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The Effects of an Inservice Training Program for Cooperating Teachers on the Supervision of Student Teachers in an Urban School System

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THE EFFECTS OF AN INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM
FOR COOPERATING TEACHERS ON THE SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TEACHERS
IN AN URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

by
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Abstract

The primary task of this research was to develop, implement, and evaluate an inservice training program designed to provide cooperating teachers with supervisory skills. The research design employed to evaluate this study utilized both quantitative and qualitative methods and procedures. Quantitative methods included a quasi-experimental design with the inservice training program as the independent variable and the posttest measure of cooperating teacher effectiveness as the dependent variable. Participants in the investigation were 42 student teacher triads--student teachers from two large urban universities, their cooperating teachers in schools providing placements for the student teaching experience and their university supervisors. The 21 cooperating teachers who participated in the inservice training program were matched on a number of relevant variables with 21 cooperating teachers who received no inservice training. The inservice training program consisted of 13 hours of preparation in orientation, communication, knowledge, and supervision with an emphasis on the supervisory process incorporating methods of "clinical supervision." A two hour follow-up session was held approximately three weeks into the student teaching experience. Quantitative data analysis employed the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" administered to both student teachers and university supervisors and the "Cooperating Teacher Survey" administered to the cooperating teachers. A t-test for related measures comparing the student teachers' evaluation of the cooperating teachers as supervisors and as model teachers was significant at the $p < .01$ level for both criteria. There was no significant difference in the

university supervisors' evaluations or in the cooperating teachers' perceptions regarding their supervision. Qualitative content analysis of weekly progress reports from a group of student teachers supported a difference between the supervision provided by the cooperating teachers receiving the inservice preparation and that of the cooperating teachers who did not receive training. Further analysis indicated that the student teachers' overall perceptions of the student teaching experience were more positive for the trained cooperating teachers and reflected aspects of the inservice training program. Implications of the results as well as suggestions for further research pertaining to the training of cooperating teachers were discussed.

To My Husband and Daughters
Jack, Catherine, and Hillary
Whose Patience and Sacrifice
Contributed Immeasurably to the
Completion of this Endeavor

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Preface

Student teaching is a major component of most teacher education programs. Yet, what is considered the most important facet of professional preparation appears to be one of the least predictable elements. What is learned during student teaching depends on many factors including the supervision provided by the university supervisor and cooperating teacher. As a supervisor of student teachers, I became aware of the lack of consistency in the supervision provided by the cooperating teachers I observed. Learning more about the role of the cooperating teacher and how to provide effective supervision provided the impetus for this study. Supervision, I believe, has the potential to be a major element in promoting quality and consistency in the student teaching experience.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

One impact of educational reform is the mandate to improve the quality of teacher training programs. Student teaching is described by college students and teacher educators as an exceedingly influential part of these programs (Brumfield & Leonard, 1983; Lortie, 1975; Campbell & Williamson, 1983; Corrigan & Haberman, 1990; Goodlad, 1988; Morris, 1980; O'Neal, 1983; Silberman, 1970; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Thies-Sprinthall, 1984). University supervisors generally agree that the most significant aspect of the student teaching experience is the classroom teacher's supervision (Koehler, 1984; Zahorik, 1988). In addition the student teachers believe they learn from their cooperating teachers and view that experience as the most valuable part of their professional program (Funk, Hoffman, Keithley & Long, 1982; Haberman & Harris, 1982; Yates, 1981; Zeichner, 1980). Research documents the profound influence cooperating teachers have over the learning and experiences of student teachers, thus determining the kind of teacher the student will become (Balch & Balch, 1987; Bunting, 1988; Emans, 1983; Haberman & Harris, 1982; Hattie, Olphert & Cole, 1982; Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Kuehl, 1976; McAulay, 1960; McIntyre & Morris, 1980; Seperson & Joyce, 1973; Thies-Sprinthall, 1984). Yet, the majority of classroom teachers act as cooperating teachers with no formalized preparation for their roles resulting in concerns regarding the quality of their supervision (Balch & Balch, 1987; Frieberg & Waxman, 1988; Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986; Horton & Harvey, 1979; Thies-Sprinthall, 1984). The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of an

inservice training program for cooperating teachers on the supervision of student teachers.

Significance of the Study

Student teaching, a major component of teacher education programs, is characterized as the most important phase in the professional preparation of teachers (Brumfield and Leonard, 1983; Conant, 1963; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1989; Griffin, 1989; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Seperson & Joyce, 1973; Zahorik, 1988). Support for the student teaching process has a long history (Conant, 1963; Dewey, 1904) resulting in the assumption that field-based instruction is both necessary and useful (Zeichner, 1980). The belief continues to exist that the practical learning experiences gained during the student teaching process contribute to the development of better teachers (O'Neal, 1983; Zeichner, 1980).

The student teaching process is perceived by students as the single-most productive and powerful experience of their educational programs (Appleberry, 1976; Davies & Amershek, 1969; Lortie, 1975; Nosow, 1975). Central to this process is the supervision of the student teacher and the interactions of the triad composed of a student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor who guide the experience (McIntyre & Morris, 1980; Yee, 1969). Research has documented that the key to the value of the student teaching experience is the classroom cooperating teacher (Bunting, 1988; Copeland, 1980; Funk et al., 1982; Haberman & Harris, 1982; Kuehl, 1976; McIntyre, 1984; Whaley & Wolfe,

1984; Yates, 1981, Yee, 1969). There is little question according to Richardson-Koehler (1988) that "cooperating teachers appear to be the most influential actors in the student teaching experience" (p. 28).

In spite of the numerous studies supporting the positive effects of the student teaching experience, some findings have questioned its value to the teacher education program. Based upon studies originating during the 1960s more recent investigations have proposed that the experience may actually have a negative impact (Alvermann, 1981; Balch & Balch, 1987; Emans, 1983; Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980; Thies-Sprinthall, 1980, 1984; Zeichner, 1980, Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981). Additional concern about the influence of the cooperating teacher has been raised (Copas, 1984, Grimmer & Ratzlaff, 1986; Koehler, 1986; McIntyre, 1984; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Zimpher, deVoss & Nott, 1980). The results of Richardson-Koehler's (1988) observational study indicate that within two weeks of beginning the student teaching experience student teachers attributed their practices to the influence of the cooperating teacher and discounted their formal pedagogical instruction. Specific problems were noted between the cooperating teacher's feedback and its lack of connection with pedagogical knowledge (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1989; Griffin, 1989). In 1988 Hoover, O'Shea and Carroll suggested that the field experience component of teacher training programs may not be contributing significantly to the development of preservice teachers' pedagogical skills. Koehler (1986) concluded, "While the effect of the cooperating teachers may be somewhat more complex than originally thought, it is clear that their influence is extremely strong, and that

they do not always provide the most effective experience for the student teachers" (p. 7).

Despite the on-going academic debate that both supports and questions the efficacy of field-based experiences, student teaching continues. In fact, some researchers report that student teachers want more rather than less experience in the classroom (Appleberry, 1976; Lipke, 1979; Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986). This finding is supported by the number of college and university teaching programs that have expanded requirements for field experiences prior to student teaching (Applegate & Andrews, 1991; Balch and Balch, 1987; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Morris & Curtis, 1983). This finding also substantiates the underlying belief of most teacher education programs, that student teaching is a worthwhile component (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Balch & Balch, 1987). Therefore, the issue becomes one of discovering how better to train student teachers to be successful and how to evaluate their performance during this final aspect of their formal preparation.

The work of guiding, supporting, training, and evaluating the student teacher can best be described by the term supervision. Primary people involved in the supervision process are the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher. These two members of the student teaching triad play significant roles in the ultimate growth of the student teacher (Emans, 1983; Zahorick, 1988; Zimpher et al., 1980).

Research has established that the cooperating teacher plays the dominant role of supervision (Balch & Balch, 1987; Bitner, 1983; Campbell & Williamson, 1983; Griffin, 1989; Koehler, 1986; Tinning, 1983; Yee, 1969). Since the 1960s investigators have documented the

influence of the cooperating teacher not only on teaching style, choice of materials, and behavior of the student teacher (McAulay, 1960; Price, 1961; Seperson & Joyce, 1973) but also on the student teacher's attitudes and professional development (Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Perrodin, 1961; Price, 1961). University supervisors who observe isolated segments of teaching are often unable to provide student teachers with adequate supervision regarding the development of their teaching styles (Bowman, 1979; Horton & Harvey, 1979; Yates, 1981). In Koehler's 1984 investigation all university supervisors surveyed agreed that the cooperating teacher was the most important person providing supervision during the student teaching experience.

Even though cooperating teachers are so important, rarely are they formally, and systematically educated for the task of student teaching supervision (Balch & Balch, 1987; Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986; Morris & Curtis, 1983; Thies-Sprinthall, 1984; Yates, 1981). Despite the recommendation for special training of cooperating teachers beginning as early as the 1960s (Davies & Amershek, 1969) and continuing into the 1980s (Bowman, 1979, Karmos & Jacko, 1977; McIntyre & Morris, 1980; Morris & Curtis, 1983), a survey of the state requirements for cooperating teachers conducted by Haberman and Harris (1982) located only two states that required actual certification for cooperating teachers, only nine states that required completion of a course or program of study, and over half of the fifty states had no legal requirements for cooperating teachers prior to student teaching supervision.

In the absence of formal preparation, most often some type of informal training is delivered through informational meetings or printed materials such as handbooks (McIntyre & Killian, 1987; Morris & Curtis, 1983). However, Griffin's 1989 investigation revealed a minimal understanding among university and school student teaching participants regarding policies, expectations, and practices that were supposed to govern the student teaching experience.

Few authors have focused on defining the role or responsibilities expected of the cooperating teacher (Balch & Balch, 1987; Castillo, 1971; Copas, 1984; Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986). Investigations concentrating on the problems confronting the cooperating teacher in the supervisory process are even fewer (Applegate & Lasley, 1982) but indicate that confusion during the student teaching experience can result. Information obtained from cooperating teachers indicated that they are unclear about their responsibilities (Lipke, 1979; Yates, 1981) and feel that clarification of their role would lead to increased effectiveness (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Zimpher et al., 1980).

