self-directed Development, and Administrative monitoring.

1. Clinical Supervision is an intensive process designed to improve instruction by conferring with a teacher on lesson planning, observing the lesson, analyzing the observational data, and giving the teacher feedback about the observation. This clinical supervisory cycle is repeated several times throughout the year, as part of a systematic plan for professional growth developed by the supervisor and the teacher. Clinical supervision should be provided by an administrator or supervisor trained in its special techniques. It seems to be most needed by beginning teachers, who are still acquiring the basic skills of teaching, and by experienced teachers who are encountering serious difficulties in the classroom.

2. Cooperative Professional Development is a collegial process in which a small group of teachers agree to work together for their own professional growth. They observe each other's classes, give each other feedback about those observations, and discuss common professional concerns. They can also collaborate in a range of other instructional

activities, if they wish. It is much less intensive and systematic than clinical supervision, since the teachers are not trained in supervisory skills and do not have the time for long and involved conferences. It seems most useful for experienced, competent teachers who value collegiality.

3. Self-Directed Development enables the individual teacher to work independently on professional growth concerns. The teacher develops and carries out an individualized plan for professional growth, with the administrator or supervisor serving as a resource. Self-directed development seems most useful for experienced, competent teachers who prefer to work alone.

4. Administrative Monitoring, as the term implies, is a process by which an administrator monitors the work of the staff, making brief and unannounced visits simply to ensure that the staff are carrying out assignments and responsibilities in a professional manner. While many texts on supervision scoff at such "drop-in" monitoring, there is persuasive evidence that such monitoring is a key aspect of the principal's role in instructional leadership. All teachers can profit from such monitoring when it is performed by a sensitive and trusted leader. And it should be noted here that this monitoring, unlike the

other three options, might include an evaluative element.

The differentiated system has several advantages. It responds to the individual needs of teachers by giving them a choice of supervisory mode. Obviously, it enables the administrator and supervisor to focus clinical efforts where they are most needed.

The differentiated system obviously is not without its own problems. The cooperative and self-directed options require teachers to invest some time and effort in their own professional development and even some conscientious teachers are reluctant to give up any more time when they are already too busy and are feeling overworked. For maximum effectiveness, the differentiated system requires the active leadership of skilled and committed administrators and supervisors; such leaders are already busy coping with existing demands and are understandably hesitant to implement yet another time-consuming innovation. And as yet there is no solid evidence that the differentiated approach will result in improving teaching.

Overview of Clinical Supervision

Educational Reforms and Clinical Supervision

The history of the American school could well be written as an account of educational reforms and recurring crises in the schools. The attempted reforms have included efforts to implement a long (and generally unconnected) series of innovations: universal free public education and the relating of schools to the technological revolution, for example. On a smaller scale, campaigns have been mounted to establish "progressive" schools, the core curriculum, the middle school, programmed instruction, modern mathematics, and the open classroom.

Such attempts at reform have been punctuated by school crises, ranging in recent years from the illiteracy explosion ("Why Johnny Can't Read") to the dreadful inadequacies of the "educationist bureaucracy" (quackery in the public schools), and culminating in the "mutilation" of school children (crises in the classroom) and the "spiritual and psychological murder" of children (death at an early age).

Two important facts become evident when we examine the educational history of the past half-century. The first is that almost every reform that attained national scope embodied some valuable innovative

educational ideas that deserved to be incorporated into the instruction offered in the schools. The second is that most of the innovations were poorly understood in the schools (the activity school) or were starved for resources to implement them (the core curriculum), and were therefore delayed and deformed in their implementation (team teaching) and often perished, sweeping good ideas into oblivion along with the bad.

The reasons why this wasteful process was permitted to continue are to be found partly in the low priority our society accords to education. But educators themselves must also accept part of this responsibility. They have been unwilling or unable, first of all, to develop the processes by which innovative ideas are critically and exhaustively examined prior to being adopted by the schools. Superintendents and school boards are therefore driven to "buying blind," a practice that results in the phenomena of educational fads and styles that have their season and then are allowed to wither. Secondly, an innovation once "bought" is rarely tested; it is promoted. What superintendent of schools is ready to admit that he spent X dollars of the taxpayers' money to test an idea that turned out to be a lemon? And if a new departure is adopted, it is usually handed to the teachers for implementation, with only minimal

resources and training to support them in their efforts.

As a result, school teaching is one of the professions that in this century has been least effective in raising the level of its average performance. Certainly it trails far behind most other professions in the utilization of new technology and in the testing of innovations in the uses of specialized personnel.

This lack of all but the simplest progress that commonly accrues to a modern vocation through the adoption of improved practices points to the granite insolubility of some problems of teaching-learning and to a general failure to disseminate and implement new practices that do show promise for the improvement of the teacher's classroom performance. These last tasks--disseminating and implementing new practices and improving the teacher's performance--constitute precisely the domain of clinical supervision. It follows, then, that the development of a large corps of clinical supervisors might create a powerful force in the school--a force competent to implement reforms in the classroom.

Such a broad claim demands some explanation. In characteristic American fashion, most educators and the public alike envision the solution to their educational

problems in terms of a need for new technology, new organization of schools, new content and methods of teaching, and new "plant" and physical resources. In a discussion of the lag in applying educational knowledge to the problems of teaching-learning, Thelen has written:

As judged by what could be done if we were to understand and apply modern knowledge of educational problems, all our schools are obsolescent. . . but most of this knowledge has so far made almost no dent at all on educational practices, and, with the present tendency to think that educational problems can be solved with money and organizational changes, the likelihood of any significant improvement is discouragingly slight.¹

Thelen's discouragement is understandable, and the difficulties that stand in the way of improvements in schooling are indeed dispiriting. Yet the delay that Thelen deplures is not simply a lag in the dissemination of knowledge about better ways of teaching. Dissemination works best when accompanied by the support necessary to help teachers fulfill the new roles and functions they are to learn and implement. This support must be provided in the schools, in classrooms. It must be supplied by individuals specially trained to work with teachers and to develop individualized programs of supervision. In contrast, the supervision that teachers usually receive today may average out to two or three classroom visits per teacher semiannually.

Without systematic, in-class assistance, the teachers are asked, as it were, to invent the new methods, the new relationships with students, and the roles the students themselves are to assume in the new instruction. To say this is simply to say that for most teachers, useful knowledge about new forms of instruction is in itself not enough. The teacher needs a sustained, expert program to help him relinquish his existing classroom behavior in favor of a program strong enough to help him apply such new competencies to the specific conditions that obtain for each child, for each class, and for the teacher him/herself. Such a program must focus on in-class supervision, on what we have been calling "clinical supervision."

Why this emphasis on in-class supervision? It is because the American experience so far indicates that it is in the classroom, at the point of application, that new methods of teaching break down. The risks involved in essaying new teaching behavior and the pain of complete or even partial failure often become too great for many teachers to endure. As a result, teachers revert to familiar patterns, and another potentially effective innovation vanishes quickly, often without leaving a trace.

The response of the schools to innovative programs is often institutionalized. A small corps of teachers

receive special training preparatory to the introduction of new ways of teaching. These teachers tend to become partisans rather than testers of projects. They are often encouraged to view themselves as a select team with an important mission. The nonparticipating teachers, on the other hand, often feel excluded from the scene of innovative action and therefore tend to ignore the novelty or to form an underground resistance to it. In either event, they almost never have the benefit of a sustained program that will prepare them to try out a new departure with the company of supervisor-colleagues specially trained to implement innovation.

When a small group of teachers receive special training and support while the rest are expected to learn by observing or by osmosis, the consequences are generally tragic. The most common outcome is that the non-participating teachers generally attribute any success the innovators may achieve to the special resources funneled into the project. In this manner, the teachers in a school or school system become divided into two camps--the minority "ins" and the majority "outs." When the majority group, with too little training and only occasional supervisory help, is required to implement the new practices, the result is too often a shambles. The useful core of innovation

is lost or perverted, and a few ritual behaviors are substituted. As for the group of trained "ins," their energies are undermined by institutional resistance and inertia, and their numbers quickly depleted by promotions, transfers, and defections. Replacements are poorly prepared, and the empty, melancholy cycle of innovation winds down to a stop again.

It is our belief that an important part of the delay and failure characteristic of innovation in the American schools is attributable to the lack of trained, continuing in-class support for the teachers. The important words here are "in-class support." It is true that many promising preliminary techniques are available for helping teachers learn new behavior--microteaching, simulation exercises, and observations. Such minor inputs are, however, insufficient as a basis for permanent change because of the psychological and institutional forces that press new teaching behavior back into old molds. Even new teachers with modern methods almost universally yield to these institutional pressures in about five years and begin to teach more and more like the existing models, unless they have help. As for experienced teachers change is doubly difficult for them. They must unlearn the safe and comfortable ways of teaching they know so well and undertake the toilsome and risky

tasks of replacing them with new, untried patterns of behavior. Very few teachers can achieve this goal without continuing collaboration of expert supervisors. It is our hope that clinical supervision can provide such help.

We need no economist to tell us that the preparation and employment of enough clinical supervisors to make a real difference in teaching and learning in our schools is bound to be costly. The present corps of clinical supervisors is to minuscule in relation to the number of teachers to be served that most teachers are deprived of in-class help in improving their day-to-day instruction, to say nothing of mastering innovations. Certainly the preparation and employment of a corps of clinical supervisors numerous enough to make a difference in the quality of instruction will cost a great deal. But could anything be as expensive as the wasteful and ineffective teaching so many schools are now paying for?

The educational systems of the United States can afford to prepare adequate numbers of clinical supervisors. If the nation does in fact commit itself to this task, it may be taking a small but important step toward the improvement of schooling, the facilitation of educational reports, and the defusing of at least some of the recurrent crises in education.

Beginnings of Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision was born out of great travail, and the pain of the process was shared by many supervising teachers, student teachers, and university supervisors. It started more than fifteen years ago with students in the master of arts in teaching program at Harvard. These candidates for teaching merited the best instruction we could develop for them: many were talented, rich in ideas, in enthusiasm, in empathy for their pupils, and in love of the subjects they taught. Most of them anticipated that their first teaching experiences would be carefully planned and competently supervised and that these early experiences would constitute a valuable induction into promising and rewarding careers. For too many of them it turned out to be an induction in which their supervisors failed them.

The students' testimony about this failure was full and convincing: university supervisors did too little or too much; what they did, did not make sense, did not offer much real help to them in becoming teachers. So, too, for their cooperating teachers many were well meaning but unskilled; others were either indifferent or full of fervor and hell-beat on delivering intact their own personal revelation about

how to each, whether their defenseless student teacher wanted that particular revelation or not.

Each year, evaluative feedback was conscientiously collected from these students in an effort to improve the supervision of their teaching. And year after year the feedback left the supervisors shattered by the testimony that many of the students thought their mentors were doing a miserable job. This misery lasted for some years. Then, gradually, we began to put together a few practices that the students found helpful.

Supervisors began to team up with students, working more intensively for longer periods of time in more sustained sequences of planning, observation, and analysis. The post-teaching conferences became a careful study of the observation data--a quest for the meaning of what had happened in the classroom.

These emerging practices, to be sure were not uniformly successful, and failures sometime came so thick and fast that occasionally the small successes seemed only accidental. Gradually, however, a body of fairly useful practices took shape. Supervisors spent more and more time in the classrooms, observing student teachers and trying at the same time to scribble notes about what was going on, to capture both verbal and

nonverbal interaction between teacher and students and among students.

Eventually some of these practices began to take on systematic form, and there appeared to be some hope for a breakthrough. Students and supervisors alike found it rewarding to approach classroom data not as isolated events of brief sequences, but in terms of an analysis of patterns of classroom behavior. Pattern analysis quickly became one of the foundations of the supervisory structure. It made sense to the future teachers. It was convincing in that it dealt so unswervingly with what had happened in class. The use of data and the analysis of patterns operated to anchor supervisors and supervisees firmly in rationality and formed a foundation for the inference-play of the post-observation conferences. Working together in such sequences, supervisor and student could begin to ask about the connections between the latter's objectives, his behavior in class, the pupils' behavior, and the likely relations of all these to the pupils' learnings. But above all, a new role for the student teachers began to take shape. They themselves began to form larger planning groups, teaming up with supervisors in observation, analysis, and conferences. In sum, we began to induct our future teachers not only into teaching and the analysis of teaching but also into the

practices of supervision. In these new roles and processes, and especially in these new relationships, we found some cause for optimism, and we began to refer to our basic procedures as "the cycle of clinical supervision."

And for the first time our students began to tell us that we were really helping them to become teachers. They didn't go berserk with delight, but they did stop telling us we weren't helping very much. 2

Very soon thereafter various public school systems became interested in applying clinical supervision to teachers already in service, and by 1958 the author was lecturing fairly widely on the topic. In 1961, he addressed the Rhode Island Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and , in 1962-63, a group of school and university teacher educators came from Oregon to Harvard, and later to the University of Pittsburgh, to study the subject. By 1963, the state of Oregon had instituted Clinical Supervision for candidates for the Master of Arts in Teaching at major colleges and universities in the state. In 1964, a paper written by the author entitled "Clinical Supervision by Groups,"³ appeared in the college Supervisor.

Since that time, clinical supervision has continued to be adopted and adapted. Men and women in some communities and universities have been able to

make contributions to the theory and practice while experimenting with it. So, too, have many of the writer's students and colleagues.

Definitions of General and Clinical Supervision

Some difficulties have been noted above in the account of the "travail" which accompanied the development of clinical supervision. Among the less important, but still irksome tribulations was the resistance to the introduction of the term "clinical". Several colleagues at Harvard objected forcefully to the writer's use of the word in associations clustering around a proposal he had prepared in 1961, entitled "Case Studies and Research in Clinical Supervision." His co-workers pointed out pungently and colorfully the denotations and connotations of the word clinical, with many allusions to sickbeds, hospitals, and mortal illnesses.

The author stuck to his guns, perhaps ill-advisedly, and countered by citing Webster's Third New International Dictionary to the effect that clinical also means "of, relating to, or conducted in or as if in a clinic. . ." and "involving or depending on direct observation. . ." The reference to dependence on direct observation seemed to catch exactly one of the distinguishing characteristics of clinical

supervision. The dictionary further supported arguments for the appropriateness of clinical by referring to "The Presentation, analysis, and treatment of actual cases and concrete problems in some special field. . ."

In all seriousness, the word clinical was selected precisely to draw attention to the emphasis placed on classroom observation, analysis of in-class events, and the focus on teacher's and students' in-class behavior. In brief, clinical was designed both to denote and connote the salient operational and empirical aspects of supervision in the classroom.

At this point it may be helpful to make a distinction between the use of the terms General Supervision and Clinical Supervision. General supervision subsumes supervisory operations that take place principally outside the classroom. The events occurring inside the classroom are treated by supervisors and teachers mainly as background of shared professional understanding about schooling. General supervision, therefore, denotes activities like the writing and revision of curriculum, the preparation of units and materials of instruction, the development of processes and instruments for reporting to parents, and such broad concerns as the evaluation of the total educational program.

In contrast, clinical supervision is focused upon the improvement of the teacher's classroom instruction. The principal data of clinical supervision include records of classroom events: what the teacher and the students do in the classroom during the teaching-learning processes. These data are supplemented by information about the teacher's and students' perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge relevant to the instruction. Such information may relate to states and events occurring prior to, during, and following any segment of instruction to be analyzed. The clinical domain is the interaction between a specific teacher or term of teachers and specific students, both as a group and as individuals. Clinical supervision may therefore be defined as the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teachers' classroom behavior.

It is clear that this separation of Clinical and General Supervision is both arbitrary and artificial. It is made simply to stress and to distinguish Clinical Supervision from the

extremely inclusive, not to say global, definitions of supervision.⁴

Essential Characteristics and Assumptions of Clinical Supervision⁵

1. The improvement of instruction requires that teachers learn specific intellectual and behavioral skills.
2. The primary function of the supervisor is to teach these skills to the teacher:
 - a. skills of complex analytic perception of the instructional process;
 - b. skills of rational analysis of the instructional process based on explicit observational evidence;
 - c. skills of curriculum innovation, implementation, and experimentation;
 - d. skills of teaching performance.
3. The supervisory focus is on what and how teachers teach; its main objective is to improve instruction, not change the teacher's personality.
4. The supervisory focus in planning and analysis is best anchored in the making and testing of instructional hypotheses based on observational evidence.
5. The supervisory focus is on instructional issues that are small in number, educationally vital,

intellectually accessible to the teacher, and amenable to change.

6. The supervisory focus is on constructive analysis and the reinforcement of successful patterns rather than on the condemnation of unsuccessful patterns.
7. The supervisory focus is based on observational evidence, not on unsubstantiated value judgments.
8. The cycle of planning, teaching, and analysis is a continuing one that builds upon past experience.
9. Supervision is a dynamic process of give-and-take in which supervisors and interns are colleagues in search of mutual educational understanding.
10. The supervisory process is primarily one of verbal interaction centered on the analysis of instruction.
11. The individual teacher has both the freedom and the responsibility to initiate issues, analyze and improve his own teaching, and develop a personal teaching style.
12. Supervision is itself patterned and amenable to comparable processes of complex perception, rational analysis, and improvement.
13. The supervisor has both the freedom and the responsibility to analyze and evaluate his own

supervision in a manner similar to a teacher's analysis and evaluation of his/her instruction.

The Goals of Clinical Supervision

Planning conferences, classroom observation, and feedback conferences are the major activities of clinical supervision. The major aim of these activities is the improvement of teachers' classroom instruction. In this respect clinical supervision is a key technique for promoting the professional development of teachers.

The aim of clinical supervision can be analyzed into more specific goals as follows:

To provide teachers with objective feedback on the current state of their instruction. Clinical supervision, in its most basic form, holds up a mirror so that teachers can see what they are actually doing while teaching. What teachers do may be quite different from what teachers think they are doing. For example, many teachers believe they are good at encouraging students to express their ideas until they listen to an audiotape of their lessons. Then teachers discover the extent to which they dominate the lesson; typically, two thirds of classroom talk is by the teacher. Receiving objective feedback often is

sufficient stimulus for teachers to initiate a self-improvement process.

To diagnose and solve instructional problems, clinical supervisors use conference techniques and observational records to help teachers pinpoint specific discrepancies between what they are doing and what they ought to do. At times teachers are supposed to diagnose these discrepancies on their own. On other occasions the skilled intervention of a supervisor is necessary. A parallel situation exists in classroom instruction. Sometimes students can self-diagnose a problem they are having in learning, and they can take remedial steps on the basis of this information. At other times students are stymied by their inability to learn a particular subject, and the teacher is needed to diagnose and remediate.

To help teachers develop skill in using instructional strategies. If clinical supervision's only purpose were to help the teacher solve immediate problems and crises, its value would be severely limited. The supervisor would be needed each time the teacher had a "brush fire" to be put out. This is not true. The skillful supervisor uses the clinical conference and observation data to help the teacher develop enduring patterns of behavior--what we call "instructional strategies." These strategies are

effective in promoting learning, motivating students, and managing the classroom. Teachers can practice these strategies and can receive objective data on improvement resulting from practice.

Evaluating teachers for promotion, tenure, or other decisions, is the most controversial function of clinical supervision. Some supervisors avoid evaluation, but most supervisors are required by the school district or college of education to evaluate the teacher's competence, usually at the end of the supervisory cycle. Although clinical supervision emphasizes the teacher's professional development, the objective data collected through systematic classroom observation provide one basis for evaluating the teacher's competence. The "sting" of evaluation can be lessened if, as part of the clinical supervision process, the supervisor shares with the teacher the criteria and standards to be used in the evaluation report.

To help teachers develop a positive attitude about continuous professional development, a major goal of clinical supervision is to help the teacher realize that training does not end with the completion of certification requirements. Teachers need to view themselves as professionals, which means, in part, that they engage in self-development and skill training as

career-long effort. The clinical supervisor can model this aspect to professionalism by a willingness to develop new supervisory skills.

Teacher Evaluation and Clinical Supervision

Supervisors face a conflict caused by being caught between two roles, evaluator and facilitator.

Supervisors often ask, "How can I help teachers grow as persons and as classroom instructors when they know that eventually, I must make a written evaluation of their effectiveness?" So great is the conflict that some educators have argued for a separation in roles. Thus, some supervisors would evaluate teachers' performance in a manner similar to the traditional "inspector" role; other supervisors would devote themselves to promoting teachers' development.

Teachers feel the conflict, too. They do not know whether to rely on the supervisor for support or avoid the supervisor for fear of being criticized.

There is no easy solution for the problem created by the supervisor's dual role of facilitator and evaluator. But the following observation may help supervisors and the teachers they supervise work toward their own resolution of the problem.

The conflict between facilitation and evaluation is not unique to teacher supervision; supervisors in all occupations and professions face the same problem. Even teachers must play the dual role of evaluator

and facilitator. Teachers are charged with the responsibility of helping their students learn, but they also are required to evaluate how well students have learned relative to one another.⁶

Remember that the "sting" of evaluation can be lessened by a skillful supervisor. Teachers are most threatened when they are unaware of the criteria by which they will be judged and when they do not trust the evaluator's ability to be fair. These concerns can be alleviated by involving the teacher in the evaluative process, by sharing the evaluative criteria beforehand, and by basing the evaluation on objective observational data shared with the teacher. This process of sharing ideally results in teacher and supervisor working together rather than at cross-purposes.

The experience of our colleagues in the teaching profession and our own experience indicates that the vast majority of teachers are effective and can improve with supervision and training. Less effective teachers usually self-select out of the profession either during the pre-service phase or during the first few years in the field. The realization that probability is working for them helps many teachers accept the evaluative function of supervision.

Finally, remember that people often learn more from their failures than from their successes. Even a

negative evaluation may provide a growth experience. Supervisor and teacher may find that a negative evaluation of the teacher's performance is painful for both of the, especially if it results in the teacher's leaving the profession. One can only hope that the teacher views this leave taking as a positive process that frees him or her to explore another profession and be successful in it.

The Need for Clinical Supervision

Is it necessary to make clinical supervision available to teachers? This question is worth asking, especially so because research findings raise doubts about the value of this kind of supervision.

The need for clinical supervision can be defended by considering another question, "Do students need teachers?" Most educators would answer in the affirmative. All students need a teacher's assistance at one time or another; some students need more assistance than others. Very few students are so independent that they can learn solely by studying curriculum materials.