The perceived inadequacies of training in the supervision of student teachers gave impetus to research during the late 1970s and early 1980s with numerous appeals for teacher education programs to include formal training for cooperating teachers (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Barbour 1971, Copas, 1984; Kuehl, 1976; Lipke, 1979; Yates, 1981). In 1979 Horton and Harvey proposed that university supervisors direct their responsibilities toward the preparation of cooperating teachers for their roles as supervisors. Morris (1980) advocated that teacher education institutions have the primary responsibility for providing

opportunities for the development of cooperating teachers through inservice programs. His model (1980) specified an inservice program aimed at sequential stages and focus areas for developing competent supervising teachers.

Copas' research (1984) was based upon the premise that both the selection and preparation of cooperating teachers should be the responsibility of the teacher preparation program requiring the student teaching component. Her study identified concrete behaviors underlying the critical requirements for cooperating teachers and outlined a curriculum and activities necessary for cooperating teachers to be effective.

Grimmett and Ratzlaff's 1986 cross study comparison of one Canadian (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1985) and two American studies (Castillo, 1971; Copas, 1984) consolidated the limited knowledge about the cooperating teacher's role. These researchers found that the American and Canadian studies conducted a year apart account for more similarities in expectations than the two studies conducted over a decade apart but within the same country. The similarities established by Grimmett and Ratzlaff find the cooperating teacher more directly responsible for the professional development and training of the student teacher particularly in the areas of classroom presentation and management. Findings similar to all three studies categorized the functions expected of the cooperating teacher into orientation, planning/instruction, evaluation, and professional development. In conclusion, Grimmett and Ratzlaff strongly implied that "the practice then of preparing cooperating teachers can, it seems, be based around

those functions that appear to stand the test of time and go beyond context" (p. 48).

According to Thies-Sprinthall (1984), there remains a need to try out various methods to increase a teachers' potential to serve as an effective supervisor. Bitner (1983) strongly supported training cooperating teachers in supervision strategies. He advocated a course or workshop based upon a model that incorporates administrative theory into the supervision of student teachers. Other researchers continue to recommend the establishment of procedures for training cooperating teachers in analysis of teaching and supervision techniques to ensure their effectiveness with prospective teachers (Killian & McIntyre, 1988; Richardson-Koehler, 1988).

Evidence exists that preparation and training of cooperating teachers in supervision and conferencing techniques produces beneficial effects. During the early 1970s a self-contained instructional supervision training program (ISTP) was developed and field tested. Teachers trained to use ISTP were described by Boyan and Copeland (1974) as more skilled in viewing teaching behavior and better able to identify patterns in the data and bring about behavioral change in their student teachers. In 1980, Drummond presented a workshop based upon Boyan and Copeland's 1978 model of student teaching supervision that organized supervisory activities for cooperating teachers and defined dimensions of the process. Improved interaction and feedback was cited by Killian and McIntyre (1985) who also studied the influence of supervision training for cooperating teachers on student teacher development.

Additional investigations have focused on the importance of effective supervision. As a result various supervision models were described in the literature as successfully producing specific student teaching outcomes (Gitlin, Ogawa & Rose, 1984; Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980). A number of studies incorporated the "clinical supervision" model developed by Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1966), and others at the Harvard School of Education with positive results (Berg, Harders, Malian & Nagel, 1986; Krajewski, 1976; Ocansey, 1987; Thorlacios, 1980; Twa, 1984; Whitehead, 1984). As early as 1976 Krajewski developed, implemented, and evaluated a supervision model based upon a cyclical process employing video and clinical skills analysis. Later experimental studies in Canada and California focused on the training of cooperating teachers. Intensive workshop activities using clinical supervision strategies resulted in more positive, effective student teaching experiences for students who were supervised by trained cooperating teachers (Berg et al., 1986; Thorlacios, 1980; Twa, 1984; Whitehead, 1984). Ocansey (1987) reported successfully training cooperating teachers using a behavioral model of supervision in physical education. The model emphasized communication feedback through teacher conferencing, and it utilized monitoring, conference, and follow-up monitoring. Most recently Oja (1991) described a newer collaborative supervision model where the cooperating teachers assume the dominant role of supervisor. Using the clinical supervision model they observe student teachers daily, document interactions, and provide feedback through conferences.

Studies focusing on conferencing behavior include the investigation of the cognitive behavior exhibited during conferences (Barbour, 1971), the types of evaluative feedback student teachers receive regarding their performance (Koehler, 1986; O'Neal, 1983), and what constitutes productive conference strategy (Balch & Balch, 1987). O'Shea, Hoover, and Carroll (1988) examined specific procedures for effective student teacher conferencing. Based upon a synthesis of a number of supervision models these researchers proposed the "Supervision Throughput Model" (STM) which focuses on incorporating the role and the responsibilities of the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor as they interact with the student teacher. At the center of the model is a cycle of conferences designated the "Continuous Coaching Cycle" reminiscent of clinical supervision.

Even though the importance of these various models has been documented, the literature contains a minimal number of current studies that have attempted to train cooperating teachers through comprehensive inservice programs. Whaley and Wolfe (1984) cite a pilot project to train cooperating teachers sponsored jointly by the North Carolina Quality Assurance Program for Teacher Education and the Department of Educational Leadership and Instruction of the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. The intent of the project aimed at developing and evaluating procedures to be adopted statewide for selecting, motivating, training, certifying, and monitoring the performance of cooperating teachers. The training program focused on the role of the cooperating teacher as an expert on teaching as well as supervision.

A second effort designed to prepare cooperating teachers was undertaken in the late 1980s by the Warrensburg School District and the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Central Missouri State University. In order to improve the student teaching process, Supervisors as Mentors (SAM) was developed to provide skills that result in cooperating teachers who are confident and active coaches and student teachers who are better educators (Jinks, Garten, Gossen, and Hudson, 1988). The SAM project involves twenty-two hours of workshops, conferences and follow-up activities for the cooperating teachers. The key concept of the program is intensive assistance with the bulk of the training devoted to techniques of clinical supervision (pre-conference, observation, and post-conference), thus ensuring a system of intense feedback. According to the program developers, eventually the Warrensburg school district would like to have formal training provided through the SAM process become a prerequisite in their district for all cooperating teachers who supervise student teachers (Jinks et al., 1988).

In 1987, Balch and Balch published a "how to" book entitled The Cooperating Teacher: A Pratical Approach to the Supervision of Student Teachers. They realized, as university supervisors of student teachers, the vital role of the cooperating teacher and the need for "improving the teaching/learning environment necessary for successful supervision" (p. xiv). Balch and Balch provide a comprehensive, practical overview of the roles, responsibilities, problems, and legal issues surrounding the supervision of student teachers, as well as day-to-day strategies and specific techniques for observation, supervision and conferencing.

Their "methods and materials" are focused on the development of those cooperating teacher competencies deemed essential for effective supervision of future teachers.

The preceeding pages have discussed the training of student teachers and the importance of effective cooperating teachers in the supervisory role. Morris (1980) believed "the equation is a simple one: better training yields better teachers" (p. 370). His premise is that most cooperating teachers have the potential to become fully competent, but only a small number develop to that point. With the increased demand for extended field experiences, more well-qualified cooperating teachers will be required. It seems apparent that an inservice program designed to assist the cooperating teacher to reach a higher stage of professional development can enhance the quality of the student teaching experience.

Statement of the Problem

A review of the literature on student teaching suggests the importance of the field-based experience and the influential role played by cooperating teachers. Research establishes the need for educating cooperating teachers to serve as effective supervisors. Despite its importance, however, few recent investigations have focused on the comprehensive preparation of cooperating teachers for their roles in supervising student teachers. The primary task of this present study is to develop, implement, and evaluate a formal inservice training program

designed to provide cooperating teachers with supervisory skills. The specific research hypotheses to be addressed include the following:

(1) In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by student teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(2) In the evaluation of cooperating teachers as model teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by student teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(3) In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by the university supervisors using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(4) No significant relationship exists between the student teachers' evaluations and the university supervisors' evaluations of the cooperating teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(5) In the perceptions of cooperating teachers regarding their supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by a "Cooperating Teacher Survey."

Related questions that are explored in this study include:

(1) Is there a difference in the supervision of student teachers between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by a content analysis of weekly progress reports submitted by a sample of student teachers?

(2) What is the cooperating teachers' immediate reaction to the inservice training program as assessed by a program evaluation?

(3) What is the cooperating teachers' delayed reaction to the inservice training program while they are supervising a student teacher?

Definition of Terms

The names utilized to describe the members of the student teaching triad and the terms employed to describe the student teaching process differ throughout the research literature. For the purposes of this study the following terms will be used consistently as defined by Davies and Amershek (1969):

Student teaching describes ". . . a period of guided teaching, during which a college student assumes increasing responsibility for directing the learning of a group or groups of learners over a period of consecutive weeks" (p. 1376).

The student teacher is "a college student assigned to student teaching experience. . ." (p. 1378).

The cooperating teacher is ". . .a regular teacher of school pupils who also directs the work of a student teacher with these same pupils" (p. 1378).

The university supervisor is an adjunct or ". . .regular college staff member who has, as all or part of his assigned work load, the supervision of activities of student teachers and the relationships and conditions under which they carry on their work" (p. 1378).

Limitations

The final number of cooperating teachers who registered for the inservice training program did not permit random assignment of subjects. The experimental group was comprised of cooperating teachers who volunteered for and completed the inservice. Despite matching, it is possible that the inservice participants--because they were self selected--possess different traits from the teachers in the control group.

This researcher developed and implemented the inservice training program (experimental treatment). A naive instructor was not available to train the cooperating teachers participating in the program. The effect of experimenter bias was an additional threat to the generalizability of the investigation.

The qualitative data analysis of journal entries was altered to include a review of weekly progress reports submitted by the student teachers. Content analysis and interpretation were restricted by the more "closed" nature of responses on the weekly progress reports.

Chapter one has established the significance of studying the role of the cooperating teacher in the student teaching process. The remaining chapters will examine an inservice training program for cooperating teachers and its effects on the supervision of student teachers. Chapter two will provide an indepth review of the literature on the expectations of cooperating teachers, the clinical supervision model, and inservice training procedures. Chapter three will discuss the research method, the training model, and procedures for data analysis. In Chapter four the results of the inservice training will be presented. Chapter five will address the interpretation of research findings, limitations of the study, and implications and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The importance of student teaching as an integral component of teacher education was discussed in Chapter one. A preliminary overview of research established the significance of the cooperating teacher as the most important element in the student teaching experience. Additional investigation documented the recommendation for training programs to prepare cooperating teachers for the supervision of student teachers. A more in-depth review of the literature will focus on three elements of importance to the development and implementation of a comprehensive training program designed to increase cooperating teachers' potential to serve as effective supervisors of student teachers. The three elements include: the roles and responsibilities of the cooperating teacher, the components of the clinical supervision model, and the requirements of inservice education.

Roles and Responsibilities of the Cooperating Teacher

A number of studies during the 1960s explored the roles, behaviors, and expectations of cooperating teachers (Decteau, 1965; Farbstein, 1965; Foster, 1967; Roth, 1960; Stoumbis, 1965; Wright, 1965). Other studies have addressed the question of defining the competencies and responsibilities of the cooperating teacher since that time (Balch & Balch, 1987; Castillo, 1971; Copas, 1984; Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986;

Koehler, 1986; Kuehl, 1976). The following studies establish the critical tasks required of cooperating teachers for effective supervision of student teachers.

In 1971, Castillo studied the role expectations of cooperating teachers as viewed by student teachers, college supervisors, and cooperating teachers. Using a 50-item survey instrument, Castillo sampled seventy-five individuals from each group comprising the student teacher triad. A second instrument was employed during interviews with 20% of the respondents in each of the three categories to assess reasons for low consensus on specific items from the survey.

The Castillo results showed agreement on 27 items sampled and disagreement on 23 items. The largest disagreement between any pair from the student teaching triad was recorded between the cooperating teacher and college supervisor. Interview data revealed several reasons for low consensus. Among the reasons was the concern that many cooperating teachers may not have the ability, expertise, or time to perform some of the duties required of the role. Of the eight recommendations Castillo made based upon the findings, the first four have particular relevance:

1. That planned activities in the form of seminars, conferences, and discussions should be organized for the development of increased clarity and consensus regarding the role expectations for cooperating teachers.

2. That handbooks in student teaching should contain specific statements of role expectations for the cooperating teacher.

3. That the teaching load of the cooperating teacher should be reduced in order to provide him more time to observe, evaluate, and confer with the student teacher.

4. That the cooperating teacher should be encouraged to attend courses or other in-service training activities to keep abreast with innovations in teacher education as well as to develop greater proficiency in supervising and guiding student teachers. (p. 1374-A)

The remaining four recommendations included: providing incentives to become a cooperating teacher, determining consensus among the traid members regarding expectations, evaluating role expectations in different types of school districts, and experimenting to determine the effectiveness of well-defined role expectations.

Kuehl (1976) developed a taxonomy of the competencies of a cooperating teacher based upon a survey of 43 critical tasks. The respondents were school personnel, student teachers, and university supervisors representing 786 individuals classified into five groups based upon level of teaching, speciality area, or administrative responsibility. Kuehl's study focused on isolating the tasks believed to be most important and determining whether the different groups agreed on the degree of importance of each task surveyed.

Kuehl (1976) found the number one competency of a cooperating teacher was the task specific to "possess professional characteristics/personal qualities" and the lowest rank was "helps the student teacher become more knowledgeable about district curriculum" (p. 9). Considerable consistency among the five groups was found across

the 43 tasks. Of the 11 significant conclusions reported by Kuehl, the following competencies were determined to have a high degree of importance to the taxonomy and to this study. There is a need for the cooperating teacher to be an exemplary model of a "good" teacher; to help the student teacher become more knowledgeable about learning processes, resources, content and skills to help the student teacher develop management and classroom discipline strategies and instructional planning strategies; to conduct purposeful conferences with student teachers; and to help the student teacher develop his/her own teaching style (Kuehl, 1976).

Copas (1984) sampled 476 elementary student teachers using an instrument designed to collect effective and ineffective behaviors of teachers related to the role of the cooperating teacher. Each student teacher response required completion of five specific tasks describing an incident and the behavior of the cooperating teacher. The critical incident technique was used to analyze the results. A total of 1,490 behaviors were categorized according to content resulting in 28 critical requirements for cooperating teachers grouped into two distinct categories.

According to Copas, one category described cooperating teacher behaviors that directly affected the student teacher while the second category affected the student in the classroom. The data derived from the category specific to the student teacher revealed six subcategories of critical requirements of the cooperating teacher described as follows: orienting, inducting, guiding, reflecting, cooperating, and supporting behaviors. Within each subcategory, specific requirements

were outlined. For example, "guiding behaviors" included the requirements of helping the student teacher develop skills in the three areas of planning and evaluating learning experiences, presentation, and discipline. Almost one-half of the total behaviors reported as affecting the student teacher were represented by the two subcategories of guiding and cooperating behaviors.

Based upon the emergence of the category pertaining to cooperating teacher behaviors as they affect children, the Copas (1984) data suggested that cooperating teachers need to be responsive to the abilities and needs of their students and develop effective behaviors relative to the enforcement of rules and discipline. Two outcomes of the study were discussed by Copas as significant requirements of cooperating teachers. As role models, the cooperating teachers must demonstrate competence in teaching. Cooperating teachers need to provide performance evaluation and feedback to student teachers with regard to the effectiveness of their teaching.

Koehler (1986) conducted a participant observation study of 14 student teachers and their cooperating teachers in order to answer specific questions relating to the role cooperating teachers have in student teaching supervision. As part of the regular duties as a university supervisor, Koehler took extensive notes during all observations, feedback evaluation sessions, conversations with cooperating teachers, and discussions with student teachers individually and collectively.

As a result of the review of the literature relating to instructional supervision and the observation data, Koehler (1986)

concluded that student teaching is the most important aspect of teacher education and the cooperating teacher contributes most to the success of the experience. Two important aspects of the cooperating teacher's role were the instructional behaviors exhibited by the cooperating teacher during the experience and the content of the feedback provided to the student teacher. According to Koehler effective teachers should model the behaviors student teachers are attempting to practice. In addition, the feedback provided to the student teacher should be clear and specific with examples accompanied by rationale.

One additional finding of significance was the difficulty Koehler experienced separating the student teacher's performance from that of the cooperating teacher. The task structure of the classroom routines established by the cooperating teachers had a strong influence on the performance of the student teacher; therefore, Koehler emphasized the importance of cooperating teachers to reflect upon and criticize their own classroom routines and practices. Based upon the observations and findings, Koehler suggested that transfer of skills and knowledge from the college experience to practice teaching is possible if the cooperating teacher is aware of the target skills learned in the teacher education program and/or naturally employs the skills in the classroom.

Grimmett & Ratzlaff (1986) completed the most extensive study to date regarding the role of the cooperating teacher. First, the researchers investigated the expectations held for cooperating teachers by all members of the student teaching triad in Victoria, British Columbia. The sample contained 75 university supervisors, 950 student teachers, and 1,375 cooperating teachers who were asked to respond to a

166-item questionnaire. A second purpose of the study was to compare the Canadian findings with those of two American studies previously described in this literature review (Castillo, 1971; Copas, 1984). Grimmett & Ratzlaff's cross-study comparison sought to establish whether the cooperating teacher's role was based upon the context of culture, time, or both culture and time.

The Canadian study categorized the functions expected of the cooperating teacher into orientation, planning and instruction, evaluation, and professional development with a high degree of consensus among all three members of the student teaching triad. The findings between the Grimmett and Ratzlaff's study and the Castillo (1971) study conducted a decade earlier were different. Further evaluation suggested the differences were more a product of the time and changing role of the cooperating teacher than cultural differences between the two countries.

Comparison with the Copas (1984) study focused on the categorized functions of the cooperating teacher and demonstrated ". . .substantive similarities that exist among items despite different category labels used by the researchers" (p. 46). Specific similarities focused on the cooperating teacher becoming more directly involved in teaching the student teacher skills of presentation and classroom management and encouraging the development of professional responsibility. Grimmett and Ratzlaff found more similarities between their own findings and Copas's than between the two American studies suggesting that the proximity of time, regardless of context, had more influence in establishing the role of the cooperating teacher.

Five expectations were common to all three studies compared by Grimmett & Ratzlaff (1986). The importance of orienting the student teacher with basic information, providing resources, involving the student teacher in planning and evaluation of learning experiences, conferencing, and evaluating the student teacher's progress through focused feedback were established as behaviors specific to the responsibilities and expectations of the cooperating teacher. One additional outcome indicated a heightened emphasis on the role played by the cooperating teacher in student teaching supervision.

Balch and Balch (1987) outlined the following eight major role expectations of the cooperating teacher: "model behavior, observer, planner, evaluator, conferencer, counselor, professional peer, and friend" (p.31). According to the co-authors, "The responsibilities of the cooperating teacher represent many complex tasks ranging from emotional to cognitive in nature" (p. 41). The amount of time required of the cooperating teacher in each role depends on the strengths, weaknesses, personality and overall needs of the student teacher. Balch and Balch described the first seven roles as mandatory in order to be an effective cooperating teacher.

Within these roles, two are critical to the development of the student teacher. The cooperating teacher must be a competent, accurate and persistent observer who as an evaluator can give feedback and suggest changes. Despite competence in the eight roles, Balch and Balch stressed the importance of an additional variable, the supervisory style of the cooperating teacher which ". . .seems to be the product of a teacher's own teaching experiences, personality characteristics, the

local school environment, and his unique philosophy about the teaching/learning phenomenon" (p. 39).