Teachers are in a similar situation. They, too, are learners. The content they need to learn is the profession of teaching. At various points in their professional development they need the skillful

assistance of a clinical supervisor if they are to make progress.

In many instances the interventions of a clinical supervisor have made a significant impact on a teacher's growth, for example a preservice teacher no one thought would survive student teaching. Continuous supervision of his/her classroom performance and consultation with school personnel helped him/her overcome feelings of insecurity and learn appropriate role behaviors.

Clinical supervision can also make a difference for an inservice teacher, a teacher who was on probationary status because of low ratings on teaching effectiveness. A sympathetic supervisor helped the teacher through this difficult period, with the result that he eventually was taken off probationary status. It would have been almost impossible for that teacher to pull himself up by his own bootstraps. The supervisor's intervention was critical.

A less serious case involved an experienced primary grade teacher who had difficulty after accepting an invitation to teach a class of sixth graders. The supervisor assigned to help her quickly discovered that the teacher was trying to teach the sixth-grade class in the same manner that she had taught her second-grade class. The supervisor

collected observational data that helped the teacher see that her lesson plans and verbal behaviors were too simple for her new instructional situation. With the supervisor's assistance, the teacher was able to adjust her teaching style so that both she and the class felt more satisfied.

The Clinical Supervisor

Any educator responsible for the professional development of teachers can use the techniques of clinical supervision; methods instructors, practicum supervisors, student teaching supervisor, cooperative teachers, and school administrators,⁷ to varying degrees guide the development of preservice teachers. All these educators can make use of clinical supervision techniques.

Are clinical techniques useful to those whose primary or only responsibility is the evaluation of teachers? The answer is, "yes under certain conditions". If the evaluator intends to use classroom observation data as a basis for the evaluation the observation techniques will be useful. If the evaluator wishes to involve the teacher in determining the criteria for evaluation, the conference techniques will facilitate this process.

The researchers seem to be promoting clinical supervision as a panacea to be used by all supervisors with all teachers. To a certain extent this is true. As readers become familiar with the techniques of clinical supervision, they will find that they deal with: basic processes--speaking, listening, influencing, observation--that occur in any supervisory contact. Because clinical supervision is built around these processes, it has a certain universality. Not all supervisors will use the "full" model of clinical supervision, however, and some will do so only under certain conditions. Other supervisors, perhaps those who see their primary role as counselor or curriculum specialist, will use only a few techniques from the clinical supervision model.

Effects of Clinical Supervision on Teachers

Does clinical supervision help teachers improve their performance in the classroom? Norman Boyan and Willis Copeland developed an extensive training program for supervisors based on the clinical supervision model.⁸ They found that supervisors trained in the model were able to help teachers make significant improvements in a variety of teachers behaviors.

Blumberg and Amidon related teacher perceptions of supervisors' direct and indirect behaviors in

conferences to teacher perceptions of learning outcomes.⁹ Teachers felt they learned most about themselves, as teachers and as individuals, from conferences high in indirect and direct supervision.

Indirect support for clinical supervision's effectiveness can be found in the research literature on microteaching, which is a widely used set of techniques for training teachers¹⁰ Microteaching techniques parallel key techniques in clinical supervision. For example, in microteaching the teacher seeks to improve specific operationally defined teaching skills; in clinical supervision the supervisor helps the teacher translate general teaching concerns into specific, observable behaviors. Another key ingredient of microteaching is that the teacher presents a lesson in which he or she practices several teaching skills. This lesson is recorded on audiotape or videotape, then played back, so that the teacher can receive feedback on the teaching performance. The practice and feedback techniques of microteaching are paralleled by the classroom observation and feedback phases of clinical supervision. Many research studies have demonstrated that microteaching is effective in helping teachers improve specific teaching skills. It seems reasonable to infer that if the clinical supervisor uses techniques parallel to microteaching,

similar improvements in teaching performance will be obtained.

Effects of Clinical Supervision on Students

Ultimately, clinical supervision should improve student learning. The clinical supervisor believes that if he or she can improve teacher performance, the teacher in turn will be able to improve student performance. If clinical supervision is effective, we should be able to observe its effects in the supervised teacher's students. Improvements in student attitude, classroom behavior, and scholastic achievement represent the range of possible student effects.

Indirect evidence suggests that good clinical supervision results ultimately in improved student performance. For example, students of teachers who emphasize teaching behaviors such as praise and encouragement tend to learn more than students of teachers who emphasize criticism and punishment. If clinical supervision focuses on these techniques and if teachers show improvement in their use, then we have reason to expect that students, too, will benefit.

In summary, the links between clinical supervision and teacher performance, and between clinical supervision and student performance, have not been convincingly demonstrated. Although indirect evidence

suggests that these linkages exist, research directly focused on the clinical supervision process should be encouraged.

Cooperative Professional Development

The Nature of Cooperative Professional Development

Cooperative professional development is a moderately formalized process by which two or more teachers agree to work together for their own professional growth, usually by observing each other's classes, giving each other feedback about the observation, and discussing shared professional concerns. Often in the literature it is referred to as peer supervision or collegial supervision. However, these terms seem unfortunate for two reasons. First, teachers often equate the concept of supervision with such negative images as giving orders and making evaluations. Consequently, they are reluctant to participate in any project that suggests that they are "supervising" each other. Second, these terms are misleading; the systems of cooperative or collegial development described in the literature actually provide very few of the supervisory functions identified by experts in the field. And, as Alfonso and Goldsberry (1982) astutely point out, "a clear distinction must be made between the contributions of

teachers to the improvements of instruction and the act of supervision as a formal, organizational expectation."

Cooperative professional development can take many forms, from modest programs of two or three exchanges of observations to very ambitious and comprehensive projects in which teams of teachers collaborate in several aspects of the instructional function.

Varieties of Cooperative Professional Development

Such systems of cooperative development, of course, are not new. In 1958, Maguire and his colleagues implemented a somewhat formalized program of intra-school visitation at the University of Chicago Laboratory School. Although the participating teachers reported difficulty in finding time for the observations, they also noted several important benefits: a chance to share teaching methods; a positive reinforcement for aspects of their own teaching; an increased appreciation for their colleagues work; and an increased understanding of their students.

In the intervening years, peer supervision or cooperative professional development has attracted the attention of other educators only sporadically and briefly, for reasons that will be noted below. In the

process of its development, however, it has assumed several distinct forms.

1. Peers as informal observers and consultants.

In what might be termed the standard version of Cooperative Professional Development, Collegial Team Members agree to observe each other's classes, making either an unfocused observation or a focused one, depending on the wishes of the teacher being observed. The teachers then confer, with the observer giving feedback informally and consulting together with the teacher about any concerns the teacher might have. The process is a relatively simple one; it does not pretend to have the intensity or precision of clinical supervision.

2. Peers as Clinical Supervisors. The

Washington, D.C., School District has for the past several years sponsored a program in which teachers are trained to serve as clinical supervisors for their peers. Freeman, Plamer, and Ferren (1980) report that classroom teachers are not used as instructors in the program, teaching their colleagues the basic Clinical Supervision Model, emphasizing such skills as conferring with a nondirective style, gathering factual data, recognizing teaching patterns, and implementing a peer supervision program. They also report highly positive results: 89 percent had a more positive

attitude toward supervision; 98 percent expressed an interest in improving instruction; and 94 percent expressed confidence in the clinical model as an aid to improving instruction.

3. Peers as Focused Observers. In the teacher expectations and student achievement (TESA) program, teachers are trained to act as focused observers for each other (Kerman, 1979). The program begins with workshops in which the research on teacher interactions with pupils is reviewed and participants are taught how to use the interaction techniques in their classes. After each workshop session, teachers observed each other a minimum of four times, for 30 minutes. While being observed, the teacher attempts to use the specific interaction techniques taught in the workshop. The observer merely records the frequency of the interactions with previously targeted students. The observational data are simply given to the teacher observed, who can review them and draw whatever conclusions seem useful. Kerman reports that the program has been highly successful; at the conclusion of a three-year study, 2,000 low achievers in the experimental classes showed greater academic gains, less absenteeism, and fewer discipline referrals than those in the control classes.

4. Peers as Inservice Directors. Lawrence and Branch (1978) advocate a somewhat more comprehensive approach, which they call the peer panel. These peer panels of three to five members serve primarily to direct the inservice work of the faculty, but, according to the authors, provide four other specific functions: (1) they act as a sounding board for members' self-analysis of needs; (2) they assist each other in analyzing curriculum and instruction; (3) they give each other feedback about observations; and (4) they verify each other's inservice accomplishments for the record. Although Lawrence and Branch note that the peer panel approach is supported indirectly by the research on inservice education, they do not provide any direct evidence for its success.

5. Peers as Team Teachers and Observers. Most approaches to team teaching are, of course, built upon the expectation that members of a team will observe each other and give each other feedback in at least an informal way. In the Individually Guided Education (IGE) Model (Withall & Wood, 1979), however, the observations and feedback are somewhat more formalized and are perceived as an integral part of the system. Each participating teacher asks a colleague to observe the classroom, focusing attention on one particular aspect of teaching, important to the one observed. The

colleague observes, analyses the observational data, and gives feedback about the observation and the analysis. Withall and Wood cite research conducted at the Pennsylvania State University, which indicates that after only one or two observations there was a significant increase in commitment to use peer observation and in the perceived ability to use the process to improve professional performance.

Note that all versions of cooperative professional development, while varied in their focus and scope, include the four features noted earlier. Each approach has a moderately formalized process, involves observation and feedback, is based on a collegial relationship, and maintains a nonevaluative emphasis.

The Debate over Cooperative Professional Development

Cooperative professional development, regardless of the form it takes, has not received general acceptance in the profession. Before reviewing the research on its feasibility and its effects, let's review the arguments.

The pros. Those advocating Cooperative Professional Development argue from several grounds. First they point out that teachers prefer to turn to colleagues rather than supervisors for advice--and cooperative professional development tends to

legitimize and strengthen this tendency. The most comprehensive review of teachers' preferences for consultation is probably that provided by Holdaway and Millikan (1980). In reviewing separate studies conducted at the University of Alberta over a ten-year period, they note that teachers more frequently called on colleagues for help and tended to value the advice of colleagues more than the advice of supervisors. This finding is supported as well by the research of De Sauctis and Blumberg (1980) in their study of Teachers' Conversations. They discovered that 64 percent of the conversations of professional matters were held with colleagues, and only 23 percent with professional staff personnel and 7 percent with the principal.

A second reason stated by supporters for implementing these programs is that teachers can provide useful feedback to each other, without extensive training and without the use of complex forms and cooperative professional development is structured to make such feedback occur more regularly and more systematically. Brophy (1979) points out that teachers can learn a great deal about their teaching simply by receiving feedback from a colleague about what occurred in the classroom, and urges teachers to work together with competent, interested colleagues.

Finally, advocates of cooperative professional development point out that such collegial systems are built upon and sustain norms of collegiality and such norms have been found to be a significant feature of successful schools. Little's (1982) study of four successful and two less successful schools concluded that the presence of such norms was an important characteristic of the successful schools. And Berman and McLaughlin's (1978) review of successful innovation reached generally the same conclusion.

The cons. These arguments have not convinced the skeptics who tend to question both the desirability and feasibility of collegial systems. Those who question the desirability of the system usually point out that untrained teachers cannot provide the same quality of supervision that trained supervisors can provide; they see supervision as a highly skilled process lying beyond the capabilities of untrained individuals. Lieberman (1972) questions its desirability from a cost-benefit perspective; in advising negotiating teams not to support such programs in the contract, he argues that the cost of providing substitutes to release teachers to observe will not have sufficient payoff. Finally, Alfonso (1977) points out that such systems are not likely to be effective, because the

observations and feedback conferences appear as random activities and are not linked to system goals.

And there have been those who, while admitting the possible benefits of cooperative development, question its feasibility. Perhaps the most cogent presentation of such reservations can be found in Alfonso and Goldsberry (1982). While generally sympathetic with the values and goals of the cooperative approach, they very usefully describe some important organizational barriers. First, the bureaucratic structure of the school militates against the success of such programs: the lack of time, the inadequate interactions with colleagues, and physical structure of the school building all get in the way. Second, they note that the prevailing milieu of the schools is antithetical: schools make teachers independent, not team-oriented; competitive, not cooperative; and isolated, not interacting. Finally, they note that collective bargaining agreements often interfere with the successful implementation of such programs, citing the research reported in Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) that most contracts restrict, rather than support, cooperation and collegiality.

The Research on Cooperative Professional Development

Unfortunately, the research does not provide a definitive answer to the controversy. There are a relatively small number of studies and most have been modest investigations of feasibility. Those that did concern themselves with the effects of such programs usually analyzed only the attitudes and perceptions of participants, not the effect upon behavior.

All of the studies, however, do offer some useful guidelines for practitioners and do yield some tentative support for implementing cooperative programs.

A review of all the feasibility studies conducted by doctoral students and by other researchers suggests that the following factors have a strong influence on the success of the programs.

1. The attitude of administrators. If administrators oppose such programs, they are less likely to succeed. If, on the other hand, the administrators advocate them too aggressively, they tend to be viewed with distrust. The best attitude seems to be one of support and endorsement, but not aggressive advocacy.

2. The attitude of teacher associations. While teacher associations appear reluctant to make official

endorsements of such programs, they have been informed and consulted in the programs that seemed to succeed.

3. The prevailing school climate. If good relationships exist between teachers and administrators, the programs have a greater likelihood of success; the programs seem not to have fared well where researchers reported serious conflict or pervasive distrust.

4. The extent to which the program was monitored. In most of the successful feasibility studies, the researcher played an active role in soliciting support for the cooperative programs and in monitoring their implementation. There is some evidence that those same programs, which were initially successful during the period when the researcher played an active role, had less support and commitment in subsequent years.

5. The resources available. While several studies have demonstrated the feasibility of implementing cooperative programs with very limited resources, the researchers have pointed out that additional resources would have helped. Time, in particular, is the critical commodity, time to learn the skills needed, time to observe, and time to confer.

Thus, the research in general suggests that when these five factors are positive, implementation is successful. What is known about the effects of such

programs? As noted above, most of the research has been limited to studies of the effect of participation on teachers' attitudes. Perhaps such studies have been conducted, varying a great deal, of course, in the rigor of their design and implementation.

Cooperative Professional Development in the Differentiated System

The specifics of how the differentiated program is to be implemented are, to a large measure, left open to participants. However, the following general approach has been found to be useful in most schools.

First, a member of the administrative or supervisory staff is given responsibility for organizing the program and informally monitoring its progress. That individual meets with the teachers who have expressed interest in and who are eligible for cooperative professional development. As indicated previously, cooperative development probably should be an option only for competent and experienced teachers; beginning teachers and experienced teachers only marginal in performance probably need the more intensive clinical mode.

The leader and the participants together determine the basic provisions under which the program will operate. They begin by discussing the scope of the cooperative program. Will it be confined to

observation and conferring, or will it also include curriculum development, materials, preparation, inservice sessions, and the exchange classes? Based on this discussion the participants then finalize the arrangements under which the program will operate. At a minimum they usually commit themselves to making at least two observations and holding a feedback conference after each. Two seems to be the absolute minimum; more would probably be desirable, but teachers usually have trouble finding time to make more than two observations and to hold two conferences. Participants also agree to submit a brief report simply noting when observations and conferences were held. And finally, they agree that the teacher being observed controls the agenda, specifying in general when the observation is desired and what kind of observation would be most helpful. Our experience is that teachers will profit most from the program if they experience and make both a unfocused observation.

Each participant is then surveyed to determine which colleagues he or she wishes to work with in the project; studies indicates that two or three member teams work best. The interactions in larger teams tend to become too complex. To simplify the matching process, participants are asked to list a first, second, and third choice of colleagues. It should be

noted here that, when left to their own choices, teachers usually exercise good judgment. An experienced teacher and a teacher with only two or three years of experience will often pair off because they know they can learn from each other's quiet different perspectives. A 6th grade teacher and a kindergarten teacher will pair off to get a different view of the pupils.

The schedule is often an important factor in forming teams. If at all possible, team members should have, during a given week, one preparation period in common (to discuss their observations) and at least one preparation period not in common (so that they can visit each other without needing a substitute). For this reason, it is administratively prudent to organize at least the cooperative component of the differentiated program at the end of the school year prior to its initiation so that the school master schedule can reflect these observing and conferring needs.

If resources are available and participants are interested, a few training sessions should then be held to give teachers the skills they need for cooperative professional development. Desirable skills include how to:

1. make an unfocused observation;
2. analyze data from an unfocused observation;
3. confer after an unfocused observation;
4. make a focused observation;
5. analyze data from focused observation; and
6. confer after a focused observation.

If time is limited, the training session should probably be restricted to the three general skills: observing, analyzing, conferring.

With the orientation and training completed, the program then begins. Teachers observe, analyze, and confer, submitting a simple progress report. The administrator or supervisor responsible for the program checks the reports and confers informally with participants, just to be sure that the program is moving along well and that problems are dealt with. The main problem is predictable; even teachers with the best of intentions will continue to postpone the observations and the conferences. A few reminders are usually enough to get the program back on track again.

This is a relatively simple program that doesn't make too many promises or demands. It will probably not bring about significant changes in behavior, but it will raise the level of professional interaction, give teachers feedback about a limited part of their

teaching, and help them to see their colleagues and supervisors in a more positive light.

Self-Directed Development

Self-directed development is another option offered to those who do not need or want clinical supervision; a process in which a teacher works independently, directing his or her own professional growth.

The Nature of Self-Directed Development

As used in the program of Differentiated Supervision, Self-Directed Development is a process of professional growth characterized by four features:

1. The individual works independently on a program of professional growth. Although a member of the leadership team acts as a resource for the teacher, the teacher is not supervised by others, in the conventional sense of that term, and the teacher does not work cooperatively with other members of the team.

2. The individual develops and follows a goal-oriented program of professional improvement. The goals of that program stem from the teacher's own assessment of professional need; there is no necessity for the teacher's goals to be derived from organizational goals. It is assumed that any

professional growth will contribute at least indirectly to the school's goals.

3. The individual has access to a variety of resources in working toward those goals. Based on the nature of the goals set, the leader and the teacher may decide that one or more of the following resources and experiences might be appropriate: videotapes of the teacher's teaching; feedback from students; professional books and computerized information services; graduate courses and intensive workshops; support from school and district supervisors and administrators; interschool visitation.

4. The results of the self-directed program are not used in evaluating teacher performance. The program is entirely divorced from evaluation; it is assumed that the teacher will be evaluated by whatever district program is in place.

These four characteristics distinguish self-directed professional growth both from other components of the differentiated program and from other types of inservice education.

Versions of Self-Directed Development

A review of the literature yields a relatively few citations on self-supervision, which is perhaps a contradiction in terms, or selfdirected professional

growth. There are, however, references to two analogous approaches: self-appraisal systems and self-analysis of instruction with videotape. While each differs in some respects from the self-directed development defined above, perhaps a review of these analogous approaches can shed some light on the strengths and weaknesses of the approach under discussion.

Self-appraisal system. While self-directed professional development is distinctly nonevaluative in nature, it is similar in several other respects to self-appraisal systems. Since almost all self-appraisal programs are variations of Management by Objective (MBO) systems, the following focuses on their particular version of self-directed development.

How do self-appraisal systems work? While there are some variations in individual plans, in general they seem to follow a somewhat similar process:

1. Administrators establish district and school goals for the year, which are shared with the supervisory and instructional staff.

2. Each staff member does a self-evaluation and sets individual performance targets, which are expected to be related to district or school goals.

3. Each staff member develops an appraisal contract, listing performance objectives, methods of

achieving those objectives, resources needed, and the means by which attainment will be evaluated.

4. Each staff member confers with the administrator-evaluator to review the appraisal contract and to make any modifications deemed necessary.

5. The staff member and the evaluator confer periodically to monitor progress.

6. The staff member and the evaluator hold a summative conference to assess the attainment of the performance targets and to make plans for the next appraisal cycle.

Perhaps the best assessment of how such plans actually work in schools come from the Hyde Park, New York, school system, which has used an MBO system since 1972. In what seems to be a candid assessment of its strengths and weaknesses, Gray and Burns (1979) conclude that it has achieved mixed success after a somewhat promising beginning: "Through the years. . . the number and quality of job objectives set by teachers and administrators has declined." After reviewing the Hyde Park experience and that of other schools using such plans, they conclude that several factors explain the limited success of MBO appraisal systems:

- a. There were no sanctions for mediocre performance.

- b. The ratio of teachers to administrators was too large for effective appraisal.
- c. The teacher association insisted on restrictive contract provisions.
- d. There was insufficient staff development to accompany the program.
- e. Some administrators were too lenient in reviewing performance targets.
- f. There was often a climate of distrust and suspicion prevalent in the district.

Self-analysis of videotaped instruction. A second version of self-directed professional development emphasizes the analysis of videotape of teachers' classroom. It seems appropriate here to describe briefly a self-directed program that relies solely on videotape analysis. According to Moritz and Martin-Reynolds (1980) the Maumee, Ohio, school district has developed a program of self-analysis and self-development that makes primary use of a split-screen technique: The teacher is on one half of the screen and the pupils are on the other half. As they describe the process, the teacher begins by presenting a microteaching lesson to peers and has a brief practice taping in the classroom simply to become accustomed to the taping process. The teacher then chooses the class or activity he or she wants taped,

and the videotape is made. The teacher next reviews the tape first, with the audio off to focus on nonverbal behavior and, second, with the video off, to focus on verbal behavior. After viewing and analyzing the tape, the teacher identifies one or two verbal or nonverbal skills that can be improved and that will become the focus of the teacher's development during the month to come. With the analysis completed, the teacher then meets with a supervisor or administrator to share the tape and the results of the self-analysis.

Moritz and Martin-Reynolds recommend that this cycle of taping-goal-setting-sharing occur about three or four times the first year the program is in operation, with reduced frequency in subsequent years.

The Arguments for and Against Self-Directed Development

Regardless of the form it takes, self-directed development has not been generally accepted as a model for professional growth. It might be useful to review the arguments here before turning to the research.