A number of roles and responsibilities of the cooperating teacher have been described in the literature since 1970. A comparison of the studies suggests a recurring emphasis on several critical behaviors expected of the cooperating teacher. These role expectations include the following: orienting the student teacher with information and resources, displaying competence in teaching exhibited through modeling, providing instructional planning and strategies for classroom management, and providing focused feedback through observation and evaluation conferences. The preparation of cooperating teachers for the role of supervision of student teachers should focus on the specific roles and responsibilities outlined in the above research. For the purpose of this dissertation, the following broad definition, developed for the Copas (1984) investigation, will be used to describe the role of the cooperating teacher:

The job of the cooperating teacher is to help the student teacher develop a deep and meaningful concept of teaching, to help the student teacher analyze the many facets of teaching, to provide the student teacher with sources and resources, and to encourage the student teacher's unique teaching behavior. (p. 50)

Clinical Supervision

Numerous studies have focused on the importance of effective supervision of student teachers. There is documented evidence that training in the use of specific supervisory techniques such as observation and providing critical feedback does produce more effective cooperating teachers (Boyan and Copeland, 1974; McIntyre & Killian, 1987). Several researchers have developed supervision models incorporating various theories into the supervision structure (Bitner, 1983; Cohn & Gellman, 1988; Gitlin, Ogawa & Rose, 1984; Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980). One supervisory model, however, has continued to serve as a framework for the supervision of student teachers (Glickman & Bey, 1990).

The model known as "clinical supervision" was developed in the late 1950s by Cogan, Goldhammer, and Anderson while the educators collaborated in a study of teaching at Harvard University. In an attempt to provide more effective supervision of the Harvard interns, the clinical supervision sequence evolved as a result of several years of experimentation and evaluation (Balch & Balch, 1987; Reavis, 1976;1978). Goldhammer wrote Clinical Supervision in 1969, and Cogan followed in 1973, publishing a book with the same title. Professional interest in clinical supervision grew during the 1970s resulting in a number of publications and conferences (Reavis, 1978). In 1976 Harris wrote, "The validity of clinical supervision as a strategy for improving instructional practices of individual teachers continues to gain support in practice and through research reports" (p. 85).

Balch and Balch (1987) defined clinical supervision as "focused upon the improvement of instruction, by means of systematic cycles of planning, observing, and intensive analysis of the actual teaching performances in the interest of rational modification" (p. 16). Both Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) described the procedures as a cycle of supervision that emphasize the ongoing involvement of teachers and supervisors working in a collegial, collaborative environment to change teacher classroom behavior and ultimately improve pupil behavior (Miller & Miller, 1987). The model is termed "clinical" because it addresses the reality of daily school life (McFaul & Cooper, 1984). According to Cogan, "It takes its principal data from the events in the classroom" (1973, p. 9).

There is general agreement among researchers on the subject that the major function of clinical supervision is to improve field experiences for teachers through a structured system of observing and conferencing with teachers (Goldsberry, 1984). Cogan is credited with first establishing eight phases of supervision (Cogan, 1976; Miller & Miller, 1987) that was modified by Goldhammer and emerged as a five-step process (Freer, 1987; Reavis, 1976;1978). Reavis outlined this five-step process as follows:

1. **Preobservation conference.** In this conference, the supervisor is oriented to the class, objectives, and lesson by the teacher. Then the teacher and supervisor decide on a contract (purposes of the observation).
2. **Observation.** The supervisor observes the lesson, taking verbatim notes as much as possible or recording the lesson by

mechanical means.

3. Analysis and strategy. The supervisor considers his or her notes with respect to the contract emphasis and also to discover any patterns, either favorable or unfavorable, that might characterize this teacher's behavior. After the lesson has been analyzed, the supervisor considers this teacher, his or her level of self-confidence maturity, experience, and so on, and decides on a strategy for the conference.

4. Postobservation conference. The supervisor implements his or her strategy. He or she deals with the contract items first and, with the consent of the teacher, may introduce comments on patterns not a part of the original contract that he or she has identified. Planning with the teacher for a future lesson that incorporates mutually agreed-upon changes may also occur.

5. Postconference analysis. The supervisor analyzes his or her own performance and makes plans for working with this teacher in a more professional, productive manner in the future. (p. 580)

The original authors of the clinical supervision model emphasized that simply going through the steps in a mechanical fashion does not guarantee improved teacher behavior (Reavis, 1978). Deficiencies of cooperating teachers in observing and conferencing have been cited frequently. Cooperating teachers generally do not view student teacher's work critically and analyze the student teachers' instruction by judgmental rather than behavioral statements (O'Neal, 1983a; Zimpher,

deVoss & Nott, 1980). Cooperating teachers tend to avoid evaluative comments and negative remarks during conferences (Killian & McIntyre, 1985; Lipke, 1979; O'Neal, 1983b); they tend to dominate the dialogue and focus on classroom events, procedural issues, and noninstructional tasks with no serious reflection or analysis (Barbour, 1971; Koehler, 1986; O' Neal 1983b). Understanding and employing the specific processes inherent in the clinical supervision cycle, however, can provide the mechanism for effective supervision.

The basic components of observation, data collection, analysis of behavior, and feedback/conferencing are included in the clinical supervision model, which are critical to effective supervision. The planning conference identifies a specific behavioral skill for observation and determines the type of observation data needed (Balch & Balch, 1987; Lerch, 1980). Lerch (1980) found that rather than "shot gunning" on as many areas as possible, it is important to identify an area of concern or a specific skill to serve as the basis for data collection and postconference discussion.

Classroom observation and data collection in the clinical model are referred to by Mills (1980) as a structured, systematic viewing and recording of specific information, including verbal and nonverbal interactions between the student teacher and pupils, classroom content where instruction occurs, and effects of instruction on learning. Balch and Balch (1987) describe seven different observation techniques and suggest that the cooperating teacher select the most appropriate method for collecting the right kind of data. Whatever technique employed for classroom observation, four conditions as outlined by Mills (1980) must

be met: have a definite plan of action, record data accurately, use a variety of recording methods and materials, and describe observed events precisely.

Feedback conferences are a planned process of sharing and exploring collected data between the cooperating teacher and student teacher (Mills, 1980). These conferences provide a time to evaluate and interpret data, discuss strengths and weaknesses, formulate conclusions, and prepare for the next planning conference (Balch & Balch, 1987). The key to fostering an effective conference is open communication and free exchange of ideas (Dunkleberger, 1987) aimed at increasing effective teaching behaviors, reducing and eliminating ineffective teaching behaviors, and helping the student teacher to develop and demonstrate self-evaluation skills (O'Shea, Hoover, Carroll, 1988).

The clinical supervision model has great potential for adaptability, and variations of the model have employed parts of the cycle to fit classroom realities (Balch & Balch, 1987). A three-phase model consisting of the basic components just reviewed, the planning conference, observation and data collection, and feedback conference, has received considerable research support (Miller & Miller, 1987). The clinical model, regardless of its form, offers the cooperating teacher a vehicle for improved supervision.

Actual research on the effectiveness of the clinical supervision model began with classroom teachers. In reviewing the results of four studies completed between 1967 and 1973, Reavis (1977) found positive outcomes when the model was incorporated into the supervision process. In 1977, Reavis conducted an investigation that contrasted the verbal

exchanges between nine supervisors and teachers using clinical supervision and traditional supervision conference styles. An analysis of the postobservation conference tapes revealed a significant difference favoring clinical supervision on all six criteria studied, using Blumberg's system for analyzing supervisor-teacher interaction. The teachers perceived more positive interactions with the supervisor and described a more supportive supervisor-teacher relationship. Traditional supervision was not preferred in any category assessed.

One of the first studies employing the clinical supervision model for student teacher supervision was conducted by Krajewski (1976). The model as researched and developed by Krajewski contained objectives, self ratings, video analysis, student ratings and the services of a clinical supervisor. Inherent in the model was the cycle of proceeding from objectives, to ratings and analysis, evaluation, and formulation of new objectives. The investigation was conducted with an experimental and control group of 41 master's level student teachers. The experimental group implemented Krajewski's model and received five clinical supervision visits. The control group received traditional supervision.

Krajewski (1976) reported that the experimental group exhibited better teaching and more accurate self-evaluation of teaching than the control group. In addition, the experimental group experienced a positive increase in attitude toward teaching. Krajewski found the clinical supervision model to have particular merit for use with student teachers where both the cooperating teacher and student teacher work on setting objectives and analyzing teaching behavior.

Drummond (1980) investigated the effects of an instructional supervision training program developed by Boyan and Copeland in 1978 on 32 cooperating teachers' attitudes, perceptions, and behavior during the supervision of student teachers. Included in the four stages of the model was a series of eight steps to accomplish a preobservation conference, observation, analysis and identification of change, and a postobservation conference. The program emphasized the acquisition and use of the supervisory steps, including the ability to observe and analyze classroom instruction systematically in order to identify student teaching behaviors needing modification or maintenance.

Drummond (1980) addressed the immediate reaction and delayed impact of the training. The participants' immediate response to the workshop was positive. For example, 79% of the teachers believed they had a better understanding of how to observe and analyze teaching behavior. Workshop and non-workshop cooperating teachers were mailed a 20-item questionnaire one month after training. Drummond found three significant differences between the two groups. The trained cooperating teachers requested more information about how to supervise student teachers, tended to observe one specific dimension of the student's teaching, and tended to perceive the student teacher more positively than the non-workshop teachers. On the general supervision factor, there were no significant differences between the two groups. The most important aspect of the workshop, Drummond concluded, was the way the model organized the supervision process into phases that defined dimensions of teaching in observation terms, used observation instruments, and provided feedback.

Beginning in 1975, the Education faculty at the University of Lethbridge in Alberta, Canada introduced a Clinical Supervision Workshop to prepare teachers for the task of supervising students using the clinical supervision approach. Between 1980 and 1984, three studies investigated separate aspects of the workshop program.

In 1977, Thorlacios developed and introduced the Supervisor-Teacher Analogous Categories System (STACS) for analyzing and coding supervisory conferences into the workshop content. The cooperating teachers were taught to use the system to code videotaped supervisory conferences held with student teachers. Thorlacios collected a number of pretraining and final videotaped conferences to examine changes in supervisory behavior as a result of training in clinical supervision. Of the nine categories identified by the STACS instrument, Thorlacios (1980) reported that six showed significant probability that changes in the supervision conference were the result of training. Specific changes were noted in increased feedback to student teachers in the form of objective data based upon information sought by the student teacher, increased length of conferences, and an increased emphasis on the cooperating teacher asking questions, listening, and reflecting the student teachers' ideas and feelings. The cooperating teacher's supervisory behavior more toward a supportive collegial approach and away from the directive approach. Thorlacios found the student teachers accepted the feedback presented during the conferences and were likely to respond with changes in performance in the classroom which related to higher conference productivity.

Over 400 teachers completed the Clinical Supervision Workshops between 1975 and 1984 (Twa, 1984). Twa sampled over 100 teachers in 1984, all of whom had supervised at least three student teachers. A questionnaire was designed to assess the effectiveness of the workshop training, the perceptions of the value of the clinical supervision model, and the application and practicality of using the complete clinical supervision cycle.

Twa (1984) reported that the teachers perceived the complete workshop and its component sections to be highly valuable in supervising students. The most highly rated sections of the workshop were the clinical supervision cycle and the workshop as a whole with over 90% of the teachers rating each as valuable or extremely valuable. The teachers reported extensive use of the complete supervisory cycle with student teachers. Only 1.9% of the cooperating teachers said they never used the complete cycle. As a result of the workshop, according to Twa, the teachers reported these findings:

1. they were more eager to accept practicum students after the workshop than before they had taken it,
2. their supervisory skills improved from the "adequate to poor" range to the "better than adequate to excellent" range, and
3. they felt much more comfortable as supervisors after the workshop. (p. 19)

Whitehead (1984) conducted the third study based upon the Clinical Supervision Workshop that addressed the students' perceptions of the cooperating teachers' supervision behaviors. Ninety-one percent of 116

students participating in the student teaching programs in 1980 returned a 20-item questionnaire consisting of five specific categories of information pertaining to supervision behaviors, style, and feedback. Of the 105 questionnaires returned, 43 of the cooperating teachers had participated in the workshops on clinical supervision and 62 had not.

According to Whitehead (1984) the results indicated that students rated the cooperating teachers who had clinical supervision training more positively than those who were not trained in all five categories assessed. A significant difference was recorded in the overall approach to supervision and in the ratio of solicited to unsolicited feedback provided. There appeared to be a trend by the cooperating teachers who were trained toward a more indirect supervisory style with emphasis on information rather than opinion in feedback.

Berg, Harders, Malian and Nagel (1986) outlined a comprehensive Clinical Supervision Model Program developed by San Diego State University as part of the School of Teacher Education. The training model consisted of a three day series of workshops and training sessions on clinical supervision. Berg et al. (1986) evaluated the training component of the program using a Student Teaching Supervision questionnaire administered to the clinically supervised student teachers and to a control group who received traditional supervision. The cooperating teachers also completed a questionnaire designed to compare supervision performance in previous semesters with post-training supervision. The clinically supervised student teachers indicated more positive and effective student teaching supervision than student teachers who were not clinically supervised. The cooperating teachers

reported more time spent in supervision, more written and oral feedback, and more time spent working with the university supervisor following training.

Ocansey (1987) provided training to four cooperating teachers in Ohio using a behavioral approach to the supervision of physical education student teachers. The Behavioral Model of Supervision-Physical Education (BMS-PE), compatible with the clinical supervision model, employed a three step process of monitoring, conference, and follow-up monitoring. During the monitoring steps a systematic approach to the observation and collection of data was emphasized. Conferences focused on strategies for remediation or maintenance. The model emphasized communicating feedback with more detail and holding the cooperating teacher more accountable for the supervision.

The results of the Ocansey (1987) study indicated that cooperating teachers can perform specific supervisory functions as a result of training. Specific findings noted an increased amount of conference time spent communicating on specific incidents relating to teacher behavior and planning as well as a decrease in the time spent on unrelated incidents. The cooperating teacher and student teacher were successful in being able to prioritize the focus of the conference and specify the target behaviors and strategies for follow-up.

Balch and Balch (1987) reported finding no distinct study that shows clinical supervision as truly superior to the traditional supervision of student teachers. McFaul and Cooper (1984) described the clinical supervision model as lacking a sound research base. Yet, the

studies just reviewed, as a whole, support the use of clinical supervision by both student teachers and cooperating teachers as a model for cooperating teachers to follow during student teaching supervision. Balch and Balch (1987) believe, "If one accepts the full spirit of the clinical supervision model or merely implements the portions that are directly applicable to a situation, he moves toward a concrete strategy for collecting and analyzing data" (p. 22). According to the investigations surveyed, the process clearly benefits both parties involved in the teaching/supervising and learning cycle.

In each study just reviewed, the training of the cooperating teacher in the clinical supervision process was accomplished through a workshop or inservice program. The importance of inservice education as a mode of training and providing for professional development follows.

Inservice Education

During the decade of the 1970s inservice teacher training as a means to promote professional development received considerable attention from educators (Brinkerhoff, 1980; Cavallaro, Stowitschek, George, & Stowitschek, 1980; Knowlton, 1980). In response to technical innovations, federal legislation for the handicapped, and concern with teacher competence, an increased number of conferences, workshops, and training programs were conducted (Van Cleaf & Reinhartz, 1984) but produced only marginal results at best (Dillion-Peterson, 1981). As a consequence of the resulting criticism surrounding the effectiveness of

inservice training a variety of problems related to the methods and approaches of the inservice model were identified.

Educators responded with investigations and recommendations on ways to improve inservice education. Brimm and Tollett (1974) sampled 646 teachers in a statewide research study in Tennessee regarding teacher attitudes toward inservice training. Overall responses substantiated the criticism that inservice programs were planned poorly, inadequately executed, and lacked useful evaluative procedures. Based upon the survey findings, the researchers suggested that programs become more responsive to the needs and interests of the classroom teacher, that more small group activities be planned which allow for the different interests of teachers, that teachers be more involved in the development and planning of inservice programs, and that specific objectives be developed and follow-up procedures established to evaluate whether inservice objectives are met.

During the same year the Brimm and Tollett results were published, the following characteristics of what makes an inservice workshop a success were outlined by Ernst (1974):

A good workshop starts where the learner is and takes that learner as far and as fast as the learner desires toward a mutually accepted goal of the learner and the workshop's resource personnel.

A good workshop must be offered at a time and for the length of time convenient for the participants.

A good workshop embraces accepted goals that are feasible and explicit.

A good workshop provides a match of resources with the learner's needs and personality.

A good workshop must offer the learner an opportunity to gain strength and objective validation from one's colleagues.

A good workshop assists learners to communicate honestly and effectively with themselves and with each other. It enables the learner to minimize personal cultural blocks that prevent honest communication.

A good workshop permits the learners and other human resources a continual opportunity to denounce the workshop; to quit; to invest and involve themselves in it; to verify their capacities; and to function more securely within their own limits. (p. 496)

In 1980, Friedstein concisely summarized the recommendations for a good workshop with her comment, "A good workshop should develop skills, give knowledge, motivate, build morale, stimulate new thinking, or offer an opportunity to share experiences" (p. 344).

Discontent with the traditional approach to training conducted through limited "one-shot" sessions was voiced by a number of authors (Cavallaro et al., 1980; Daresh, 1987; Grossnickle, 1987; Knowlton, 1980; Van Cleaf & Reinhartz, 1984). Cavallaro et al. (1980) cited the lack of teacher participation, feedback, and extension of skill application into the classroom inherent in the lecture mode of the one-shot presentation. From research on inservice training programs, four serious deficiencies were further delineated by Cavallaro et al. (1980) as follows: "(a) emphasis is generally placed on telling rather

than doing, (b) instruction is general, as opposed to specific in nature, (c) effective models are not provided, and (d) effective feedback is rarely provided" (p. 49).

In spite of its many problems the short-term, one-shot workshop approach has continued to be the option for meeting inservice needs (Knowlton, 1980). A review of the more recent literature directed toward staff development has suggested some clear guidelines concerning desirable practices that contribute to improved effectiveness of inservice training.

One approach to improved staff development programs focused on providing assistance on a specific topic. Henderson's 1986 research for The Madison Workshop Program stressed the value of very specific approaches to specific problems. The aim of the Madison workshops was to bring education leaders into contact with the school district's professional staff of 280. Each three day, 15 hour inservice program addressed a general area that was broken down into a series of workshops on specific topics.

Daresh's research (1987) on the content of inservice programs suggested that it was important for the inservice to offer practical advice addressing specific issues of high interest to teachers. Teachers are more likely to apply what is learned in an inservice session if it relates to a problem faced in the classroom. An earlier report by Jackson (1980) substantiated the Daresh finding. Jackson found that teachers in Memphis requested inservice activities that would provide information and materials to meet the specific needs of the students in the classrooms.

According to the Norfolk Public Schools' (1986) framework for school improvement, one of the basic principles to ensure effectiveness is to tailor the professional development activities to meet the individual school, department, or staff needs. Brinkerhoff (1980) defined the goals of inservice education as discovering and clarifying the needs of a particular staff and designing and implementing strategies to address those needs in order for the school to accomplish its purpose.

Additional recommendations regarding content addressed the experience level of the participants involved in the inservice program. According to Daresh (1980), "Staff development is viewed more positively if it is planned with a view toward incorporating the experiences of the participants in the selection of the content" (p. 22). Some studies have shown that only the variable of teaching experience reveals a consistent effect on desired content. Teachers with fewer than four years experience expressed a need for specific activities designed to help with learning more about teaching. Experienced teachers, according to the studies reviewed by Daresh, were more likely to indicate a desire to know about innovative teaching methods and new ideas regarding the needs and interests of students.

Van Cleaf and Reinhartz (1984) focused on the concern of providing for different developmental and cognitive needs of participants. These researchers recommended offering several sessions on the same topic over a period of time at a higher level of complexity in each session. Teachers could be grouped according to individual experience, cognitive

or developmental needs and attend only the sessions or sequence most appropriate for their levels.

Specific procedures for the delivery of inservice programs have focused on how to initiate and sustain behavioral change in the participants. Daresh (1987) and Norfolk Public Schools (1986) recommended an ongoing process that avoids the one-shot presentation. Van Cleaf and Reinhartz (1984) suggested long-term inservice programs that include follow-up sessions where teachers have an opportunity to practice the skills learned during inservice training. Christen and Murphy (1987) encouraged administrators to support follow-up practice and allow teachers the flexibility to experiment and rework new ideas and skills and share mistakes in order to make long-term gains possible.