Those advocating self-directed development usually argue from three grounds: The individualized needs of teachers, the nature of adult learning, and the professionalism of teaching. They point out, first, that teachers are individuals with very distinct needs and learning styles. Bents and Howey (1981) note that,

as adults, teachers are at different stages of development along both the interpersonal and cognitive dimensions. Drawing from the work of Santmire (1979), they point out that some teachers are at a rather basic level of conceptual development. Their learning styles are characterized by these features: they are oriented toward the practical; want to know what is "correct" and what is "incorrect"; prefer learning that is presented or sanctioned by an authority; and prefer to be involved in staff development programs that are clearly organized and systematic. Other teachers, Bents and Howey suggest, are at a somewhat more advanced level of conceptual development, whose preferred learning styles are characterized by quite different features: they tend to question more; are more interested in principles and issues; will sometimes challenge authorities; and two of these five characteristics point directly toward the need for individualizing the professional growth of teachers. First, adults have a deep need to be self-directed; as a consequence, they should be involved in programs that foster such self-direction. Second, individual differences increase with age; adult learning, therefore, should make optimal provisions for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning. Thus, self-directed programs are more likely

to respond to the need for self-direction and to adult developmental differences.

A final argument for self-directed development is based on the professional nature of teaching.

Armstrong(1973) points out that teaching has become increasingly professionalized; teachers have assumed quasi-managerial roles, directing the work of aides, paraprofessionals, student teachers, and volunteers, and taking an increasingly larger role in the decision-making process. Advocates of the self-directed learning believe that teachers, as professionals, should be able to judge their own performance.

Others in the profession are not persuaded by these arguments. They note that individual needs can be effectively met in group interactions: the teacher working with a group of colleagues takes from the interactions whatever is needed for professional growth. All learning, in their terms, is individualized since every participant derives personal meaning from each encounter. Their second argument, in fact, emphasizes the importance of such interactions in learning. Learning at its best is the growth that comes from professional dialogue and encounter; teachers need other teachers and supervisors for stimulation, challenge, and support. Finally, as

McNeil and Popham (1973) point out, most teachers are not autonomous, self-directing learners; they lack the capacity to make accurate evaluations of themselves, to identify areas of improvement, and to complete a program of independent study.

The Research on Self-Directed Development

Since there is relatively little research that explicitly examines programs of self-directed development, the brief review that follows examines instead the assumptions that undergird such programs. Based on the studies available, the following tentative conclusions can provide a useful guide to action.

1. Teachers do not seem to be able to make reliable appraisals of their own teaching. In reviewing the research on self-appraisal, Carroll (1981) concludes, "empirical studies have generally demonstrated that self-ratings show little agreement with ratings of students, colleagues, or administrators." He cites studies that indicate that, while the correlation between self-rating and student rating was only .28, the correlation between student ratings and colleague ratings was .70.

2. Teacher reports of their classroom behaviors tend not to correspond with the reports of observers. After reviewing several studies that compare teachers'

reports of what went on in their classrooms with the reports of observers who were present, Hook and Roseshine (1979) conclude, "one is not advised to accept teacher reports of specific behaviors as particularly accurate. No slur is intended; teachers do not have practice in estimating their behavior and then checking against actual performance."

3. Feedback to the teacher by means of videotape is most effective when another observer is present during the viewing to present a second point of view and to focus the teacher's attention. Based on their review of the research on feedback by video, Fuller and Manning (1973) conclude that the presence of an observer to focus and confront is highly desirable.

4. Teachers can learn from self-instructional materials as well as they can learn from supervisors. Several studies support the use of self-instructional materials by mature learners. Edwards (1975) concluded that students who did their micro-teaching with self-instructional materials and without a supervisor performed just as well as those who used the self-instructional materials with a supervisor's help. And in a meta-analysis of 75 students comparing the use of the Keller Personalized System of Instruction with conventional classroom instruction, Kulik, Kulik, and Cohen (1980) concluded that college students using such

systems had higher examination scores and gave their courses higher ratings, without increasing the amount of study time.

5. Individualized staff development programs tend to be more effective than those that present uniform experiences to all participants. Lawrence's (1974) review of 97 studies of inservice programs concluded that programs with individualized activities were more likely to achieve their objectives than those that provided similar experiences for all participants.

The research tends to suggest, then, that there is merit in both positions. Teachers can acquire some skills and information from independent learning and will prefer programs that provide some choice of activities, but their professional growth will be better facilitated if they have feedback from sources other than their own perceptions and can work with someone who can focus their learning.

Self-Directed Development in the Differentiated Model

Self-Directed Development in the Differentiated Model attempts to build upon the strengths of several individualized approaches to professional growth while trying to avoid the pitfalls of each.

As with the cooperative program, one administrator or supervisor is expected to provide leadership in this

component. Our pilot studies indicate that the principal can often play this role successfully, although an Assistant Principal, District Supervisor, or School Supervisor might also have the requisite skills. This designated leader meets with all the teachers interested in and eligible for the self-directed component. Again, our experience suggests that beginning teachers and experienced teachers with problems should be directed into the clinical component, since the self-directed mode seems to work best for mature and competent teachers.

At this initial meeting, the following issues should be resolved through open discussion:

a. To what extent should the teacher's plan for professional growth be formalized? Our pilot studies indicate that the program works best when teachers are asked to develop and submit a relatively simple proposal for their self-directed development. Some structure is needed without making the process seem too bureaucratic.

b. What resources will be available for the self-directed component? It is important at the outset to specify the range of resources available and the fiscal and time constraints that operate. Participants need to know to what extent they will be able to make use of resources such as the following: videotape;

student feedback; professional books and computerized information sources; collegial consultation; supervisor and administrator assistance; observations within and outside the school; graduate courses, special workshops, and inservice programs; professional travel and conference attendance.

c. What type of monitoring will be anticipated? While selfdirected development excludes the evaluation process, it does need to be monitored by a supervisor or administrator. Brief and informal conferences are sufficient for this purpose but the matter needs to be resolved at the outset.

Each teacher involved, then, is expected to develop a plan for self-directed development. Our experience suggests that a simple proposal is best. On the form, the teacher should first indicate one or two goals for professional development. In contrast to the advocates of MBO approaches, who insist on measurable objectives, I believe that it is more useful to encourage teachers to set goals for themselves without worrying about whether the goal is quantifiable, measurable, or precisely stated. McGreal (1983) notes that the teacher and supervisors will accept the goal setting process more readily if it is made clear that the judgments made by trained and experienced teachers and supervisors are valid measures.

As an example of the types of goals that might be posed, consider the following teacher developed goals.

- * to become more knowledgeable about the composing process and to make use of the process in my classroom;
- * to learn how to teach critical thinking in my lessons;
- * to become more skilled in questioning pupils and responding to their answers;
- * to find out more about moral development in the classroom; and
- * to develop materials to stimulate pupils' creativity.

The teacher then indicates on the form a tentative plan of action for achieving the stated goals. Again, this plan of action can be stated generally. It simply helps the teacher to consider some specific steps that can be taken toward accomplishment of the goals. The final component of the proposal asks the teacher to note the personal and material resources needed.

These self-directed development proposals are then submitted to the leader in charge of this component of the program, who confers with each participant individually. The purposes of this conference are simply to be sure the goal is clearly understood by both leader and teacher, to exchange ideas about the

action plan, and to agree on the resources that will be committed. It is not expected that the leader will attempt to persuade the teacher to propose another goal; self-directed development is based on the primacy of personal, not organizational, goals.

The teacher begins to work on the plan for self-directed development, conferring from time to time with the leader about progress and problems. Although the teacher will for the most part be working independently, it is expected that the designated leader will play an active role as a resource for the teacher, suggesting sources, exchanging ideas, reflecting with the teacher about issues, and providing support throughout the program. Since there is no evaluation associated with self-directed development, it enables the administrator or supervisor to play the role of supportive and resourceful colleague.

At the end of the year the teacher and the leader then confer again to review what has been accomplished. The conference is primarily a time for the teacher to reflect about what has been learned, without worrying unduly about what has not been accomplished. The leader plays the role of a reflective listener, helping the teacher probe the meaning of the entire experience for the teacher's personal and professional growth.

After reviewing the literature of the most common supervisory models in education (Differentiated Supervision, Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Supervision, and Self-directed Supervision) the researcher prepared a questionnaire that was administered to 250 teachers of one school district in Western Massachusetts.

The questionnaire consisted of 23 questions or statements with four alternatives on each one, two alternatives on the positive side and the other two on the negative side.

The following chapter explains the methodology followed in conducting this exploratory study.

Notes

¹Herbert A. Thelen, *Education and the Human Quest* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1960), p. 1.

²Morris L. Cogan, "Supervision at the Harvard-Newton Summer School," Mimeographed (1961).

³Association for student teaching, *The College Supervisor: Conflict and Challenge* (Dubuque, Iowa: W.C. Brown Co., Inc., 1964), pp. 114-31.

⁴As used, the term Supervision refers to Clinical Supervision unless the context makes clear a reference to supervision in general.

⁵Ibid., pp. 19-20. The list is reproduced as it appears in Weller's except that items pertaining to group clinical supervision have been omitted.

⁶A poignant description of the conflicts caused by the teacher's dual role is presented in Susan Edgerton, "Teacher in Role Conflict: The Hidden Dilemma," *Phi Delta Kappan* 59 (1977): pp. 120-22.

⁷By "Cooperating Teacher" we mean a classroom teacher who supervises a preservice intern.

⁸Norman J. Boyan and Willis D. Copeland, "A Training Program for Supervisors: Anatomy of an Educational Development," *Journal of Educational Research* 68 (1974), 100-16.

⁹Blumberg and Amidon, "Teacher Perceptions."

¹⁰The research literature on microteaching and related techniques has been summarized by several reviewers: W.R. Borg, M.L. Kelly, P. Langer, and M. Call, *the minicourse: A Microteaching approach to teacher education* (Beverly Hills, Ca: MacMillan Educational Services, 1970); Robert F. Peck and James A. Tucker, "Research on teacher Education," In *Second Handbook of Research on Teaching*, ed. R. M. W. Travers (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973), pp. 940-78.

C H A P T E R I I I

METHODOLOGY

Before entering in the methodology the researcher wanted to stress the purpose of the study by giving the reader a brief explanation of each one of the systems examined in the review of literature.

As stated in the purpose of the study in Chapter I, the main purpose of this exploratory study is to examine different models of supervision that can be implemented to supervise performance in any school system.

The models examined are Differentiated Supervision, Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Supervision, and Self-directed Supervision.

Each one of these models has pros and cons, and the one model that is good for a particular group, might not work with another group in the same school district or even in the same school.

Clinical Supervision which is a face-to-face process between the teacher and the supervisor is accepted by many teachers in the system, but there are others that aren't.

Clinical Supervision has one very important advantage for the teacher as well as the supervisor in that both of them can establish a good relationship to

get confidence and security. But there are some disadvantages and the most important one is that both the teacher and supervisor have to be able to accept criticism and recommendations.

Cooperative Supervision is a process in which 4 or 5 teachers work together toward their professional growth. They observe each other's classes and then get together in conference to talk about the observations. Sometimes the group works according to the contract because the teachers feel themselves confident with their colleagues, but other times it doesn't.

Among the advantages that this model has is that the teachers can provide feedback to each other without an extensive capacitation or complex forms. It provides a structure to give regular and systematic feedback.

It also has disadvantages, one of which is that some teachers don't keep up to day with the studies in their area and the quality they provide is limited.

The Self-directed Development is a process in which the teacher works independently guiding his/her own professional growth. The teacher develops and follows a program oriented on the objectives of his/her own professional growth. The teacher should have access to a variety of resources while working toward the accomplishment of the objectives. The outcomes of

this process will not be used to evaluate teachers' performance.

Two advantages are that it is focused on the necessities of the teacher and that it facilitates a productive dialogue between teacher and supervisor.

The most remarkable disadvantages are that it limits the number of teachers who can get the benefit. For example, some teachers are new and don't have enough experience to be involved in this self-directed process.

Another model is Monitoring Supervision in which the Principal or Assistant Principal pays short visits to the classroom to check any specific situation. These visits may or may not be advised. They should be at crucial times like, beginning of the day, lunch time, and end of the day. A conference should take place after each visit.

In the following pages the reader can find an explanation of the methodology and a copy of the questionnaire that was developed to get the teacher perception of the instructional evaluation process. The questionnaire was developed taking into consideration the different models and was intended to answer the general questions previously stated in this chapter. Even though the questionnaire was sent to different ethnic groups it was written only in English.

Methodology

An explanation of the methodology, the type of sample, and the description and presentation of the instrument used in this exploratory research will be provided.

1. The first objective was to clearly outline the situation in the statement of the problem as it presently stands. This will give the research a guide to follow while searching for information.
2. The researcher will identify the information needed to try to solve the situation or problem. He will also identify the way in which the information is going to be gathered.
3. a questionnaire was instrument selected by the researcher to gather the information.
4. The questionnaire was developed around the different teacher evaluation models discussed in Chapter II.
5. The population to be studied was randomly selected among different schools in the district.
6. The research will try to obtain a sample population which represents the appropriate population.

7. A letter asking for approval was sent to the School Superintendent of the district in which the study was going to take place.
8. A plan was designed in order to apply and collect the instrument.
9. Analysis of the data.
10. Preparation of the report using the data gathered from the questionnaire.

Even though this is a descriptive study the researcher took the liberty of formulating the following general questions.

General Questions

1. Are teachers comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by the supervisor to evaluate the teaching-learning process in the classroom?
2. Are teachers aware of the different teacher evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model of their preference to evaluate performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process?

Subjects

The sample population was made up of two hundred and fifty (250) from 1,450 active teachers in a school district in Western Massachusetts. This sample represented teachers at both elementary and secondary level. Before the selection, a letter was sent to the

School Superintendent and Research Department asking permission to conduct the study. After a couple of weeks the Research Department Director gave permission to carry out the research study in the target district. The researcher then sent a letter to the principals of the schools of the selected population.

Instrument

To measure the feelings of the teachers about the teacher evaluation processes carried out by supervisors to evaluate the teaching-learning process in the classroom and to find out if the teachers are aware of the different evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model of their preference to evaluate performance during the teaching-learning process, the researcher prepared a questionnaire consisting of twenty-three statements and questions with four alternatives on each, two (2) on the positive side and two (2) on the negative (See Table 2).

Table 2
Questionnaire

SEX: MALE _____ FEMALE _____

RACE: WHITE _____ BLACK _____ HISPANIC _____ OTHER _____

STATUS: TENURED _____ NON-TENURED _____

This study is conducted by Mr. Jose Diaz as part of a research class that is being taken at UMASS. The findings will give the administration an idea of teacher's feelings in relation to the supervision process and school management. You will find 23 questions and sentences with four alternatives on each one. Please circle one of the alternatives. Note: The completion of this questionnaire is completely voluntary. The administration will receive a report of findings only.

1. Supervision of teachers is an important factor in the teaching process.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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2. Clinical supervision is the best type of supervision in the teaching-learning process. (It is done fact to face between the teacher and supervisor with a double dimension: Professional development and improvement in the teaching process).

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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3. Do you see any advantages to the clinical supervision process?

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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4. Cooperative supervision is helpful to teachers. (It is a process where a group of 4 or 5 teachers work together for their own improvement. They observe each others' classes and then get together to discuss them.)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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Continued, next page.

Table 2 continued

5. Do you see any advantages in cooperative supervision?

A lot Much A little Nothing

6. Do you know about the self-professional development process? (It is a process by which a teacher systematically plans for his or her own professional growth--and conscientiously carries out the plan over the course of a year.)

A lot Much A little Nothing

7. Do you know about the administrative monitoring supervision process? (It is an informal process of briefly observing a class and giving the teacher some informal feedback about the observation.)

A lot Much A little Nothing

8. Would you like to be oriented about the self-professional development and administrative monitoring supervision processes.

Very much Much Little Very little

9. Have you talked with your colleagues about these types of supervision? (Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Supervision, Self-Professional Development and Administrative Monitoring Process.)

A lot Much A little Never

10. Teachers should be made aware of the supervisory process that is going to be followed to evaluate them.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

11. All classroom observation should be pre-arranged between the teacher and the supervisor.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

12. Classroom observation should run at least one class period four times a year.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

Continued next page.

Table 2 continued

13. Did your supervisor meet with you before the classroom observation?

Always Sometimes Seldom Never

14. Did you receive any feedback from your supervisor after the classroom observation?

A lot Much Little None

15. Have you talked to your supervisor about the type of supervision you prefer?

A lot Many times Few times Never

16. Do you agree with the type of supervision followed by your supervisor during the evaluation process?

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

17. Do you like the way your supervisor discussed the last evaluation with you?

Very much Much Little Very little

18. The supervisor is supportive of and operates within the policies of the district during the supervision process.

Very much Much Little Very little

19. Is your supervisor a cooperative person?

Very much Much Little Very little

20. Tenured teachers should be evaluated every year.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

21. Supervisors should take special training in classroom observation and supervision.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree

Continued next page

Table 2 continued

22. Do you think that a standard form is needed to evaluate all teachers in the public school system?

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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23. Because the supervisor is responsible for the supervision process, he has the right to choose the model to be followed.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

C H A P T E R I V

FINDINGS

Data From the Questionnaire

In this chapter, an explanation of the results obtained in this exploratory study are given.

Two hundred fifty (250) questionnaires went out to teachers in one of Western Massachusetts School District and one hundred seventy five (175) responses were received, representing seventy (70%) percent return.

The questionnaire include twenty-three (23) statements or questions in which the respondent will choose one of four (4) alternatives.

The possible responses offered in the questionnaire were defined as follow:

Strongly Agree	A Lot	A Lot	Very Much
Agree	Many	Much	Much
Disagree	A Few	A Little	Little
Strongly Disagree	None	Nothing	Very Little
Always	A Lot	A Lot	
Sometimes	Much	Many Times	
Seldom	Little	Few Times	
Never	Never	Never	

The Likert Scale was used to tally the responses and the percentages used were rounded to two (2) digits. (Likert Scale is a scale with one (1) through four (4), where one (1) is for the positive side "Strongly Agree", and four (4) for the negative side "Strongly Disagree.") Different terms could be used to express positive or negative, like the ones above.

At the end of the Chapter, you will find bar scale graphics showing the percentages of the respondents to each one of the statements of questions included in the questionnaire (see Figures 1 - 23). A note explaining the graphic will be at the bottom of each figure.

The data gathered from the statements or questions of the questionnaire was intended to answer the questions stated in the limitation of the study (see Chapter I).

According to the data collected on items 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, and 19, seventy-one percent (71%) of the respondents were comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by the supervisor to evaluate the teaching-learning process in the classroom.

This total of seventy-one percent (71%) was divided into two categories: (1) eighteen percent (18%) of the respondents strongly agree that they were comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by

the supervisors to evaluate the teaching-learning process in the classroom, and (2) fifty-three percent (53%) agreed in the same question.

Meanwhile twenty-eight percent (28%) of the respondents were not comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by the supervisor to evaluate the teaching-learning process in the classroom. This twenty-eight percent (28%) was divided as follows: twenty-two percent (22%) disagree with the process and six percent (6%) strongly disagree with it.

From the numbers obtained from the statements or questions formulated to answer question number one (1), the researcher can conclude that more than two thirds ($2/3$) of the teachers were comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by the supervisor to evaluate the teaching process in the classroom.

On question two (2), statements or questions number 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9, were oriented to determine whether teachers are aware of the different teacher evaluation model and the right they have to choose the model used to evaluate their performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process. A total of fifty-five percent (55%) were ranged on the positive side of the question; thirty-nine percent (39%) of the respondents agree and sixteen percent (16%) strongly agree that they were aware of the

different evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model used to evaluate performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process.

Forty-four percent (44%) responded on the negative side of the question and were divided as follows:

thirty-four percent (34%) disagree and ten percent (10%) strongly disagree that the teachers are aware of the different teacher evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model used to evaluate their performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process.

Using the information obtained from the items designed to answer question two (2), the researcher concludes that there is a slight majority (55% versus 44%) of teachers who are aware of the different teacher evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model used to evaluate their performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process. This means that it is necessary for principals to include in their schedule various sessions to talk about the different models of teacher evaluation and the teachers' right to choose the model they prefer.

Question number eight (8) in the questionnaire explored the willingness of the teachers to be oriented in two of the teacher evaluation models; Self-Professional Development and Administrative

Monitoring. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents would like to be oriented in those particular models.

Even though the answers to both questions fell on the positive side, there are many teachers in need of someone to help them achieve success in the complicated field of education.

This chapter gives the reader an idea of how the teachers perceived the supervisor as an instructional evaluator and how they feel about the system carried out by the supervisor during the evaluation process in relation to the different models that are available to evaluate performance.

The following 23 pages show a bar scale representing the various percentages of the responses to each of the four alternatives in each question.

After analyzing all 23 questions and statements and having taken out the percentages to each one of the, to the four (4) alternatives, the researcher is in position to point out some conclusions and make recommendations based on the findings from the respondents.