Numerous authors identified the lack of follow through after an inservice session as one of the most serious weaknesses of the inservice model (Grossnickle, 1987; Van Cleaf & Reinhartz, 1984). A comprehensive commitment (Daresh, 1987) that included training, implementation, maintenance, and evaluation (Norfolk Public Schools, 1986) was found to be a key essential to classroom application and long-term implementation. After the initial inservice program a series of several follow-up activities with intervals in between were suggested by Grossnickle (1987) and Van Cleaf and Reinhartz (1984). In addition, Grossnickle specified a number of follow-up ideas which include the following: supportive resource personnel to assist with implementation, reference materials to use after the training, and evaluation to determine further interest and need for training.

Other procedural concerns focused on the need to have inservice participants actively involved in the delivery and learning process. According to Cavallaro et al. (1980), teachers need to be experiencing, interacting, and reacting during the training sessions. Van Cleaf and Reinhartz (1984) recommended an opportunity to role play lecture material, enabling participants to coach each other and provide feedback on what was presented. Daresh (1987) suggested that programs employ opportunities for two-way communication and elimination of the lecture format where teachers are passive participants.

Norfolk Public Schools (1986) has employed the talents and experience of personnel within the school system to plan and present staff development programs. Research found there is less resistance when peers design and deliver inservice training (Daresh, 1987; Dunaway, Mechenbier, Parsons, & Wright, 1987). Dunaway et al. (1987) described one high school's practical approach to making inservice programs more valuable. Staff member volunteers developed and presented a series of high-interest, low-budget, mini-inservice ideas known as INSITE, an acronym for INSERVICE Ideas for Teacher Encouragement, at an Albuquerque, New Mexico high school. The program encouraged teachers to get involved and provided presenters added recognition on the job.

Teachers value and are motivated by intrinsic factors which can be incorporated into effective inservice programming. In an effort to keep teachers motivated once they are in the profession, Engelking (1987) believed efforts must be made to provide collegiality, interesting responsibilities, opportunities for mastery of new subject matter,

professional growth and advancement, and recognition for a job well done.

Creating additional incentives may be necessary to attract teachers to inservice programs (Engelking, 1987; Norfolk Public Schools, 1986; Whaley & Wolfe, 1984). The Madison Workshop Program provided participants with a stipend for attendance and collaborated with Ashland College for one-semester hour of credit for each 15 hour inservice program (Henderson, 1986). Additional incentives such as release time or mini-grants to attend inservice programs and conferences or to visit teachers and schools to observe implementation of programs were outlined by Engelking (1987) and Grossnickle (1987).

Evaluation is the final aspect discussed in the literature regarding the improvement of inservice programs. Brinkerhoff (1980) stated, "Good program evaluation ought to go hand-in-hand with the development of improved inservice education" (p. 27). It appears, however, that few provisions for evaluation or for providing feedback to the participants has occurred (Cavallaro et al., 1980). Knowlton (1980) found that short term workshops and inservice sessions were not evaluated except occasionally through cursory assessments from participants.

Accountability, through evaluation, should be an integral component at each level of the inservice program, not only at the conclusion but also at the initial and implementation stages (Knowlton, 1980). An evaluation framework and accountability matrix with reference to pre-post session, within session, and follow-up session conditions was recommended by Knowlton (1980).

Brinkerhoff (1980) described evaluation as serving three major functions at different stages of the process: "(1) to facilitate planning; determination of program goals and strategies; (2) to facilitate and develop a program's implementation; (3) to assess the effects of inservice programs upon the school (or other work) environment" (p. 33). The second and third evaluation functions often are not incorporated into the inservice plan because of the expense of travel, time, and effort involved to assess newly acquired teacher skills (Cavallaro et al., 1980).

Application of what had been learned during training, however, was the goal of the experimental inservice training program in south central Tennessee called the Teaching Proficiency Workshop (Cavallaro et al., 1980). The project was presented as a two-course series that consisted of formal instruction on teaching procedures and a follow-up practicum where application of the newly learned competencies were supervised.

Several considerations were outlined in a comprehensive critique of evaluation approaches for inservice training advanced by Brinkerhoff (1980). Brinkerhoff stressed the need for innovative methods of evaluation using qualitative as well as quantitative techniques that focus on the incremental stages of program growth. Knowlton (1980) also recommended that documentation should include the use of a variety of sources and collection procedures including qualitative and quantitative data.

Comprehensive program evaluation is one essential component to improved inservice training. In spite of the many concerns regarding the effectiveness of the inservice mode of professional development,

inservice programming continues to be the most logical service option for meeting training needs. The characteristics described by Ernst for a good inservice program in 1974 are applicable today: "What makes for a good workshop? A concern for people as individuals and as members of the group who have personal needs that can be met. An affirmation that application of learning is essential for participants" (p. 498). With attention to the entire process of the inservice program, not just the formal presentations, a climate that fosters learning and has impact on those who attend can be created (Taylor, 1989).

A review of the literature regarding the role and responsibilities of the cooperating teacher isolated the tasks believed to be most important for effective supervision of student teachers. Documented evidence shows that the clinical supervision model provides a framework for executing the expectations of cooperating teachers and that training in the use of the model results in more effective cooperating teachers. Inservice programming continues to be the most widely used mode for meeting the training needs of teachers. Based upon existing research, effective methods and approaches for providing inservice education have been established.

CHAPTER 3

Research Design

The primary task of this dissertation is to develop, implement, and evaluate a formal inservice training program designed to provide cooperating teachers with supervisory skills. The research design employed to evaluate this study utilized both quantitative and qualitative methods and procedures. The quantitative research design chosen for the study was a quasi-experimental posttest-only control group design with matching. The independent variable or treatment under study was the inservice training program; the dependent variable was the posttest measure of cooperating teacher effectiveness. The specific research hypotheses addressed were these:

(1) In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by student teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(2) In the evaluation of cooperating teachers as model teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measure by student teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(3) In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal

in-service training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by the university supervisors using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(4) No significant relationship exists between the student teachers' evaluations and the university supervisors' evaluations of the cooperating teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile."

(5) In the perceptions of cooperating teachers regarding their supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal in-service training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by a "Cooperating Teacher Survey."

The qualitative research methodology employed content analysis of weekly progress reports submitted by the student teachers and analysis of questionnaire responses based upon the cooperating teachers' immediate and delayed reaction to the in-service training program. The three questions addressed were as follows:

(1) Is there a difference in the supervision of student teachers between cooperating teachers who experience a formal in-service training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by a content analysis of weekly progress reports submitted by a sample of student teachers?

(2) What is the cooperating teachers' immediate reaction to the in-service training program as assessed by the "Program Evaluation?"

(3) What is the cooperating teachers' delayed reaction to the inservice training program as measured by the "Follow-Up Session" survey while the cooperating teachers are supervising student teachers?

Methodology

Sampling Procedure

Participants in the investigation were 42 student teacher triads--student teachers from two large urban universities, their cooperating teachers in schools providing placements for the student teaching experience, and their university supervisors. The schools were located in the urban school system of Norfolk, Virginia. An "intensive group" consisting of 22 student teachers, 11 from the experimental and 11 from the control groups were chosen at random from each experience for qualitative analysis.

The Norfolk school system was chosen because of its diverse, school-aged urban population and commitment to effective teaching. Incorporating the belief that schools can make a difference in the learning process, the Norfolk Public Schools' staff embodies the notion that staff improvement and development are synonymous. In recognition of this belief, an objective throughout the system is staff development/training employing inservice activities to enhance school effectiveness, teaching, and learning.

On December 19, 1990, a memorandum from the Office of Human Relations and Staff Development, Instructional Support Services invited

cooperating teachers who were assigned a student teacher for the spring semester to register for an inservice training program on clinical supervision. Participation in this study was on a volunteer basis and qualified the cooperating teacher for 15 recertification points under inservice Option 10.

Forty-one cooperating teachers registered for the inservice, three cancelled prior to the inservice program, nine did not attend, and one cooperating teacher left during training due to a family emergency. Twenty-eight cooperating teachers (experimental/treatment group) completed the initial inservice training sessions prior to assignment of their student teachers.

Of the original 28 inservice participants, six cooperating teachers did not receive student teachers during the spring semester, and one student teacher withdrew from the experience prior to the end of the second week, leaving a total of 21 cooperating teachers in the experimental group. The control group of 21 cooperating teachers received no formalized inservice training.

Demographic characteristics of the cooperating teachers were evaluated according to teaching experience (years), number of prior student teachers, subject/grade level and gender (see Appendix A). Additional variables considered were the university affiliation and first or second teaching experience of the student teacher. The cooperating teachers were blocked into matching pairs on the assessed demographic variables, then assigned to the experimental group based upon their participation in the inservice training program or to the control group.

Table 1 shows that the demographic characteristics of the two groups were similar and represented a heterogeneous sample according to grade level, subject area, number of years teaching and number of prior student teachers. All cooperating teachers in both the experimental and control group were female. A t-test comparison of the means revealed no significant difference between the two groups on the number of years teaching experience and number of prior student teachers.

Intervention and Inservice Training

The inservice training program for cooperating teachers occurred on January 11th and 12th 1991. The two-day sessions consisted of 13 hours of lecture, discussion, video presentation, and practical activities. The inservice model was divided into four phases which emphasized orientation, communication, knowledge, and supervision. A model of the inservice program is depicted in Figure 1. A copy of the program agenda is included in Appendix B. A two hour follow-up session was held approximately three weeks into the student teaching experience to reinforce aspects of the training program. Cooperating teachers who supervised student teachers during the first experience met on February 8, 1991 and those supervising during the second experience met on April 5, 1991.