From the information obtained to answer the general questions the researcher concluded that 2/3 of the teachers were comfortable with the evaluation process carried out by their supervisors to evaluate the teaching process in the classroom and that 55

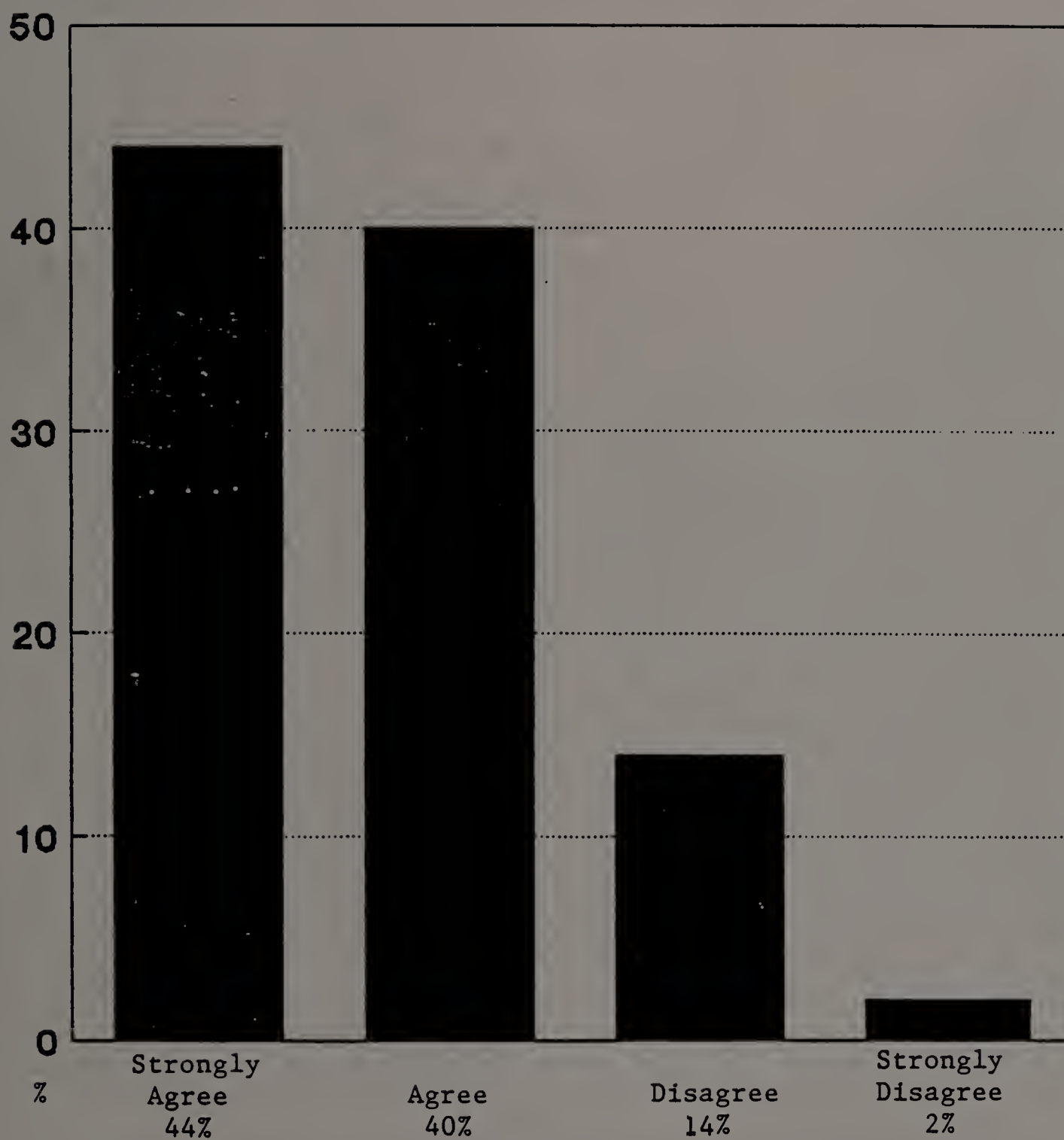


Figure 1

Supervision in the Teaching Process

Supervision of teachers is an important factor in the teaching process.

The vast majority of teachers agreed that supervision is important in the teaching process. Only 16% disagreed that supervision is important in the teaching process.

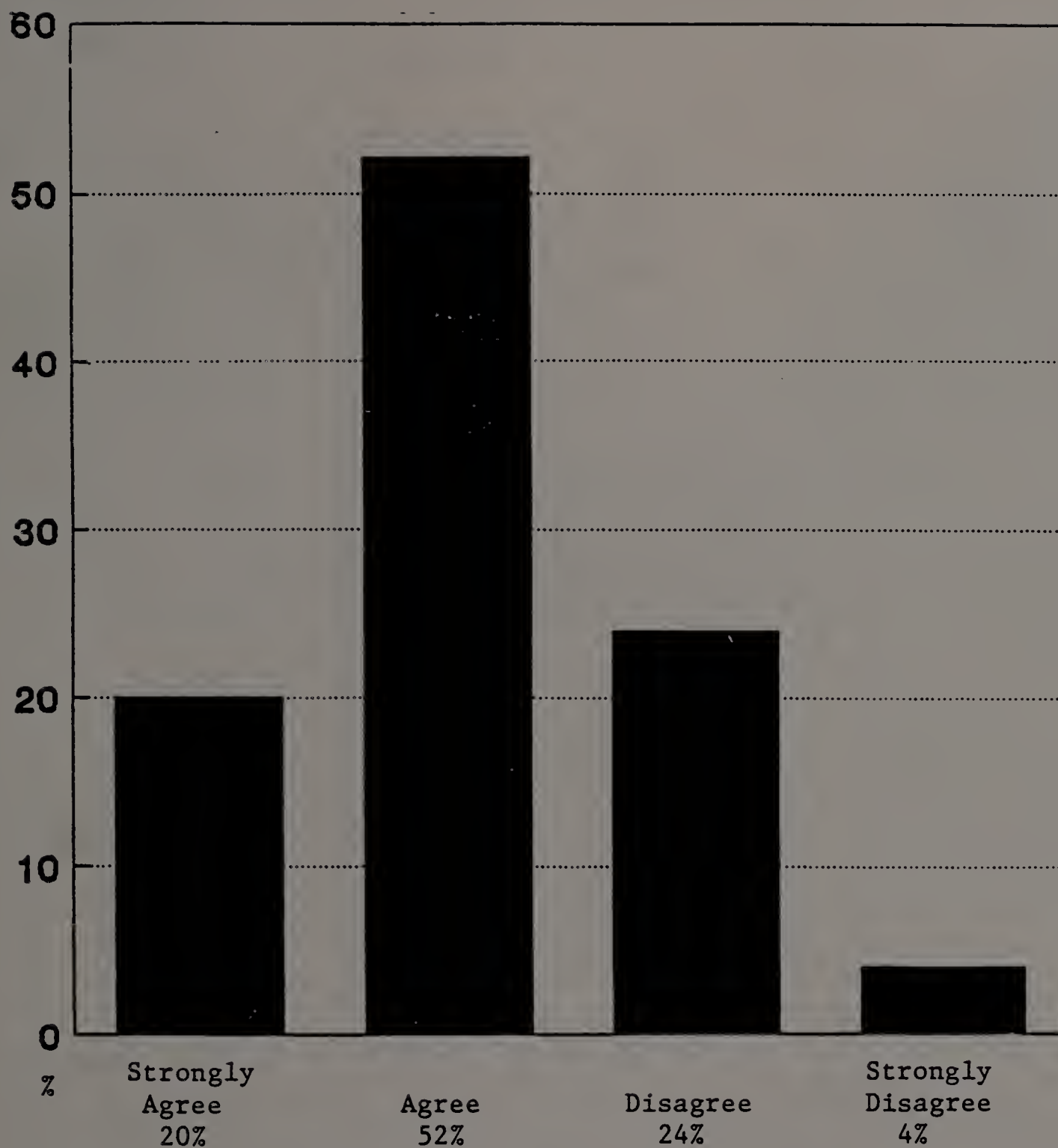


Figure 2

Clinical Supervision in the Teaching-Learning Process

Clinical supervision is the best type of supervision in the teaching-learning process. (It is done face to face between the teacher and supervisor with a double dimension: Professional development and improvement in the teaching process.)

The majority of the teachers thought that clinical supervision is the best type of supervision. 64% are in favor of clinical supervision, meanwhile 32% do not think the same.

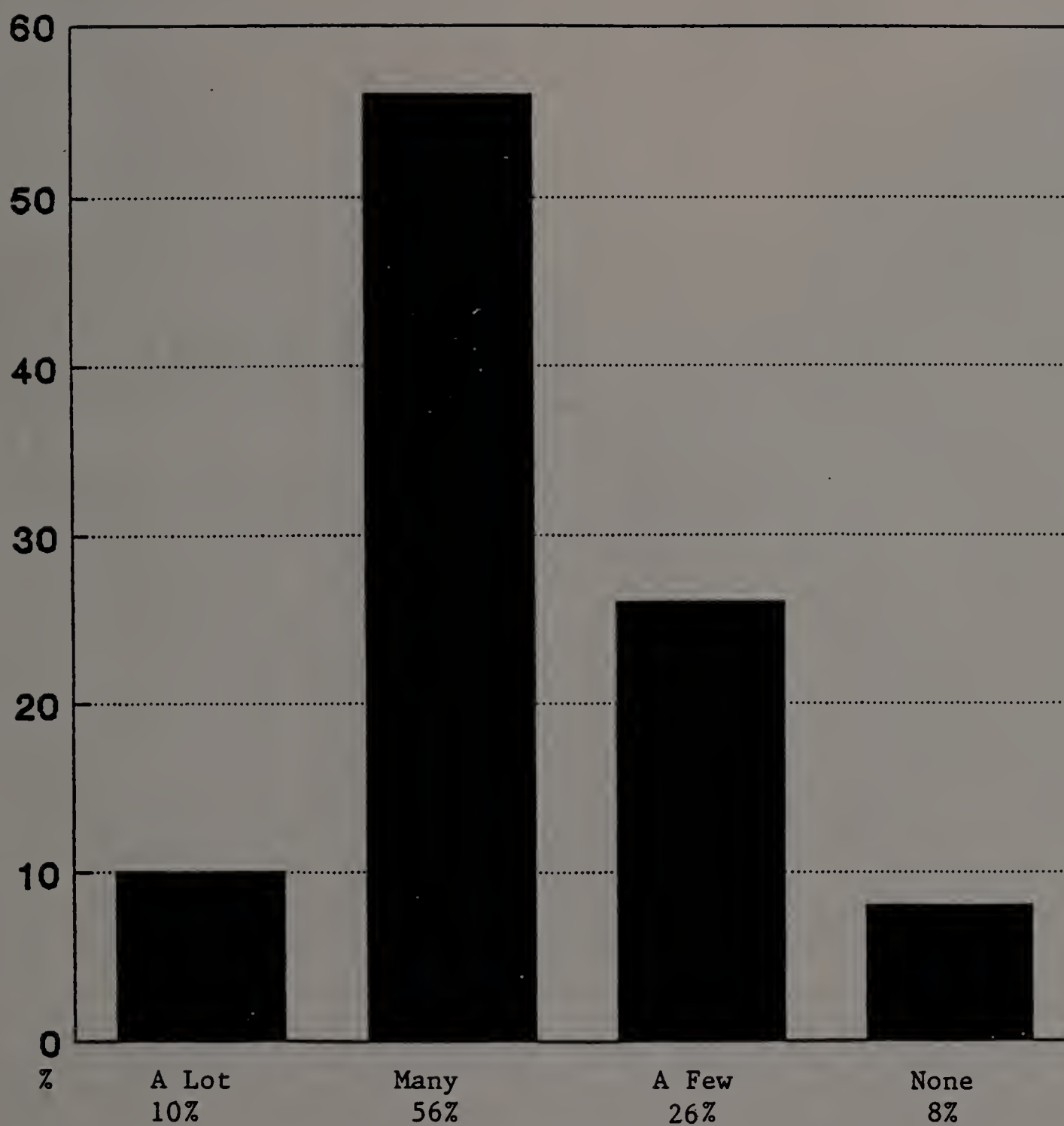


Figure 3

Clinical Supervision (Advantages)

Do you see any advantages to the clinical supervision process?

Almost 2/3 of the teachers (66%) thought that there are advantages in the clinical supervision process. 26% thought that there are a few advantages and 8% thought that there are none.

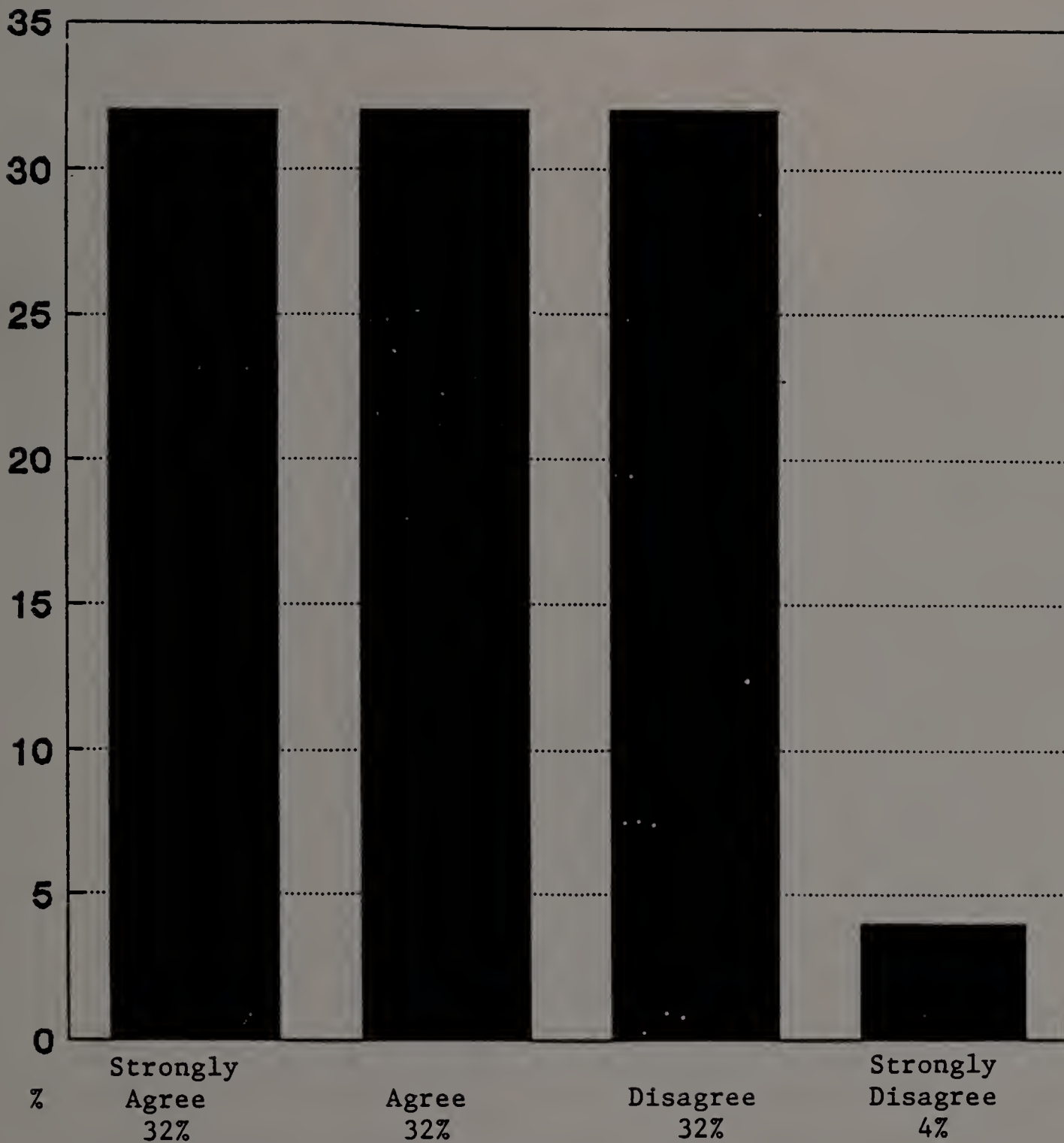


Figure 4

Cooperative Supervision

Cooperative supervision is helpful to teachers. (It is a process where a group of four or five teachers work together for their own improvement. They observe each others' classes and then get together to discuss them.)

As we can see 2/3 of the teachers (64%) considered that cooperative supervision is helpful to teachers. About 1/3 or 36% disagreed.

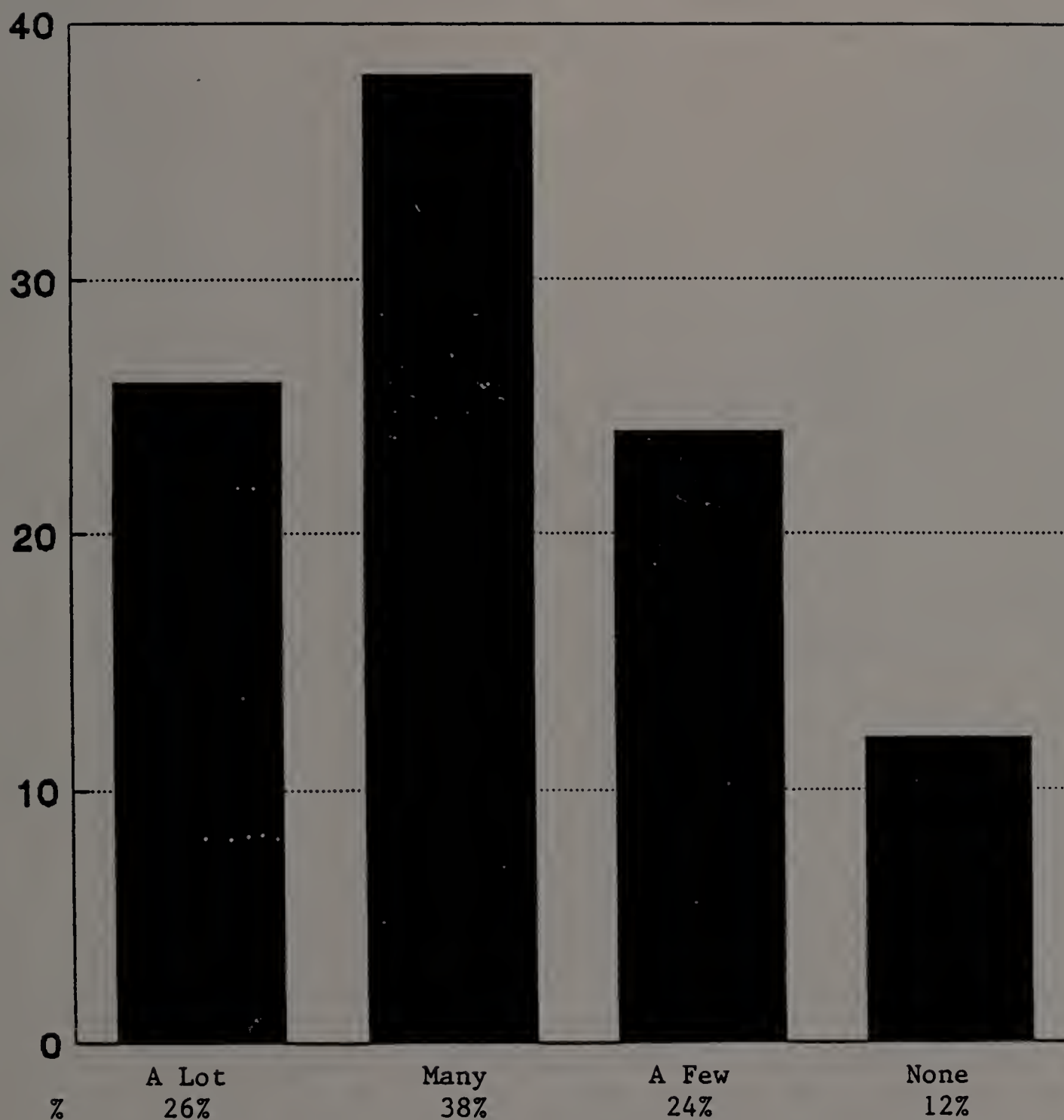


Figure 5

Cooperative Supervision (Advantages)

Do you see any advantages in cooperative supervision?

The majority of teachers see some advantages to cooperative supervision. 24% thought that there are a few and 12% thought there are none.

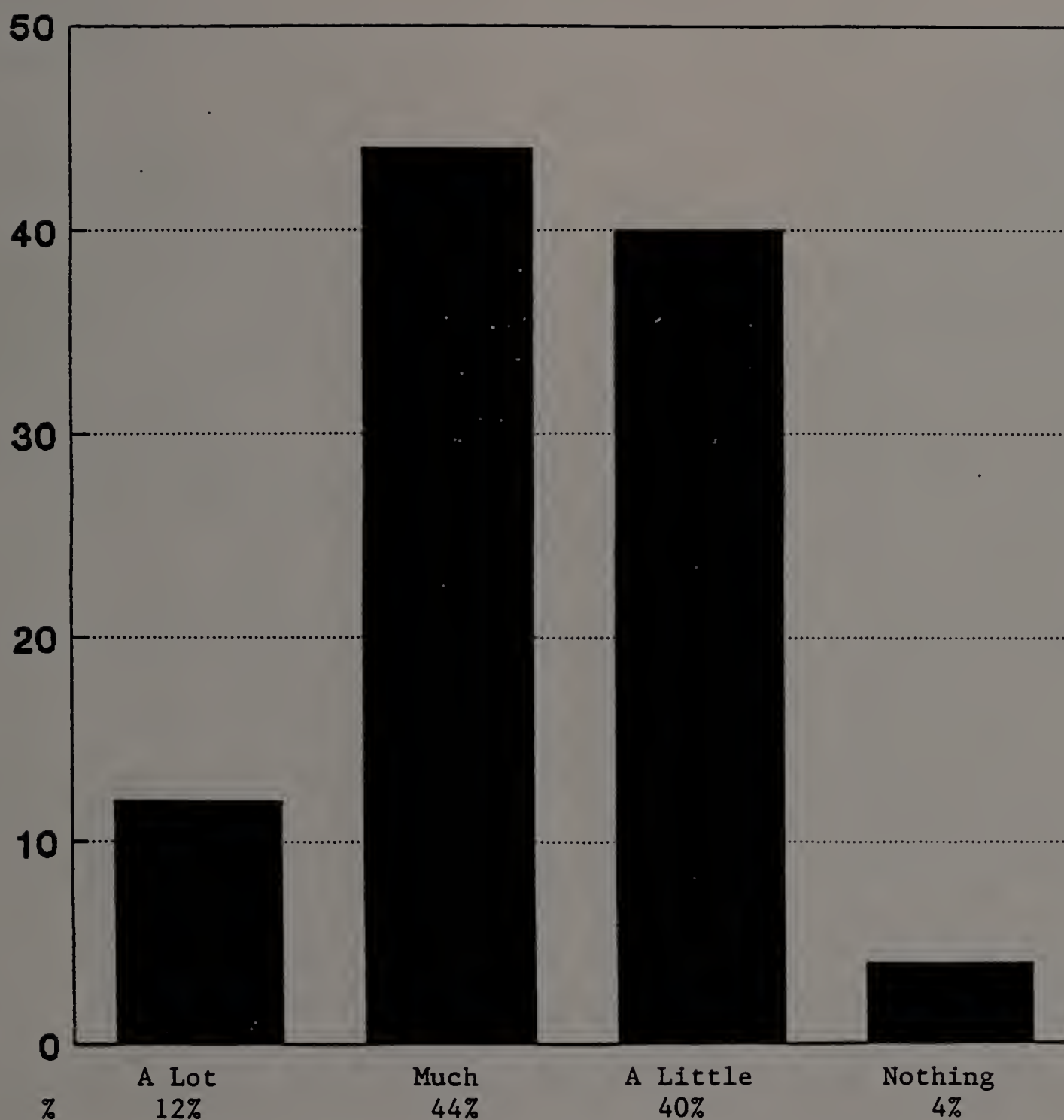


Figure 6

Self-Professional Development Process

Do you know about self-professional development process? (It is a process by which a teacher systematically plans for his or her own professional growth and conscientiously carries out the plan over the course of a year.)

It shows that most of the teachers know about self-professional development process. 12% know a lot and 44% much about the process. 40% considered that they know a little and only 4% do not know about it.

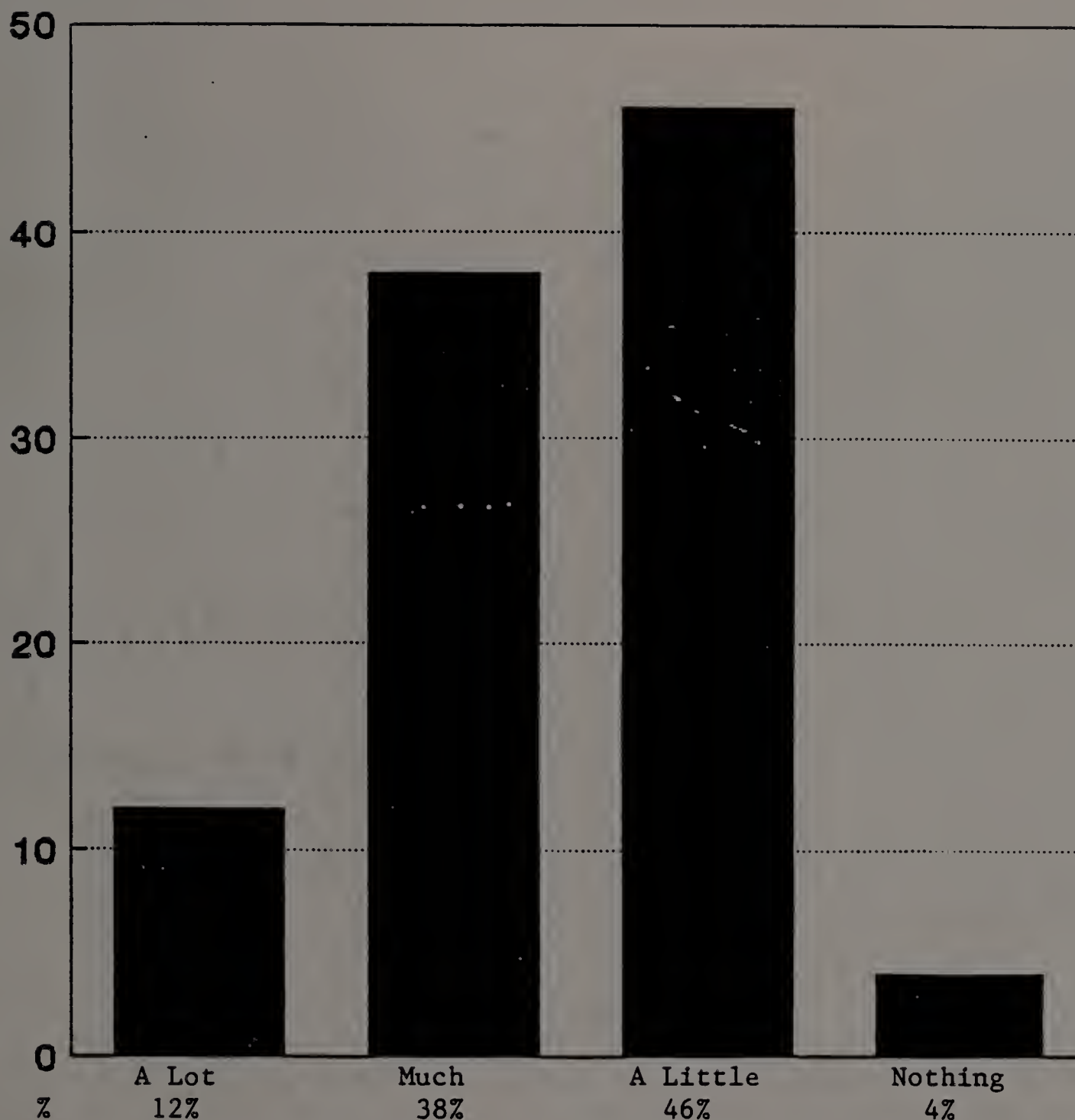


Figure 7

Administrative Monitoring Supervision

Do you know about administrative monitoring supervision process? (It is an informal process of briefly observing a class and giving the teacher some informal feedback about the observation.)

It seems that the majority of the teachers know about administrative monitoring supervision process. 12% know a lot and 38% much about the process. 46% is familiar or knows a little about the process. 4% know nothing about it.

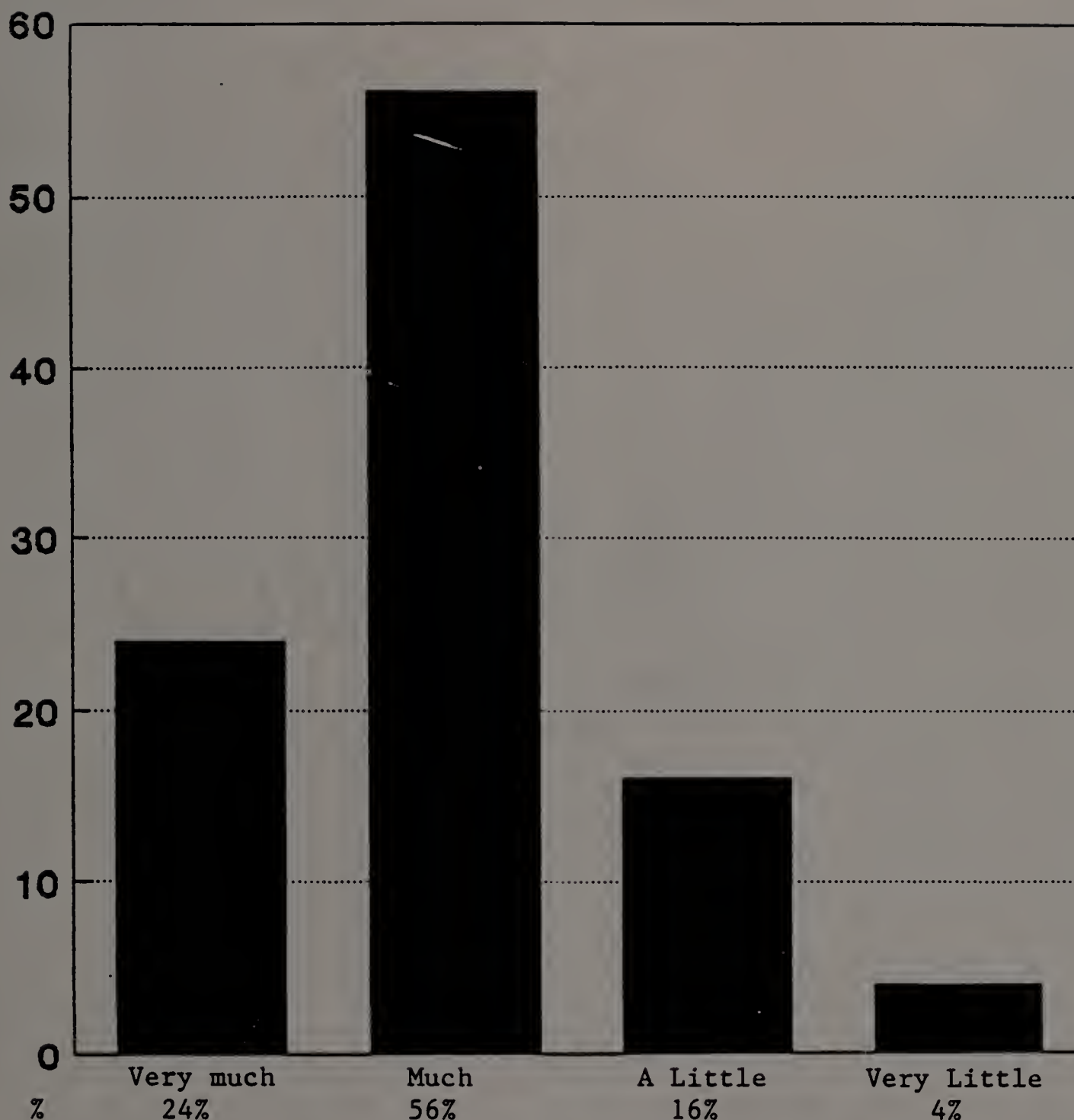


Figure 8

Orientation About Different Supervision Process(es)

Would you like to be oriented about self-professional development and administrative monitoring supervision process?

Most of the teachers are interested in getting information about different types of supervision. 24% would like very much to be oriented, 56% much and 16% little. Only 4% would like a little.

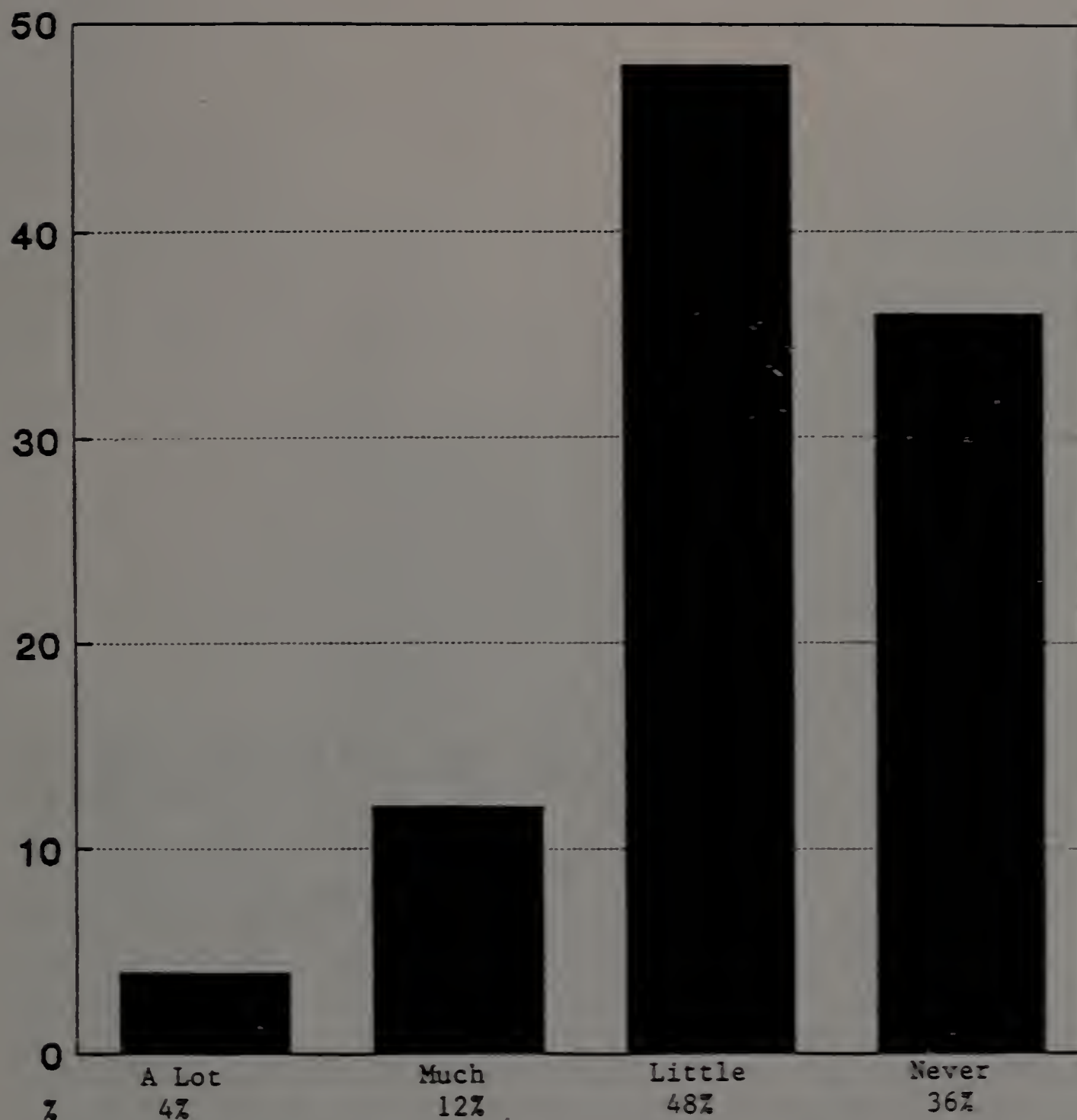


Figure 9

Sharing Information

Have you talked with your colleagues about these types of supervision? (Clinical Supervision, Cooperative Supervision, Self-Professional Development and Administrative Monitoring Process.)

The result of this question shows that 48% of the teachers talk a little with their colleagues about clinical supervision, cooperative supervision, self-professional development, and administrative monitoring process and that 36% never talk. Only 12% talk much and 4% a lot.

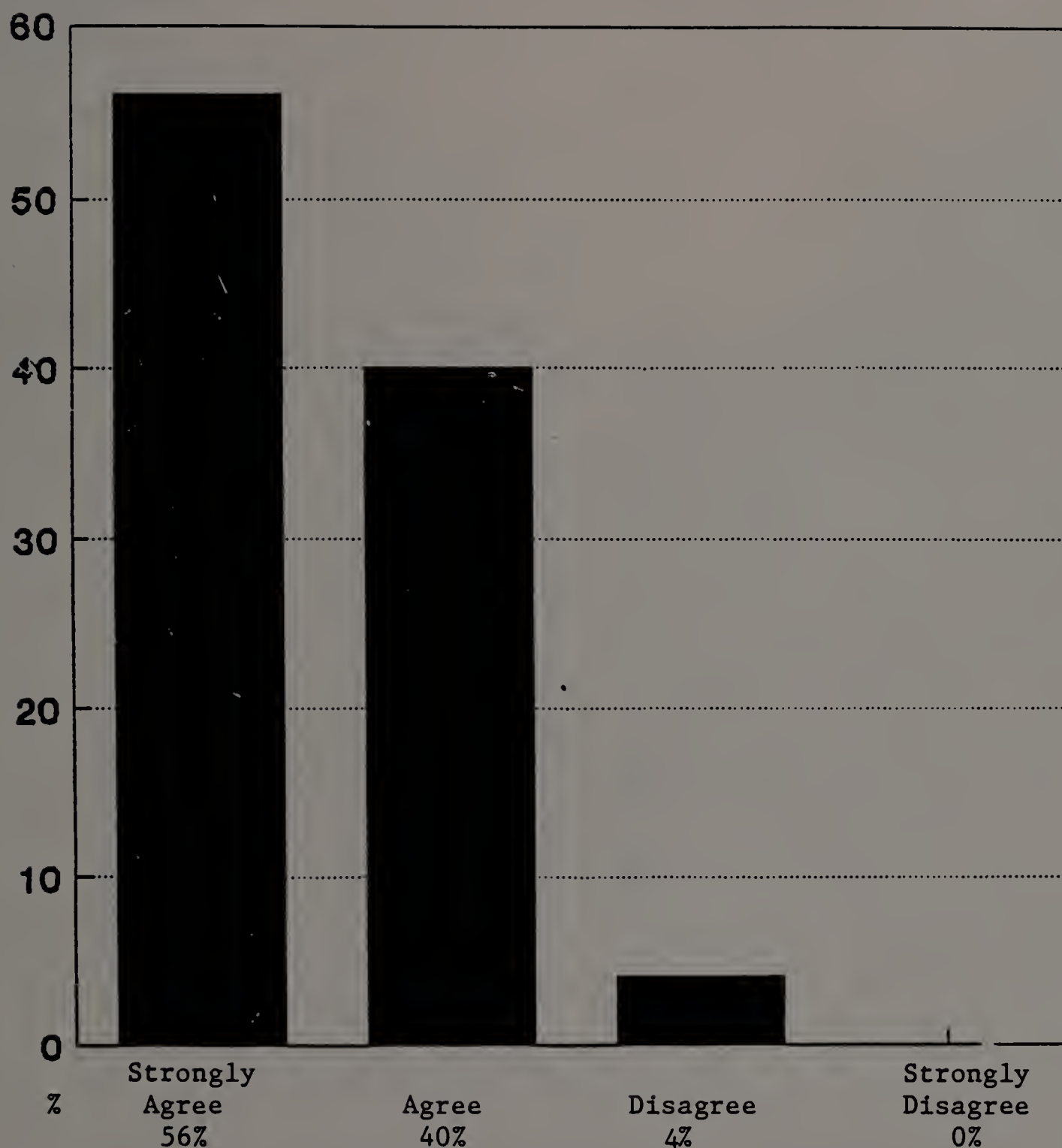


Figure 10

Teachers Awareness

Teachers should be made aware of the supervisory process that is going to be followed to evaluate them.

All the teachers were on the positive side, 56% strongly agreed and 40% agreed that teachers should be made aware of the supervisory process. Only 4% disagreed.

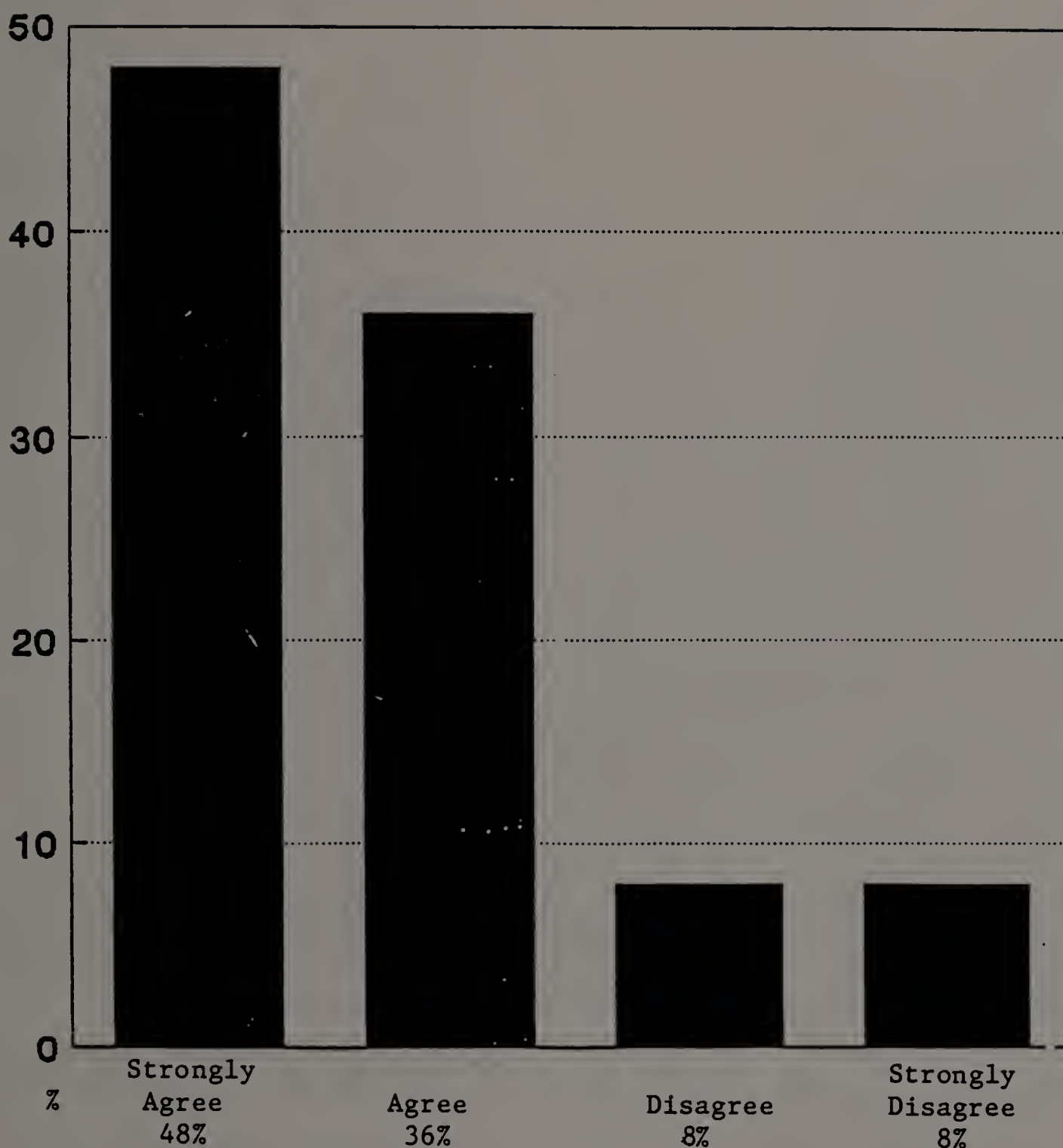


Figure 11

Pre-Observation Conference

All classroom observation should be pre-arranged between the teacher and the supervisor.

84% of the teachers are in favor that all evaluations should be pre-arranged between the teacher and the supervisor. 8% disagreed, and 8% strongly disagreed.