The orientation phase of the program provided a general overview of the goals for the inservice and established the importance of the cooperating teacher in the student teaching process. Detailed guidelines, role definitions, legal responsibilities, descriptions of

Table 1

Demographic Data of Cooperating Teachers

Characteristics # per category	Experimental	Control
<u>Student Teaching</u>		
1st Experience	9	9
2nd Experience	12	12
<u>University Affiliation</u>		
ODU	11	11
NSU	10	10
<u>Grade Level</u>		
Kindergarten	7	7
1	2	2
4	2	2
5	2	2
6-8	2	2
9-12	3	3
<u>Subject Area</u>		
Elementary	13	13
Social Studies	2	2
English	2	2
Mathematics	1	1
Art	1	1
Speech	1	1
Guidance	1	1
<u>Years Teaching</u>		
0-4	1	0
5-9	10	10
10-15	6	6
Over 15	4	5
Mean	11.8	12.2
<u>Prior Student Teachers</u>		
0	9	7
1-3	7	9
4-6	3	3
Over 6	2	2
Mean	2.0	2.9

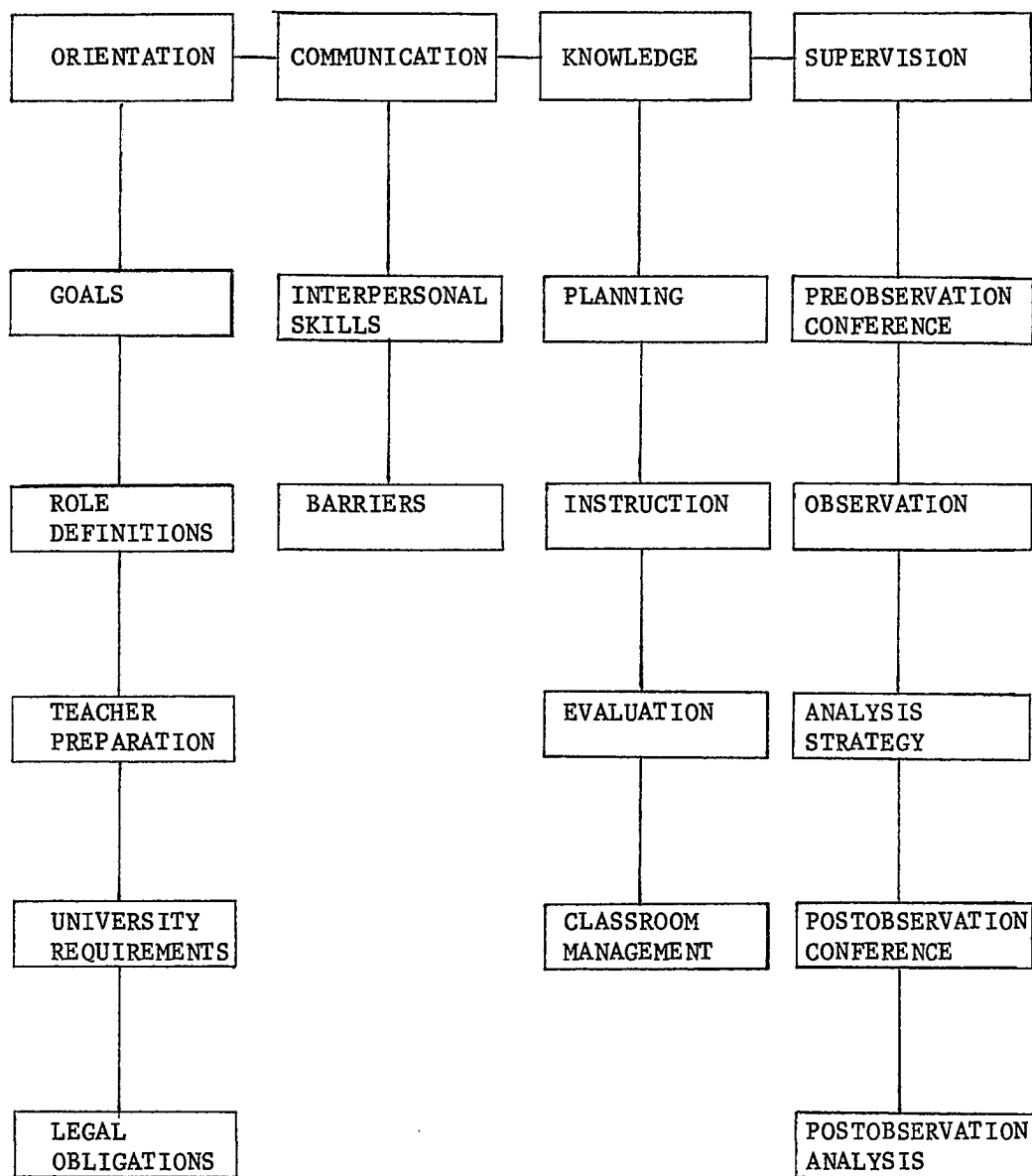


Figure 1. Inservice training program model depicting the phases for developing effective cooperating teachers.

the teacher preparation programs and specific student teaching requirements were outlined by representatives from Old Dominion and Norfolk State University. A Handbook on Student Teaching was presented to each cooperating teacher. The expectations held by student teachers, cooperating teachers, and university supervisors surrounding the role of the cooperating teacher were discussed by a panel representing each member of the student teaching triad who also answered questions from the inservice participants.

Effective communication skills were addressed as a key component of the student teaching interactive process. Barriers to effective supervision focused attention on interpersonal communication and collective participation. General procedures such as orienting the student teacher to the school, classroom, students, grading procedures and resources, establishing and maintaining schedules, and participating in decision making and goal setting were advanced as specific strategies and techniques toward building a positive mentoring relationship.

The knowledge phase of the inservice included research findings on effective teaching strategies and the significance of demonstration and modeling of teaching skills by the cooperating teacher. Also addressed as a vital aspect of the student teaching experience was the cooperating teachers' abilities to reflect on their own practices. In addition, a packet of written materials containing numerous examples of lesson planning, instructional presentation, and classroom management was presented to each cooperating teacher to serve as a practical resource and reference to share with the student teacher (see Appendix C for a complete list of the inservice handouts).

The emphasis of the inservice program was on the supervisory process incorporating methods of "Clinical Supervision" to provide cooperating teachers with skills for intensive assistance in the analysis of instruction and evaluation of performance. The clinical supervision model was introduced as a series of conferences which serve as a framework for supervisory interaction between the cooperating teacher and student teacher. Utilization of this sequence emphasized a systematic approach to supervision with the focus on problem solving and providing the student teacher with an opportunity to change or modify his/her teaching through assistance and coaching from the cooperating teacher. Specific techniques and procedures on how to conduct a preobservation conference, an observation including collection of specific data, analysis of that data, and a postobservation conference were outlined (see Appendix D for a list of supervision worksheets). A videotape entitled "The Supervisory Process" was viewed by the cooperating teachers as an example of the clinical supervision cycle utilized in the classroom environment. The culminating activity required the cooperating teachers to role play the various steps of the supervision process. Pairs representing a cooperating teacher and student teacher conducted a preobservation conference, collected data from a videotaped teaching episode to simulate the student teacher's lesson, analyzed the data, and held a postobservation conference.

The cooperating teachers were given the opportunity to ask questions and make comments during each phase of the 13 hour training program. Consultation services were made available in the event the

cooperating teacher had any concerns or questions during the supervision of a student teacher.

As discussed previously, a two hour follow-up session was held approximately three weeks into the seven week student teaching experience. Basic components of the inservice model were reviewed and additional reference materials were distributed and discussed. The cooperating teachers were encouraged to share experiences, make comments on any aspect of the training or resource materials, and/or ask questions regarding any problems they were experiencing in their role as student teacher supervisors.

Instrumentation

Four instruments were utilized to gather data for the study. Three were questionnaires developed for the investigation based upon research from prior workshop presentations (Drummond, 1980; O'Neal, 1983a; Twa, 1984).

The primary instrument employed was the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" (see Appendix E). The instrument, also known as the "Supervising Teacher Effectiveness Scale" contained two parts (Morris, Tooke, Seaman, & Barber, 1982). Part I, items 1-23, was designed to assess the cooperating teacher as a model teacher. Part II, containing items 24-68, assessed the cooperating teacher as a supervising teacher. The profile, according to Morris et al. was designed "to monitor the effects of training of supervising (cooperating) teachers, to diagnose training needs and to provide

feedback to supervising (cooperating) teachers" (p. 43). The instrument which incorporates the supervisory skills, knowledge, and attitudes believed to be important in a clinical supervision model has reliability estimates ranging from .92 to .98 (Morris et al., 1982).

The first of the questionnaires, "Cooperating Teacher Survey," contained 20 Likert type items designed to measure the cooperating teachers' perceptions, feelings, and behaviors as a supervisor of student teachers. Prior to distribution it was evaluated with regard to face validity by the Director of Student Teaching and two university supervisors of student teachers (see Appendix F).

The "Program Evaluation" was constructed to assess the cooperating teacher's immediate reaction to the inservice training program. The questionnaire consisted of 12 Likert type attitude items based upon the goals, concepts, and delivery of the inservice program. Four open ended questions were included to determine the participants' likes and dislikes regarding the inservice sessions (see Appendix G).

The "Follow-Up Session" questionnaire was designed to measure the delayed reaction to the inservice once the cooperating teachers had been in their supervisory role for approximately three weeks. The questionnaire contained four Likert Type items designed to assess their attitudes regarding supervision before and after the inservice training. Three open ended items specific to the concepts from the inservice and clinical supervision model were also included for discussion (see Appendix H).

Data Collection

At the conclusion of each of the seven week student teaching experiences, the student teachers from both the experimental and control group were administered the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" during a large group student teaching seminar at each university. The university supervisors from both the experimental and control groups were sent only Part II of the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" with a letter and stamped, self-addressed envelope requesting completion of the instrument. Cooperating teachers from both the experimental and control groups were sent the "Cooperating Teacher Survey" questionnaire for completion at the end of the seven week student teaching experience. University supervisors and cooperating teachers who did not respond to the initial requests were sent follow-up letters.

At the end of the two day inservice training program, the cooperating teachers were requested to complete the "Program Evaluation" questionnaire. During the follow-up session each participant was administered the "Follow-up Session" questionnaire to assess the cooperating teacher's perceptions regarding supervision and the usefulness of the inservice program at that time.

The weekly progress reports from the "intensive group" of student teachers were collected from the university supervisors at the end of each experience.