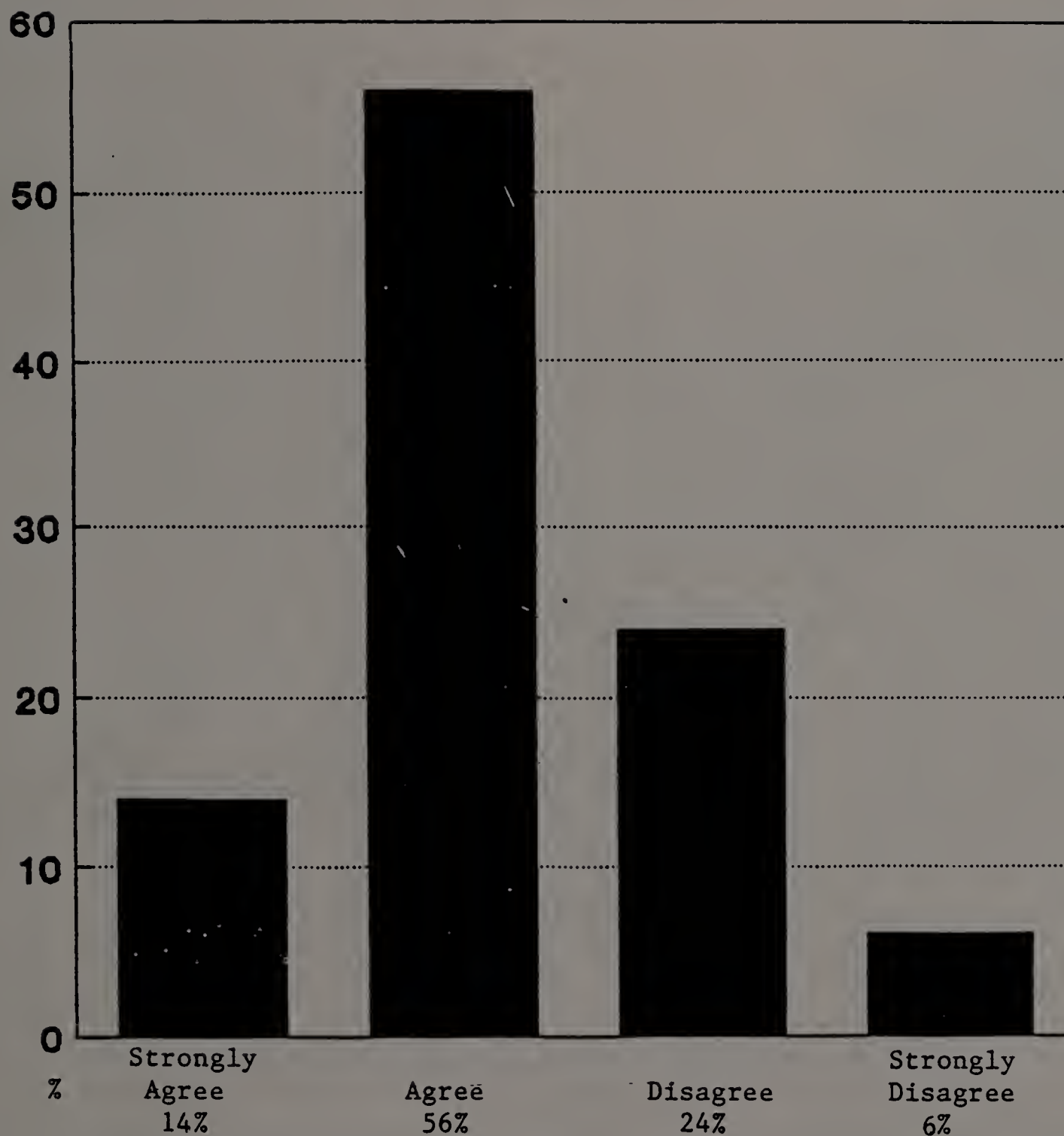


Figure 12

Classroom Observation

Classroom observation should run at least one class period four times a year.

According to the results 56% agreed, and 14% strongly agreed that classroom observations should run at least one class period. 24% disagreed, and 6% strongly disagreed.

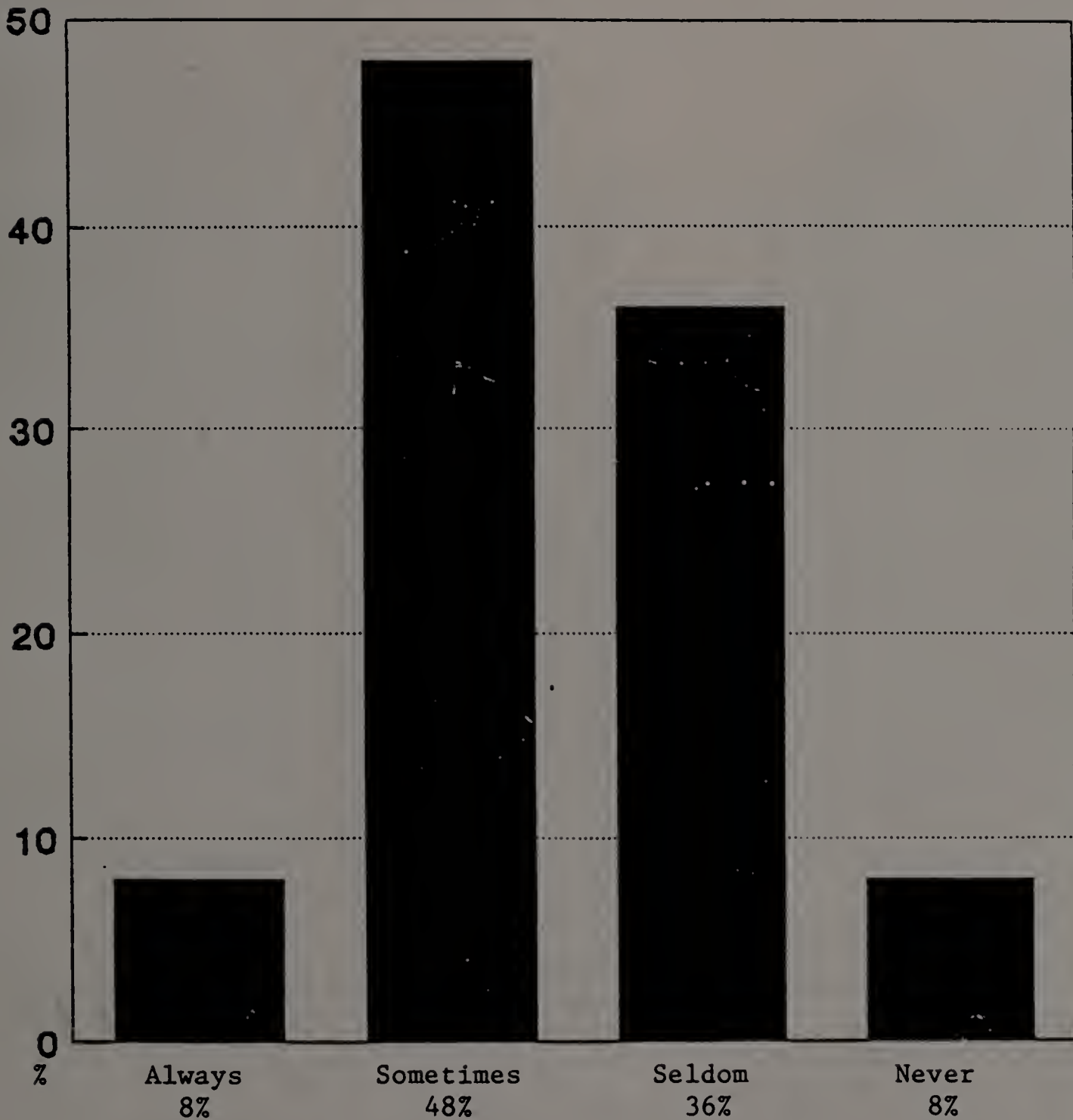


Figure 13

Pre-Classroom Observation

Did your supervisor meet with you before the classroom observation?

According to teachers opinion 8% always meet the supervisor before the class observation and 48% sometimes. 36% seldom meet the supervisor before the class observation and 8% never meet him or her.

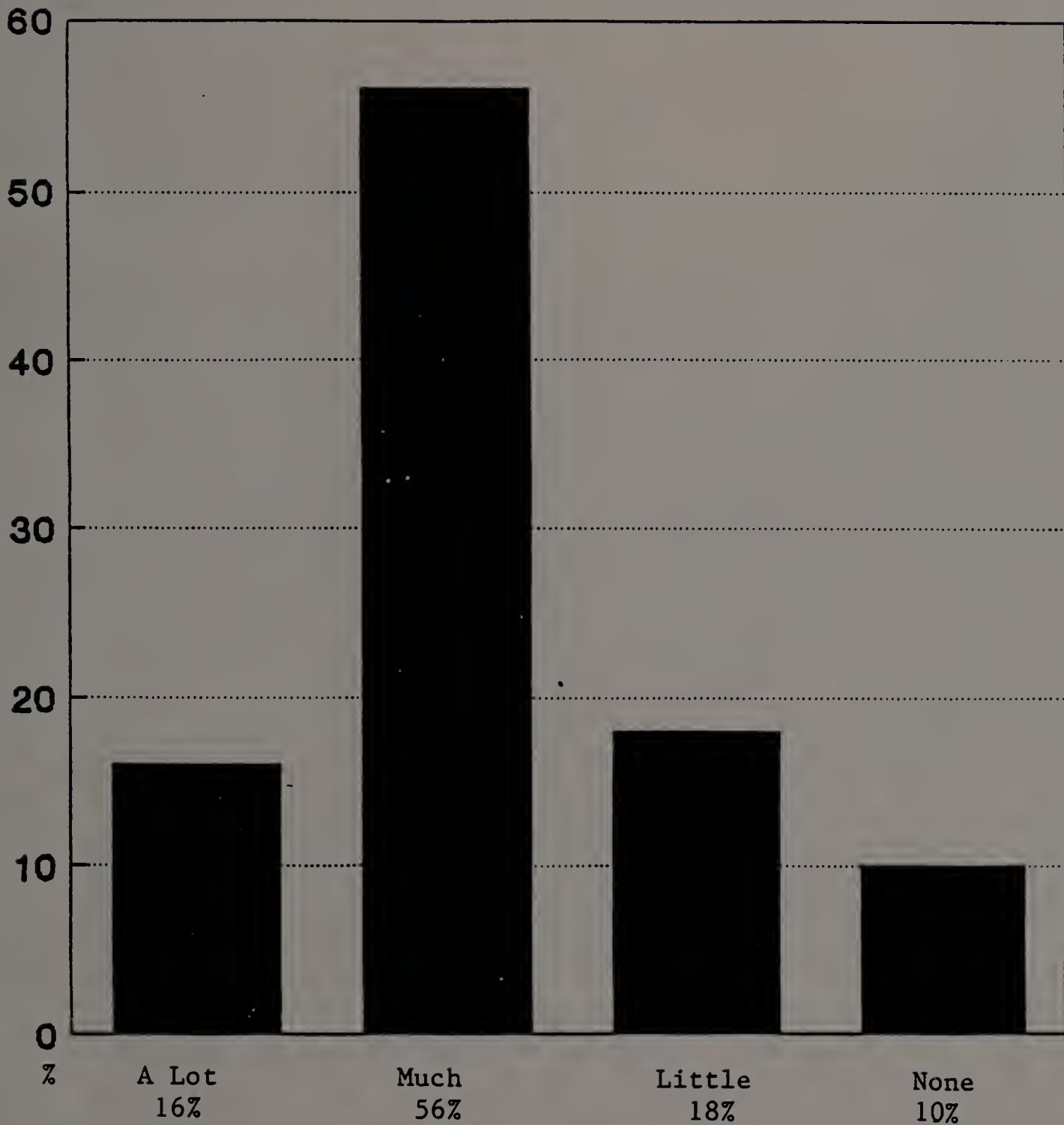


Figure 14

Feedback

Did you receive any feedback from your supervisor after the classroom observation?

Most of the teachers received some feedback after classroom observation. 16% received a lot, 56% much, and 18% a little. Only 10% said that they never received feedback after classroom observation.

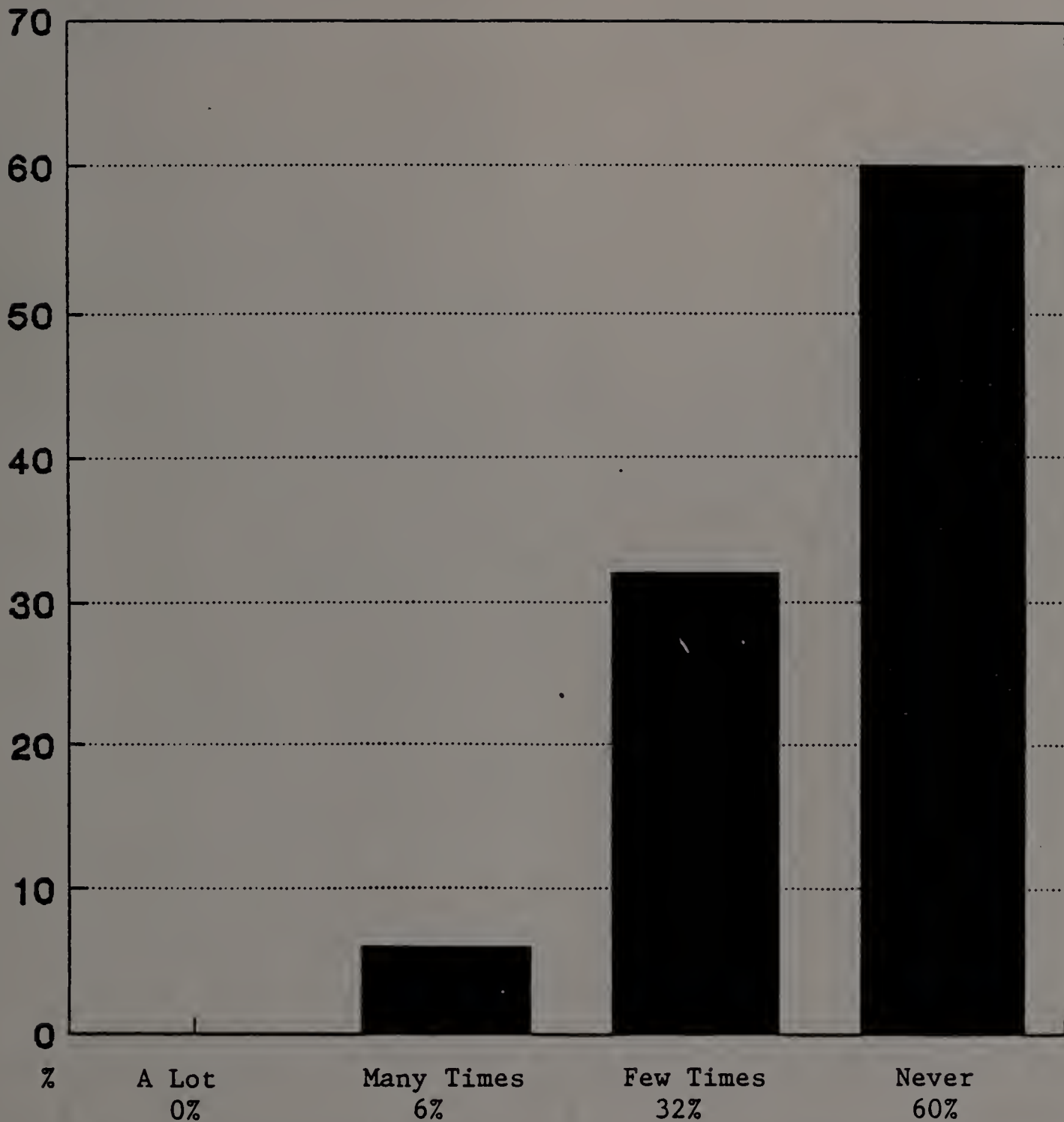


Figure 15

Teacher's Preference

Have you talked to your supervisor about the type of supervision you prefer?

60% of the teachers never, and 32% few times talk to their supervisors about the type of supervision that they prefer. Only 6% talked much about it.

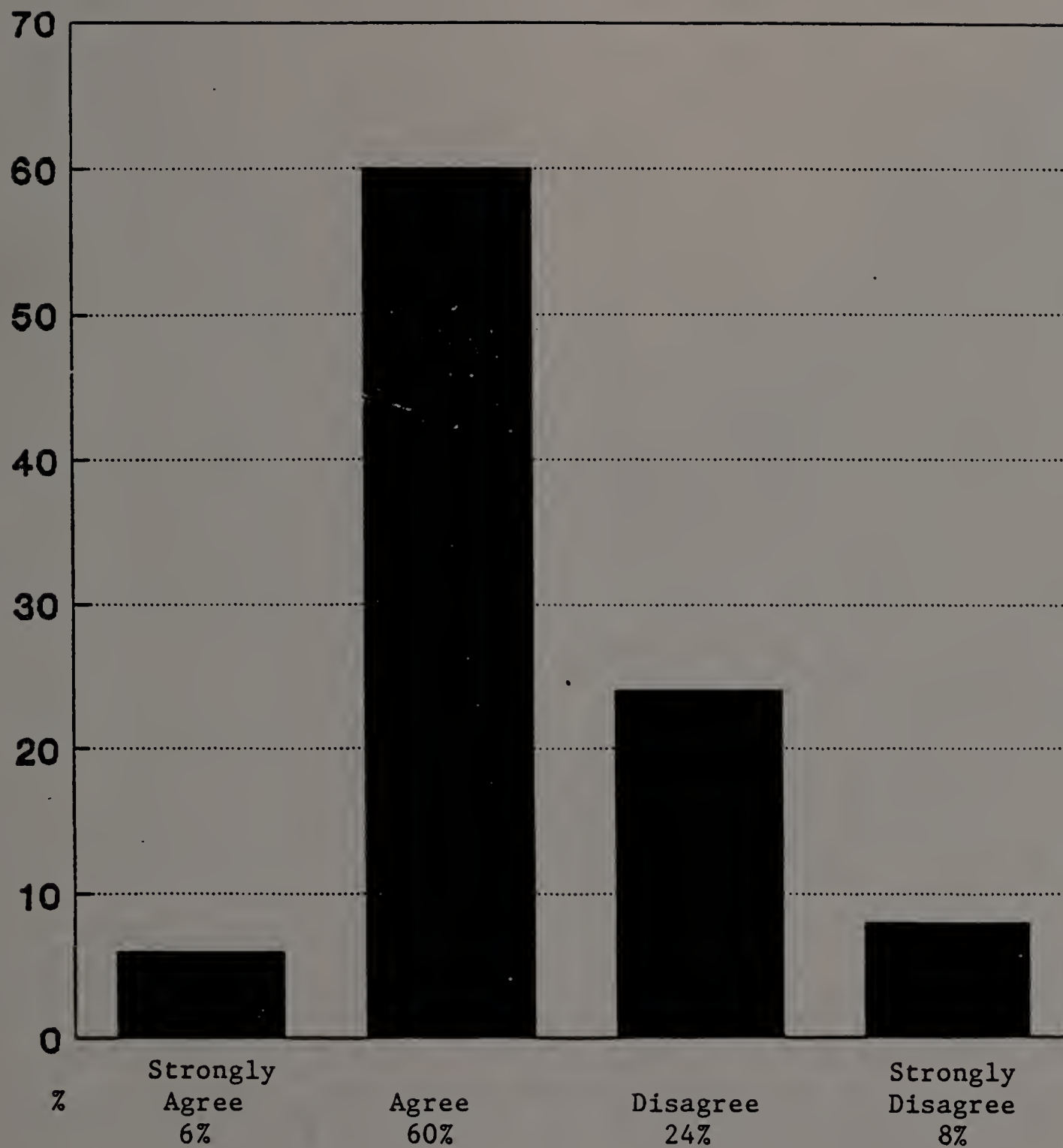


Figure 16

Type of Supervision

Do you agree with the type of supervision followed by your supervisor during the evaluation process?

The majority of the teachers (60%) agreed with the type of supervision used by the supervisor during the evaluation process, and 6% strongly agreed. 24% disagreed and 8% strongly disagreed.

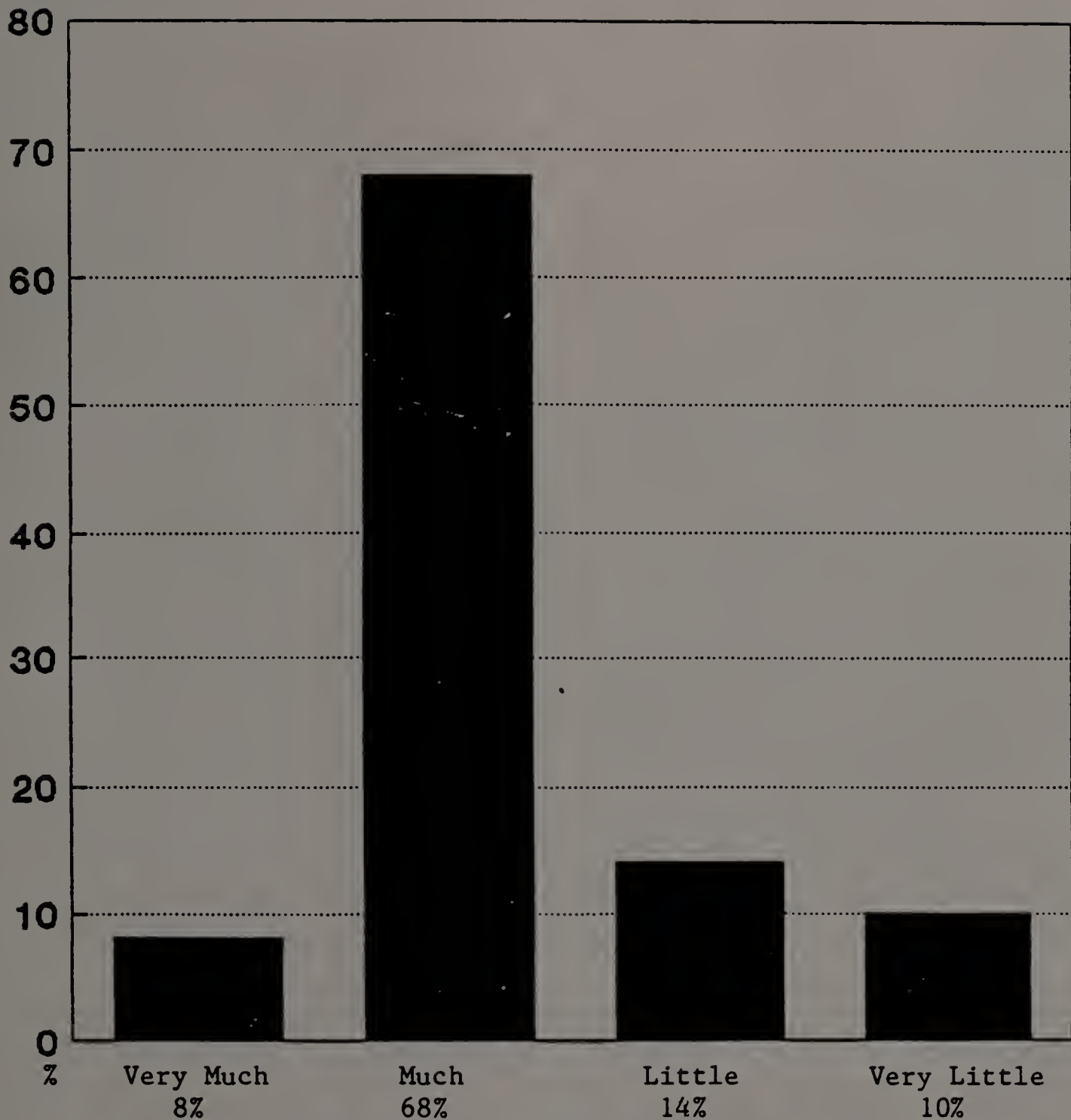


Figure 17

Discussion of the Evaluation

Do you like the way your supervisor discussed the last evaluation with you?

68% agree, 8% strongly agree with the way their supervisor discussed the evaluation with them. 14% disagreed and 10% strongly disagree with the process.

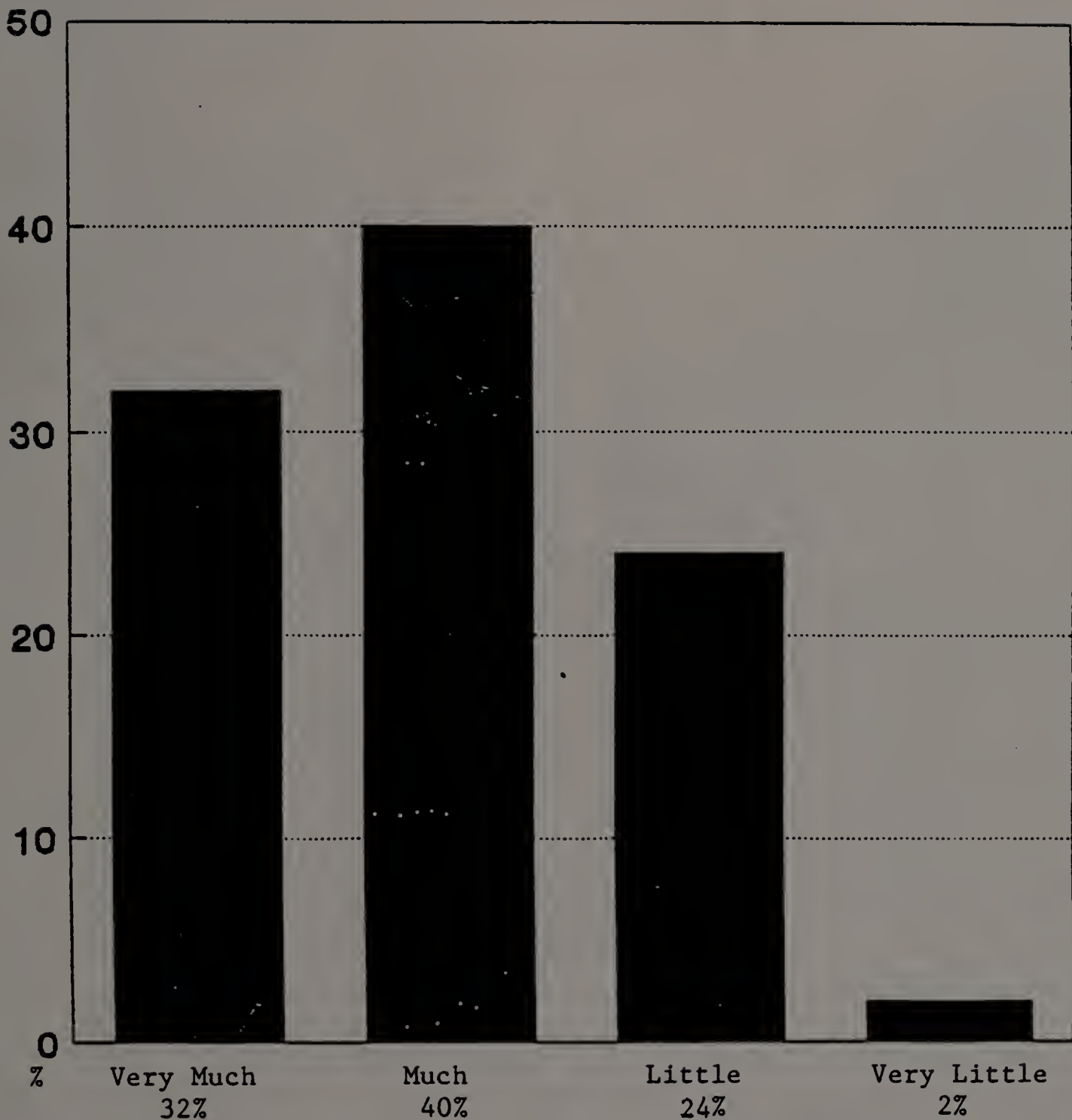


Figure 18

Supervisor--Supportive

The supervisor is supportive of, and operates within the policies of the district during the supervision process.

40% much and 32% very much thought that the supervisor is supportive of and operates within the policies of the district. 26% thought that is a little or very little.

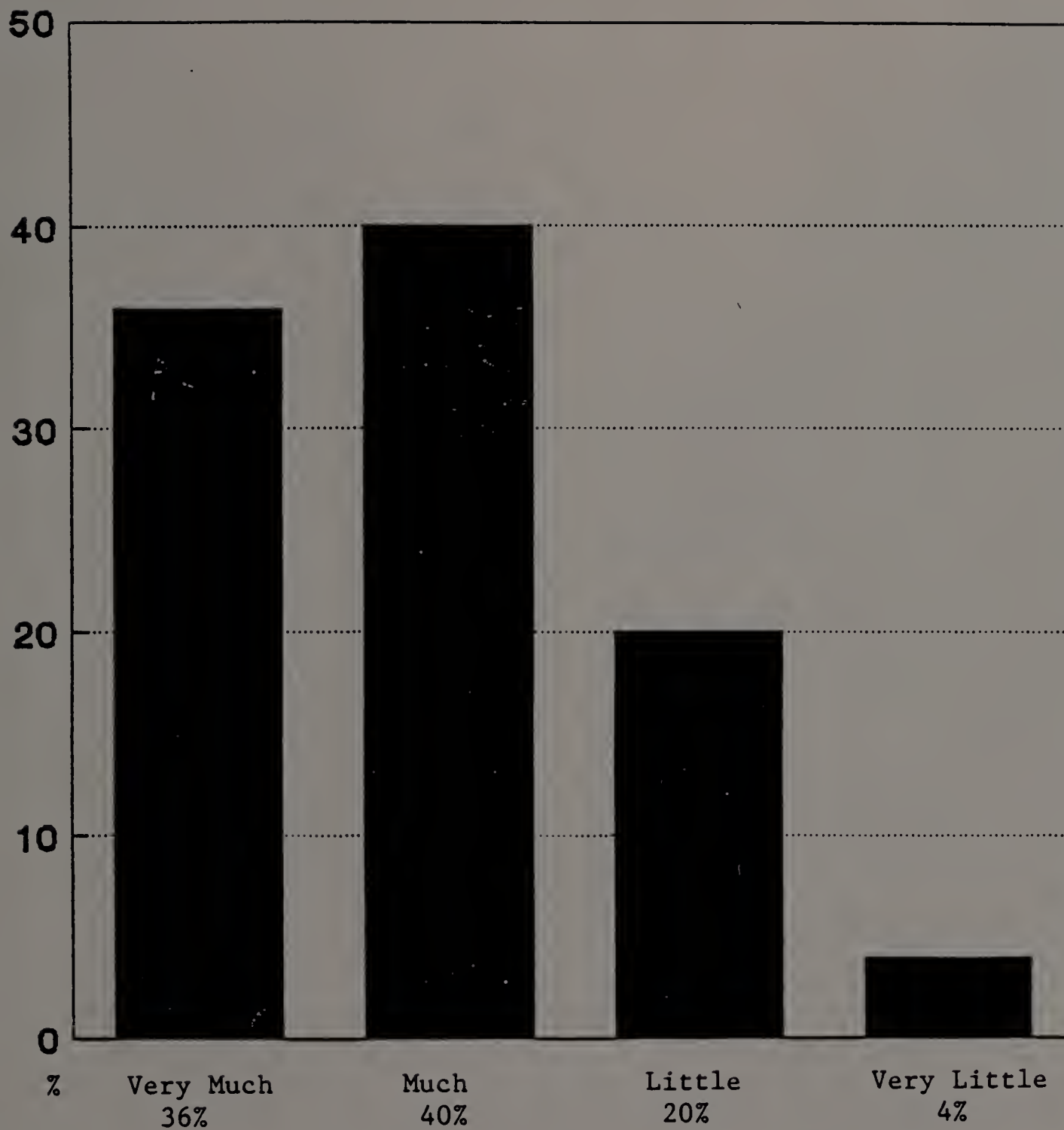


Figure 19

Supervisor--Cooperative

Is your supervisor a cooperative person?

Combining very much (36%) and much (40%), we can see that three-fourths (3/4) thought that the supervisor is a cooperative person. 20% sees a little and 4% very little cooperative.

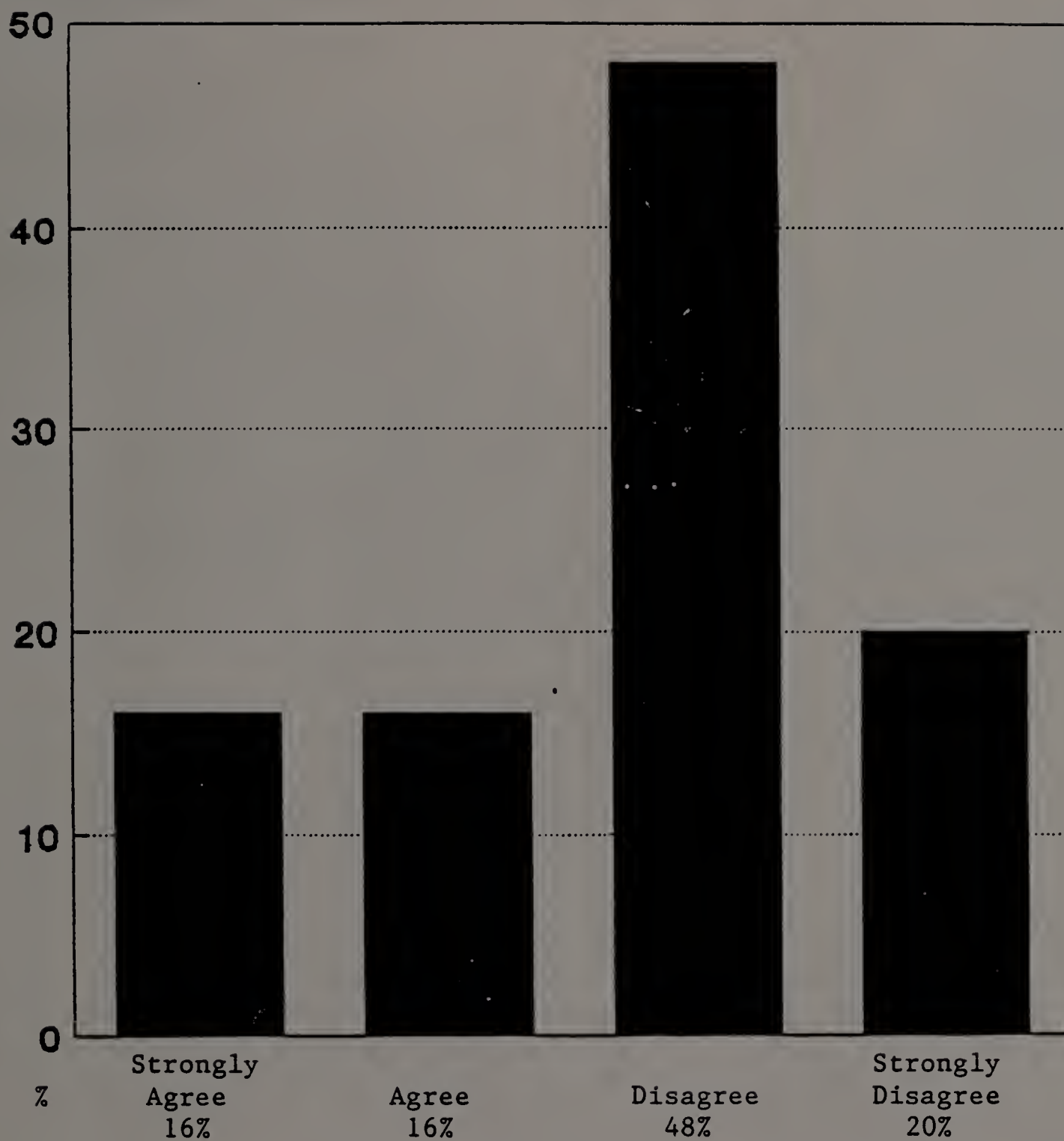


Figure 20

Tenured Teachers

Tenured teachers should be evaluated every year.

Half of the teachers (48%) that completed this question are of the opinion that tenured teachers should not be evaluated every year, 16% strongly disagreed. 16% agreed and 20% strongly disagreed with the item.

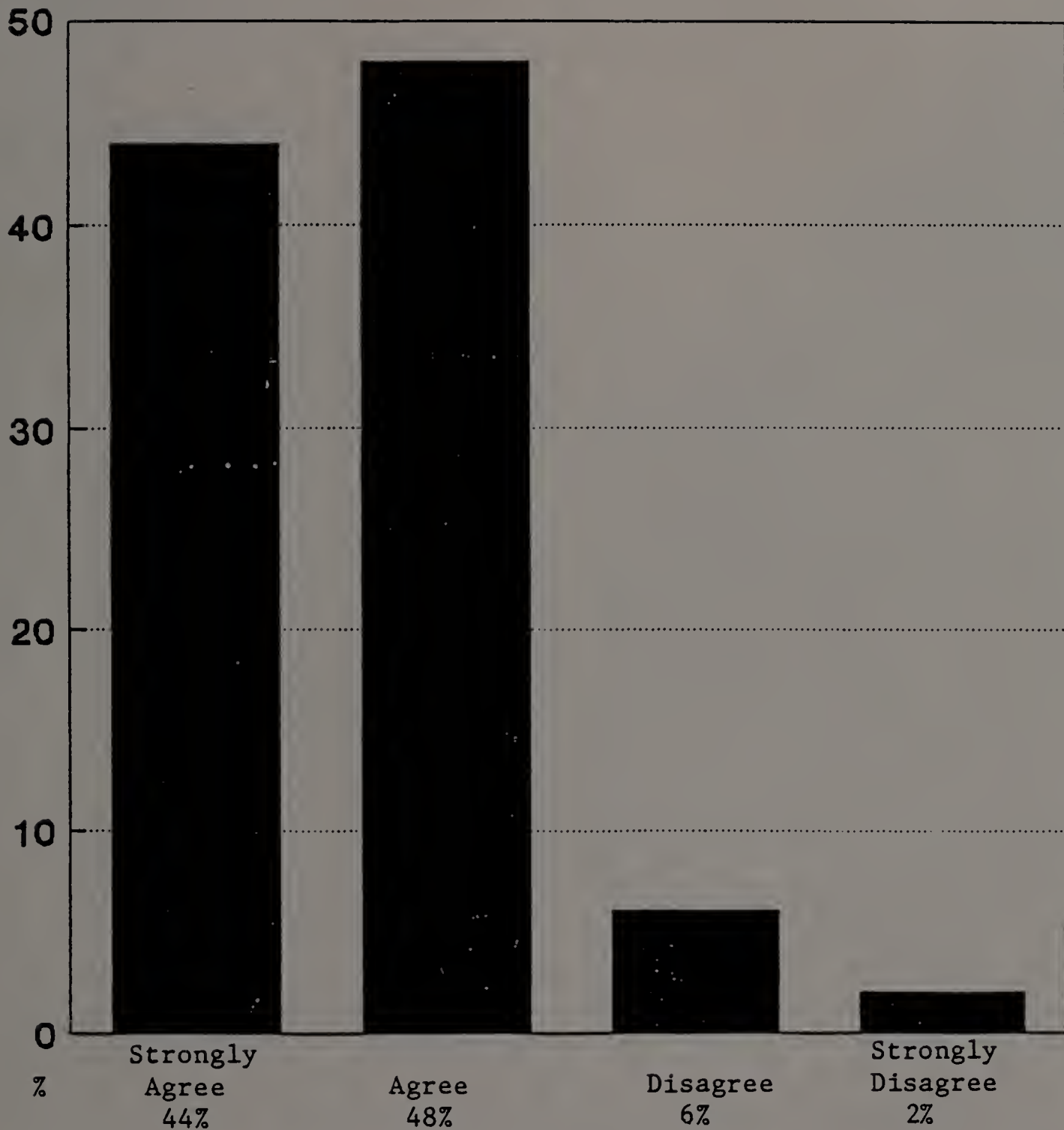


Figure 21

Training

Supervisors should take special training in classroom observation and supervision.

92% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors should take special training in classroom observation and supervision. Only 8% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

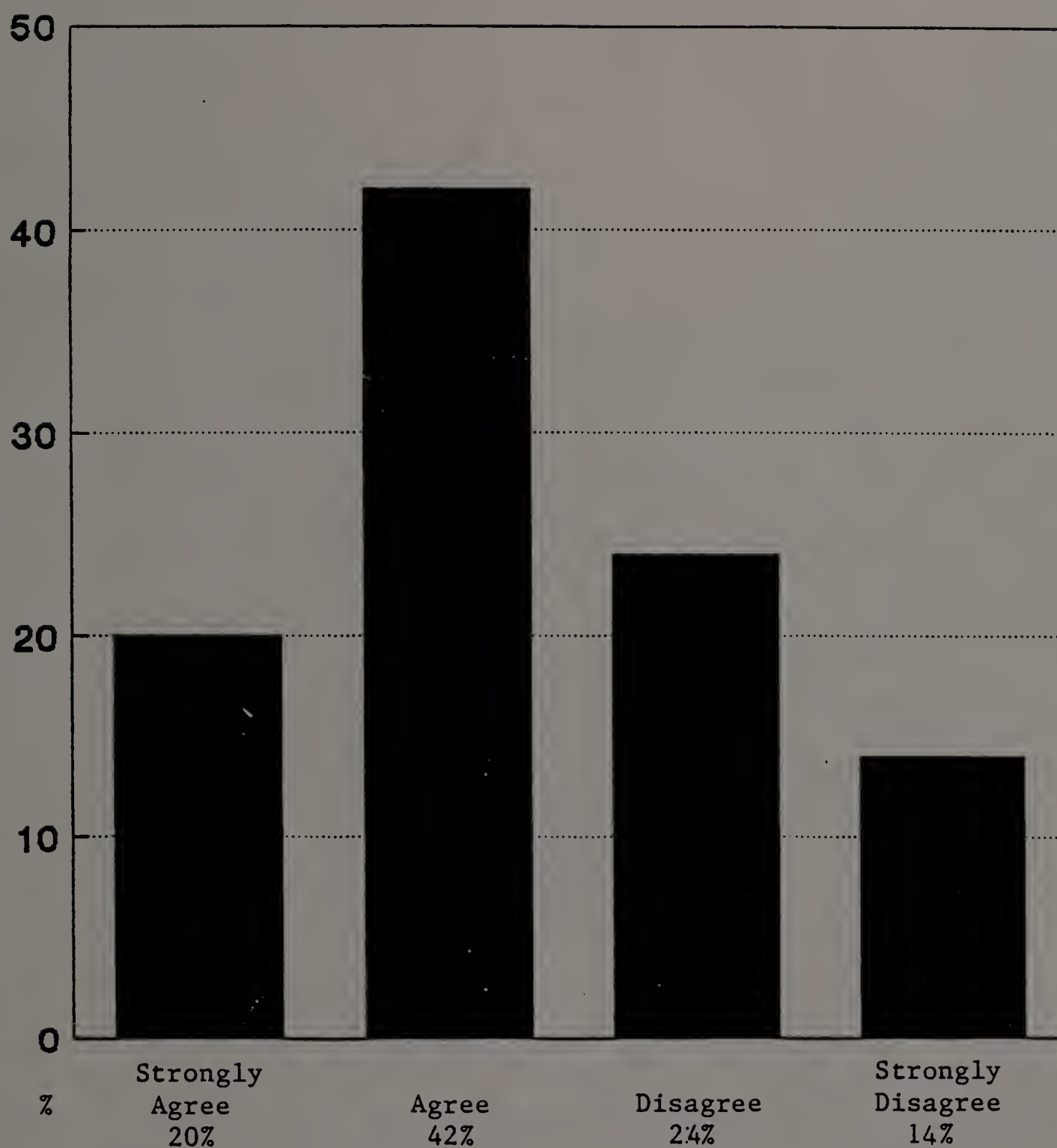


Figure 22

Evaluation Form

Do you think that a standard form is needed to evaluate all teachers in the public school system?

62% of the teachers agreed that a standard form is needed to evaluate all teachers. 38% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

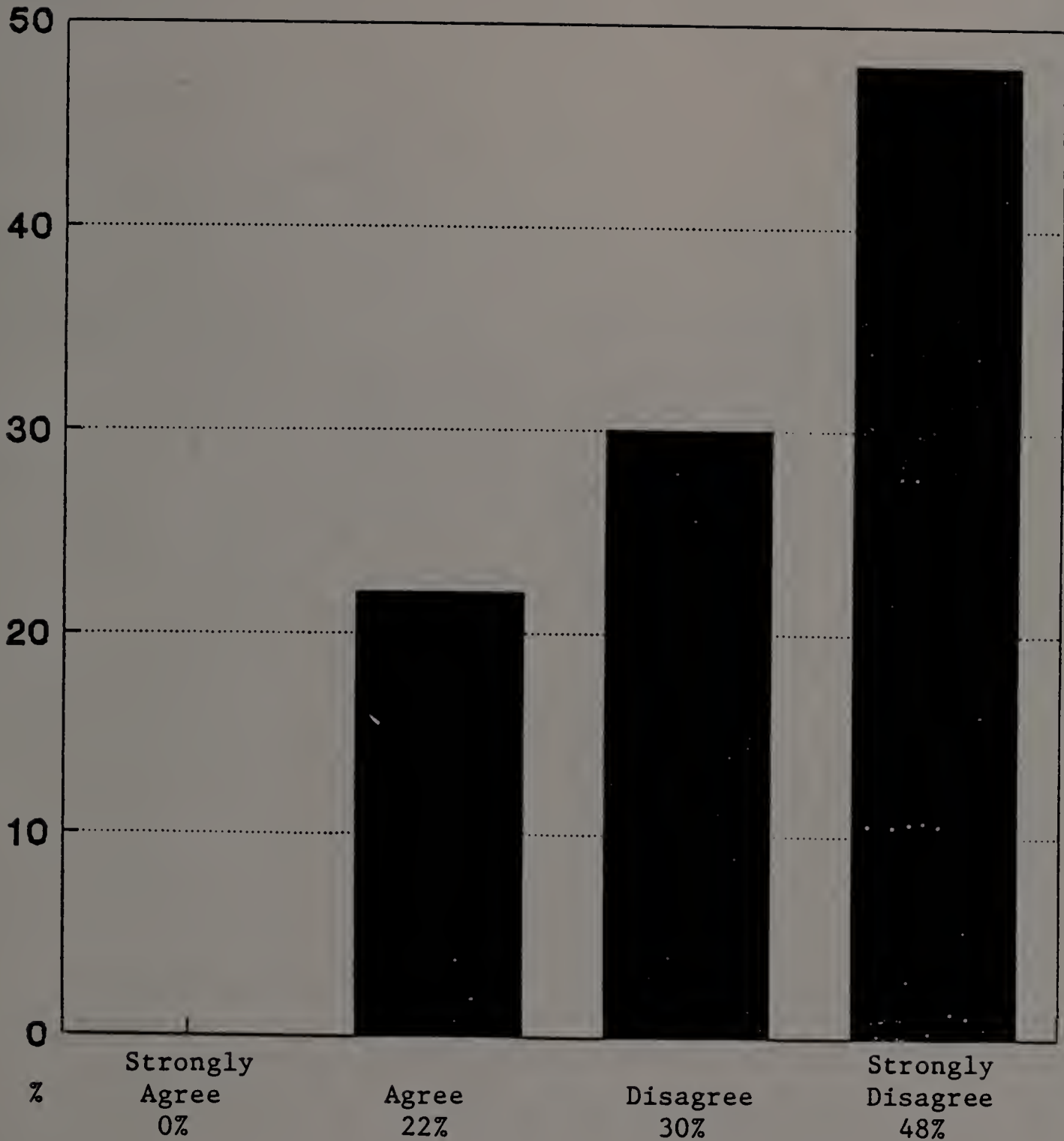


Figure 23

Supervisor Responsibility

Because the supervisor is responsible for the supervision process, he/she has the right to choose the model to be followed.

As we can see, the majority of the teachers want to be part of the supervisory process. 48% strongly disagreed and 30% disagreed, which is more than three-fourths ($3/4$) of the teachers. Only 22% agreed that the supervisor has the right to choose the model.

percent of the teachers are aware of the different teacher evaluation models and the right they have to choose the model they prefer to evaluate their performance in the classroom during the teaching-learning process. This means that it is necessary for principals to include in their schedule various sessions to talk about the different models of teacher evaluation and the right to choose the model they prefer.

C H A P T E R 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section of the dissertation focuses on two main areas. The first one attempts to present the most important conclusions arrived at by the study. The second area focuses on possible recommendations to supervisors to keep in mind while evaluating teachers during the teaching-learning process and providing orientation about the different models of teachers evaluation.

Also, a distribution of numbers and percentages of the responses to each one of the statements or questions on each one of the four alternatives is presented. A brief comment will follow each one of the statements or questions.

Each one of the statements or questions will have A, B, C, and D, at the right side to indicate the responses. The following information will help the reader to interpret the responses:

Table 3
Key to Answers

Very Positive	Positive	Negative	Very Negative
A	B	C	D
Strongly Agree	Many Times	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A Lot	Many	A Few	None
Very Much	Much	Little	Very Little
A Lot	Much	Little	Never
Always	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
A Lot	Many Times	Few Times	Never

After analyzing each item in the questionnaire the researcher arrived at the following conclusions:

Conclusions

1. From the responses received, fifty-three percent (53%) were females and forty-seven percent (47%) males.

2. The ethnic groups were divided as follows:

White 70%

Black 13%

Hispanic 12%

Others 4%

3. From the respondents within the ethnic groups, the gender distribution was:

GROUP	MALE	FEMALE
White	50%	50%
Black	50%	50%
Hispanic	33%	66%
Others	33%	66%

4. Fifty-three percent (53%) of the respondents were tenured and forty-seven (47%) non-tenured.

5. The distribution of tenured and non-tenured teachers within the ethnic groups was as follows:

GROUP	TENURED	NON-TENURED
White	59%	40%
Black	40%	60%
Hispanic	33%	66%
Others	33%	66%

The following are the numbers and conclusions of the questions and statements in the questionnaire. The numbers may vary because some of the respondents did not check certain statements or questions in the questionnaire.

1. Supervision of teachers is	A	B	C	D
an important factor in the	77	70	21	0
teaching process.	44%	40%	12%	0%

According to the numbers on this statement the researcher concluded that eighty-four percent (84%) of the respondents considered the supervision of teachers to be an important factor in the teaching process. That means that the majority of the teachers that completed the questionnaire are conscious that the teaching process needs to be supervised.

2. Clinical supervision is the	A	B	C	D
best type of supervision in	35	91	42	7
the teaching-learning	20%	52%	24%	4%
process.				

More than two-thirds (2/3) of the respondents considered Clinical Supervision a good means to supervise the teaching-learning process. In other words, they would like to see the supervisor dealing with the teacher to help with needs in order to improve the teaching-learning process and accomplish the educational objectives.

3. Do you see any advantages	A	B	C	D
to the Clinical Supervision	14	98	42	14
process?	8%	56%	24%	8%

The respondents considered that Clinical Supervision has many advantages in the teaching-learning process.

4. Cooperative Supervision is	A	B	C	D
helpful to teachers.	56	56	56	7
	32%	32%	32%	4%

Cooperative Supervision is another model that the respondents consider is helpful to teachers. About two-thirds (2/3) of them considered this a helpful model.

5. Do you see any advantages	A	B	C	D
in Cooperative Supervision?	44	65	42	21
	26%	38%	24%	12%

Even though the numbers varied among the alternatives, the same number of respondents who considered Cooperative Supervision a helpful model also considered that it has many advantages.

6. Do you know about the Self-	A	B	C	D
Professional Development	21	77	70	7
Process?	12%	44%	40%	4%

Among the respondents fifty-six percent (56%) know about Self-Professional Development. This is more than fifty percent (50%), but still forty-four percent (44%) need to be oriented about this model.

7. Do you know about the	A	B	C	D
Administrative Monitoring	21	65	79	7
Supervision Process?	12%	38%	46%	4%

Fifty percent (50%) of the respondents know what the Administrative Monitoring Supervision Process is

about, but the remaining fifty percent (50%) need to be enlightened about it.

8. Would you like to be	A	B	C	D
oriented about the Self-	42	98	28	7
Professional Development	24%	56%	16%	4%
and Administrative				
Monitoring Supervision				
Processes?				

The numbers from the respondents to this question indicate that they would appreciate some kind of information about different models of teacher supervision.

9. Have you talked with your				
colleagues about these types				
of supervision? (Clinical				
Supervision, Cooperative	A	B	C	D
Supervision, Self-	7	21	84	63
Professional Development,	4%	12%	48%	36%
and Administrative Monitoring				
Process).				

The communication about different models of supervision among colleagues seems to be very limited, as shown by the numbers obtained from the respondents of whom eighty-four percent (84%) indicate little or no communication.

10. Teachers should be made aware	A	B	C	D
of the supervisory process	98	70	0	0
that is going to be	56%	40%	0%	0%
followed to evaluate them.				

One hundred percent (100%) of the respondents clearly stated that they should be made aware of the supervisory process that is going to be followed to evaluate them.

11. All classroom observation	A	B	C	D
should be pre-arranged	84	63	7	14
between the teacher and	48%	36%	4%	8%
the supervisor.				

Eighty-four percent (84%) of the respondents are in favor of the classroom observation being pre-arranged between the teacher and supervisor.

12. Classroom observation should	A	B	C	D
run at least one class	21	98	42	7
period four times a year.	12%	56%	24%	4%

Sometimes teachers evaluations are completed in only fifteen (15) or twenty (20) minutes twice a year, but according to the responses obtained, the majority of respondents, sixty-eight percent (68%) considered that the classroom observations should run at least one class period four times a year.

13. Did your supervisor meet	A	B	C	D
with you before the class-	14	84	63	14
room observation?	8%	48%	36%	8%

The results on this question showed that most of the supervisors met with the respondents before the classroom observations.

14. Did you receive any feed-	A	B	C	D
back from your supervisor	28	98	30	14
after the classroom	16%	56%	18%	8%
observation?				

The supervisors are providing feedback after classroom observation, as shown by the numbers obtained from the questionnaires received. Seventy percent (70%) stated that they have had much feedback after classroom observation.

15. Have you talked to your	A	B	C	D
supervisor about the type	0	7	56	105
of supervision you prefer?	0%	4%	32%	60%

This question showed that the majority of the respondents never talked to their supervisors about the type of supervision they would prefer.

16. Do you agree with the type	A	B	C	D
of supervision followed by	7	105	42	7
your supervisor during the	4%	60%	24%	4%
evaluation process?				

A great number of respondents agree with the type of supervision followed by the supervisor during the evaluation process.

17. Do you like the way your supervisor discussed the last evaluation with you?	A	B	C	D
	14	119	21	14
	8%	68%	12%	8%

The supervisors are doing a great job in relation to the discussion of the evaluations because more than three-fourths (3/4) of the respondents liked the way supervisors discussed the evaluation with them.

18. The supervisor is supportive of, and operates within the policies of the district during the supervision process.	A	B	C	D
	56	70	35	0
	32%	40%	20%	0%

Seventy two percent (72%) of the respondents considered that the supervisor is supportive of, and operates within the policies of the district during the supervision process.

19. Is your supervisor a cooperative person?	A	B	C	D
	63	70	35	7
	36%	40%	20%	4%

The respondents, in large part, considered that their supervisors are cooperative persons.

20. Tenured teachers should be	A	B	C	D
evaluated every year.	28	28	84	28
	16%	16%	48%	16%

Around two-thirds (2/3), or sixty-four percent (64%) considered that tenured teachers do not need to be evaluated every year.

Recalling from statement number 4, fifty-three percent (53%) of the respondents were tenured. Eleven percent (11%) of non-tenured teachers considered that tenured teachers should not need to be evaluated every year.

21. Supervisors should take	A	B	C	D
special training in class-	77	84	7	0
room observation and	44%	48%	4%	0%
supervision.				

Ninety-two percent (92%) of the respondents are in agreement that supervisors should take special training in classroom observation and supervision.

22. Do you think that a standard	A	B	C	D
form is needed to evaluate	35	74	37	21
all teachers in the public	20%	42%	22%	12%
school system?				

Taking into account that there are so many school districts with so many different evaluation policies and forms, sixty-two percent (62%) of the respondents considered that a standard form is needed to evaluate

all teachers in the public school system. As the reader can see thirty-four percent (34%) do not agree to having a "standard" form to evaluate all teachers.

23. Because the supervisor is	A	B	C	D
responsible for the super-	0	37	51	84
vision process, he/she has	0%	22%	30%	48%
the right to choose the				
model to be followed.				

Seventy-eight percent (78%) of the respondents do not agree to let the supervisor choose the supervision model to be followed for the supervision process. Twenty-two percent (22%) give the supervisor freedom to choose the evaluation model.

Recommendations

1. The findings would be more beneficial to the system if future researchers were to conduct a similar survey with principal groups and compare the results with teacher groups.

2. Research would benefit from a study that used the questionnaire in a particular school system and then followed it with a climate inventory survey to compare findings.

3. An obvious follow-up to this study would be for future works to continue where this one concluded. This study concerned itself with models of supervision

and teachers perception of them during the evaluation process. It does not address the question of actual implementation. The findings give some indication of implementation efforts but not in any organized and measurable fashion.

4. 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.

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

6. This study mentions different models of supervision and it would be beneficial if more research in each one of the models were conducted.

7. Supervisors should be prepared in different supervision models so that their experiences can be more effective. At the same time, the teachers have to be properly oriented and informed about the evaluation processes, so that they will view the supervision process as beneficial.

8. It is necessary to improve the teacher's experiences of the supervision processes in order to

improve the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher.

9. Classroom visits should run for at least one class period four times a year and be planned with teachers so that the task carried out by the supervisor becomes more effective and useful. There should be an open and frank dialogue between the supervisor and the teacher under supervision.

In summary, through the review of related literature and the results of a questionnaire, this study has demonstrated that any one of the models of supervision can be a powerful supervisory tool in the hands of a properly trained supervisor. Those holding leadership positions in the system must schedule/training for supervisors and potential supervisors, for these are the change agents with the power to effect instructional improvement.

Today many supervisors are so busy taking care of the large number of administrative tasks that it is pretty difficult for them to schedule a formal, complete, and professional visit to the classroom and observe the teaching-learning process calmly and with the real interest of helping the teacher with any need he/she might have.

Many of the supervisors pay a ten (10) or fifteen (15) minute visit to comply with the law or union

requirements. Otherwise, they never showed up in the classroom.

Sometimes the supervisors are so tied to other tasks that time passes and they forget about teacher evaluations, they then attempt to have everybody evaluated in one or two days because the teacher evaluation reports were due. Thus, the supervisor goes to the classroom for ten (10) or fifteen (15) minutes, fills out the form, places it in a folder, and leaves it on the teacher's desk with a note asking him/her to sign and return it to the secretary to make two copies, for the teacher and school and personnel files.

Besides that, some supervisors lack the appropriate techniques to be followed when supervising a teacher. They don't know how to make recommendations and when they do tend to put more emphasis on negative rather than positive points. No matter how inefficient the teacher is, if you observe he/she objectively, you can always find something positive to tell the teacher to try to encourage him/her to pay more attention and improve in the negative points that were pointed out.

On many occasions the teachers have the Winter or Spring break and when they return to school and go to their mail boxes they find a little piece of paper with a note; "I will be observing your class at 9:15 (that is fifteen (15) minutes after the bell rings) for your

final evaluation." I think that even though the teachers must be prepared at all times, the returning day after break is not an appropriate time to visit a teacher, particularly at the beginning of the day and for a final evaluation. Indeed, receiving the unexpected note could negatively influence the teacher's performance. Supervisors should be more sensitive.

A principal visiting a teacher should check with the teachers first, as they may go with the intention of observing the teaching process only to find the teacher having a different activity.

On the other hand there are many good supervisors who do think a great deal about the teachers and who are always there to help with any situation. They will advise the teacher in need of professional advice on how to do things to get better results.

These are the kind of supervisors who are capable of dealing with all the administrative tasks and still have time, energy, and desire to go around and find out what's going on with the educational process. They help teachers in need of material, equipment and so forth, plus they make themselves visible.

The good supervisor always has in mind praising a teacher for the job well done in the classroom during the teaching-learning process or in any particular

activity held in the school. This should be done person to person and the faculty member should be recognized during a faculty meeting.

We know that there are many good and capable supervisors out there willing to help teachers, students, parents, and other groups in the community to try to put the education back on its track.

Anyone can carry the title of supervisor, but taking into consideration all the duties that he/she has to face, it is not easy to be a good and successful supervisor.

So, one important aspect of the job a supervisor should succeed in is keeping good relationship with the teachers. For this reason the Teacher Evaluation Models I like best are Clinical Supervision and Administrative Monitoring.

Clinical Supervision and Administrative Monitoring gives the teacher and the supervisor the opportunity to get together to analyze the observations and reach agreements.

APPENDIX A
LETTER TO SUPERINTENDENTS

April 5, 1990

Dear Mr./Mrs., _____, Superintendent

My name is Jose Diaz and I am a resident of Springfield and a UMASS student.

At the present time I am writing my dissertation toward the doctorate. As part of my dissertation I have to develop a questionnaire to collect data related with the study. The title of the study is "Teacher Preparation of the Instructional Evaluation Process: An Exploratory Study".

I am requesting your authorization to distribute the questionnaire among the teachers of your jurisdiction to collect the necessary data to complete the study.

A report of findings will be given to the administration.

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jose Diaz

Approved:

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

May 15, 1990

Dear Mr./Mrs., _____, Principal

I am working on my dissertation toward a doctorate. As part of my doctorate I am to develop and administer a questionnaire to active teaching personnel.

The title of the dissertation is "Teacher Perception of the Instructional Evaluation Process: An Exploratory Study". The questionnaire is directed to get information related to the title. (See attached)

I respectfully request your authorization to distribute a questionnaire among the staff in the building to collect the data.

A report of the findings will be given to the administration.

Thank you;

Jose Diaz

Approved:

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire

SEX: MALE _____ FEMALE _____

RACE: WHITE _____ BLACK _____ HISPANIC _____ OTHER _____

STATUS: TENURED _____ NON-TENURED _____

This study is conducted by Mr. Jose Diaz as part of a research class that is being taken at UMASS. The findings will give the administration an idea of teacher's feelings in relation to the supervision process and school management. You will find 23 questions and sentences with four alternatives on each one. Please circle one of the alternatives. Note: The completion of this questionnaire is completely voluntary. The administration will receive a report of findings only.

1. Supervision of teachers is an important factor in the teaching process.

Strongly

Strongly

Agree

Agree

Disagree

Disagree

2. Clinical supervision is the best type of supervision in the teaching-learning process. (It is done fact to face between the teacher and supervisor with a double dimension: Professional development and improvement in the teaching process).

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

3. Do you see any advantages to the clinical supervision process?

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

4. Cooperative supervision is helpful to teachers. (It is a process where a group of 4 or 5 teachers work together for their own improvement. They observe each others' classes and then get together to discuss them.)

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

5. Do you see any advantages in cooperative supervision?

A lot	Much	A little	Nothing
-------	------	----------	---------

11. All classroom observation should be pre-arranged between the teacher and the supervisor.

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

12. Classroom observation should run at least one class period four times a year.

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

13. Did your supervisor meet with you before the classroom observation?

Always	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
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14. Did you receive any feedback from your supervisor after the classroom observation?

A lot	Much	Little	None
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15. Have you talked to your supervisor about the type of supervision you prefer?

A lot	Many times	Few times	Never
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16. Do you agree with the type of supervision followed by your supervisor during the evaluation process?

Strongly			Strongly
Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree

23. Because the supervisor is responsible for the supervision process, he has the right to choose the model to be followed.

Strongly

Strongly

Agree

Agree

Disagree

Disagree

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

APPENDIX D

THEORETICAL MODEL

THEORETICAL MODEL

The following is a theoretical sample model based on Clinical Supervision and Administrative Monitoring prepared by the researcher as an instrument that supervisors can use to evaluate teacher effectiveness.

As stated in the Purpose of the Study, a Theoretical Model is developed as reference models because these models give the teacher and the supervisor the opportunity to get together and talk about the observation and to get agreements for further observations.

The model I consider to be most appropriate consists of six (6) steps, five (5) of them taken from the Clinical Supervision Model and one (1) from the Administrative Monitoring Model.

Phase I - Pre-Observation

The teacher and the supervisor get together to reaffirm or try to establish a good relationship between the two of them.

During the dialogue the following topics could be brought out to:

1. clarify teacher purpose or objective
2. facilitate the strategies or techniques to be put into practice during the lesson.

3. anticipate any difficulty that might arise
4. carefully review the plan to be sure that everything that is going to be observed is there
5. establish the rules to be followed
6. define the role that each one is going to play
7. set the day and time of the observation.

Phase II - Observation

During this stage the supervisor will observe teachers' performance and take notes to discuss them with the teacher.

The supervisor will:

1. have the opportunity to observe the process in teaching the lesson
2. oversee the reality in the classroom environment that sometimes teachers are not able to see
3. be close to the teacher and students at the moment teaching problems emerge and in this way be able to offer help based on the observation.

Phase III - Analysis and Strategies

The supervisor will:

1. analyze the notes taken during the observation

2. decide in which area or areas you are going to praise the teacher and in which the teacher needs help
3. prioritize the recommendations according to the school and district goals.

Phase IV - Conference

This is crucial and a very important phase in all the evaluation process because it seeks to:

1. analyze all happening during the class
2. gives the opportunity to the teacher to recall what happened during the class and find out by him/herself if any particular technique or strategy can be approached in a different way
3. gives the supervisor the opportunity to provide feedback about his/her observation
4. helps the teacher and supervisor re-evaluate the plan to see if everything was done accordingly
5. helps the supervisor point out any aspect of the teaching process that the teacher needs to improve
6. reach agreements in the positive and possibly negative points that were observed
7. plan for future observation

8. be in agreement or disagreement about using the monitoring process to follow up a particular situation
9. keep or break with the good relationship that was established during the Pre-Observation.

If the supervisor is able to keep a good relationship with the teacher after the conference, it will guarantee a positive attitude from the teacher during the year and help gain the maximum of his/her potential to go the extra mile.

Phase V - Post Conference

During this phase the supervisor will:

1. analyze the attitude and conduct of the teacher before, during, and after the conference
2. examine the supervision process that was carried out during the observation
3. evaluate the productivity of the supervision
4. revise the supervision techniques and the emotional variables
5. modify the supervision process if necessary
6. plan for future observations.

This model of supervision is a time consuming one to be put into practice with all the staff two or three times during the year. Supervisors do not have that much time to put into supervision. That is why the

researcher recommends the use of Administrative Monitoring as a complement to the five phases previously presented.

Once the supervisor has an idea about the teaching situation in each classroom, he/she can proceed to pay Administrative Monitoring visits to the classrooms to follow up on a particular situation. These visits normally last ten (10) or fifteen (15) minutes and later on the teacher and the supervisor get together to talk about it and a report is given to the teacher including recommendations.

Phase VI - Administrative Monitoring

Short and informal visits to the classroom by Principals or Assistant Principals to observe or identify a particular situation.

Characteristics:

1. it is an open process
2. the visits could be advised or unadvised
3. feedback is recommended
4. the observation could be taken into consideration for the final evaluation
5. it should be planned
6. can be at any time during the day

If any particular teacher still needs help, arrangements should be made by the supervisor to go over the entire process again.

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