Data Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using the Number Cruncher Statistical System (4.21/1986). The data derived from the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" for both the student teachers and the university supervisors was analyzed using a t-test for related measures comparison of the mean scores to determine if a significant difference exists in cooperating teacher's supervisory effectiveness between the experimental group receiving the inservice training and the control group. To establish confidence in the findings, triangulation of the results was accomplished through a statistical comparison of the student teachers' evaluations and the university supervisors' evaluations on Part II of the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile" using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The "Cooperating Teacher Survey" was also analyzed using the t-test for related measures to determine if there was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group's perceptions, feelings, and behavior as supervisors.

Qualitative research methodology employed document and questionnaire analysis. Methods associated with this interpretive field research technique were used to analyze the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Pelto & Pelto, 1978; Stainbach & Stainbach, 1988). The weekly progress reports contained guideline questions that focused on what was happening in the classroom and the interactions between the cooperating teachers and student teachers. Data analysis consisted of examining the weekly progress reports using Glaser and Strauss' constant comparative

method. A content analysis of the questions included in the reports was performed to code the answers into conceptual categories from the emerging themes (Bolin, 1988; Goodman, 1988; Rust, 1988; Stainbach & Stainbach, 1988; Zahorik, 1988). Categories indicative of supervision were evaluated to determine whether the behaviors of the cooperating teachers receiving the inservice preparation were perceived as more effective than their counterparts who did not receive training. Additional analysis determined if there was a perceived difference between the two groups in the student teacher's evaluation of their student teaching experience.

Verbal feedback obtained from the cooperating teachers at the conclusion of the inservice and during the follow-up session and information from the evaluation questionnaires were analyzed and categorized to determine immediate and delayed reactions of the program participants to the inservice program. Analysis of the questionnaire items was performed to establish specific strengths and weaknesses of the training, program, procedures and materials.

This chapter has outlined the research methodology employed to determine the effects of an inservice training program for cooperating teachers. The research design, sampling procedure, inservice training program, instrumentation, data collection, and procedures for statistical analysis were discussed. Data collection and analysis procedures are summarized in Table 2. The results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis will be discussed in Chapter four.

Table 2

Data Collection and Analysis

Hypothesis/ Questions	Sample	Instrument	Analysis
1,2	Student Teachers	Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile	t-test
3	University Supervisors	Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile	t-test
4	Student Teachers/ University Supervisors	Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile	Pearson r
5	Cooperating Teachers	Cooperating Teacher Survey	t-test
1	Student Teachers	Weekly Progress Reports	Content
2	Cooperating Teachers	Program Evaluation	Content
3	Cooperating Teachers	Follow-up Session	Content

CHAPTER 4

Analysis of the Data

To research the hypotheses and answer the related research questions quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized to evaluate the training effects of the inservice program for cooperating teachers. The results are discussed in two sections. First, the statistical data analysis specific to each hypothesis is presented. The second section contains the content analysis of the student teachers' weekly progress reports and the cooperating teachers' evaluation of the inservice program.

Quantitative Methodology

To address Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, correlated t-tests were employed to compare mean score evaluations from the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile. Hypothesis (1) stated: In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by student teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile." The student teachers rated the feedback and supervision provided by the experimental (trained) cooperating teachers as more positive and helpful than the evaluations of the control cooperating teachers. The t-test comparison was significant at $p < .01$ level and resulted in rejection of the null hypothesis (see Table 3).

Table 3

Student Teacher Evaluations of the Experimental vs. Control Cooperating Teachers as Supervisors on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile

Group (N=21)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value
Experimental	197.05	22.62	9.23	2.76*
Control	171.62	37.63		

* Significant at .01 level for a two-tailed test; df 20

Hypothesis (2) stated: In the evaluation of cooperating teachers as model teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by the student teachers using the "Cooperative Teacher Performance Profile." Student teacher evaluations of the cooperating teachers as model teachers found that the experimental group of trained cooperating teachers demonstrated more effective teaching behaviors than the control group with significance established at the $p < .01$ level. The null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 4).

Results of the university supervisors' evaluation of the cooperating teachers' supervisory skills are shown in Table 5. Hypothesis (3) read: In the supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by the university supervisors using

the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile." The mean difference between the two groups of 17.17 in favor of the experimental group of trained cooperating teachers was not significant at the $p < .05$ level. Hypothesis (3) was not rejected (see Table 5).

Table 4

Student Teacher Evaluation of the Experimental vs. Control Cooperating Teachers as Model Teachers on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile

Group (N=21)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value
Experimental	104.10	13.46	4.06	2.84*
Control	92.57	19.36		

* Significant at .01 level for a two-tailed test; df 20

Table 5

University Supervisor Evaluations of the Experimental vs. Control Cooperating Teachers as Supervisors on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile

Group (N=12)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value
Experimental	200.42	23.05	9.22	1.86*
Control	183.25	29.04		

*t value of 2.201 required at .05 level for a two-tailed test; df 11

Confidence in the evaluations of the cooperating teachers' supervision was established through a statistical comparison of the

student teachers' and university supervisors' ratings on Part II of the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile. Hypothesis (4) stated: No significant relationship exists between the student teachers' evaluations and the university supervisors' evaluations of the cooperating teachers using the "Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile." The Pearson r results for Hypothesis (4) show significant relationships for the experimental group evaluations ($r = .69, p < .01$) and the control group evaluations ($r = .63, p < .02$). The null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 6).

Table 6

Relationship Between the Student Teacher and University Supervisor Evaluations on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile

Group (N=12)	Mean Score		r Value
	Student Teacher	University Supervisor	
Experimental	195.92	200.42	.69*
Control	173.5	183.25	.64**

* Significant at the .01 level

**Significant at the .02 level

The cooperating teachers' perceptions regarding their supervision was evaluated using the Cooperating Teacher Survey. Hypothesis (5) read: In the perceptions of cooperating teachers regarding their supervision of student teachers, no significant difference exists between cooperating teachers who experience a formal inservice training program and cooperating teachers who receive no training as measured by

a "Cooperating Teacher Survey." A t-test comparison of the means revealed no significant difference between the experimental cooperating teachers' ratings and the control group ratings. Therefore, Hypothesis (5) was not rejected (see Table 7).

Table 7

Ratings of the Experimental vs. Control Cooperating Teachers on the Cooperating Teacher Survey

Group (N=21)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value
Experimental	81.90	7.33	2.04	1.42*
Control	79.00	7.41		

*t value of 2.086 required at .05 level for a two-tailed test;
df 20

Qualitative Methodology

Qualitative methodologies were employed to analyze the weekly progress reports submitted by a sample of student teachers and the evaluation of the inservice program completed by the cooperating teachers. Content analysis was completed on three sources of data including the weekly progress reports, program evaluation, and follow-up session survey. Consistencies in the data, recurring themes in the written responses, and specific comments were coded and grouped together into conceptual categories and patterns for interpretation. Each of the three sources of data is discussed separately.

Weekly Progress Reports

The weekly progress reports from the intensive sample of 22 student teachers contained guideline questions that focused on the classroom teaching activities of the student teacher, recommendations for future instruction, and the interactions between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher. Categories indicative of supervision were evaluated to determine if the behaviors of the cooperating teachers receiving the inservice preparation were perceived as more effective than the cooperating teachers who did not receive training. Eleven student teachers representing the experimental group submitted a total of 35 weekly progress reports. Eleven student teachers from the control group submitted 40 reports reflective of the nontrained cooperating teachers.

The results of the content analysis are displayed in Table 8. Percentages per number of weekly progress reports were entered in each category due to the unequal number submitted. The overall pattern which emerged from the analysis was similar for both groups, but the relative percentages reflect areas indicative of the supervision provided by the trained cooperating teachers. Both groups mention topics such as routine procedures, timing of instruction, content of the lesson, evaluation of instruction, and need for flexibility with relatively the same frequency. The comments from the student teachers whose cooperating teachers were trained, however, contained a higher percentage of specific notations regarding concerns and recommendations in the categories of instructional presentation, clarity of directions,

questioning strategies, and classroom management reflective of effective teaching strategies as outlined during the inservice training program.

Table 8

Content Analysis of Student Teacher Weekly Progress Reports

Category	Experimental (N=35)	Control (N=40)
Conference held at least weekly	72%*	70%*
Routine Procedures	17%	15%
Instructional Presentation	11%	5%
Clarity of Directions	17%	8%
Timing of Instruction	23%	20%
Content of the Lesson	37%	38%
Questioning Strategies	20%	5%
Evaluation of Instruction	6%	3%
Classroom Management Skills	31%	15%
Flexibility	9%	10%

* Percentage of comments per number of weekly progress reports

In addition to the percentage information, analysis of the comments from the student teachers' weekly progress reports provided examples of the students' perceptions throughout the student teaching experience. The following quotes were coded to prevent identification of the subjects participating in the study. Three digit numbers beginning with zero represent the experimental group and numbers beginning with one were in the control group. The number following the semicolon indicated the number of the report submitted by the student teacher.

The percentage of comments addressing whether conferences were held at least weekly were the same for both groups. The student teachers' impressions regarding the effectiveness of the conferences differed.

Examples from the experimental group indicative of a positive experience are presented in the following excerpts:

My teacher and I continually talk about my lessons and she always evaluates me at the end of the week. (012;3)

Everyday we review good aspects and the ones that need work. (005;2)

After each lesson she gave me advice on how to improve in either my presentation or how I taught. Mainly she said to break down everything into simple steps, . . .make sure each one has accomplished the first step before going on to the next. (002;3)

We discussed the fact that I had improved in the area of instruction but needed improvement in classroom management. (010;6)

Very few specific written comments regarding conferencing with the cooperating teacher were noted in the control group reports. The comments made reflected negative experiences. The following exemplified the feelings of the student teachers:

We talk, but she doesn't really give me much feedback. She tells me I am doing fine. (I hope my evaluation isn't a surprise!) (104;3)

He sure wasn't positive in his attitude about my teaching. Frankly, I'm just starting out. I haven't been doing this for 25 years. (114;2)

In response to the question, "Did you have a conference with your cooperating teacher?" one student simply answered, "Not really." These

comments and subsequent examples from the control group in describing effective supervision tell what it is not.

Another example from the writings of the control group reflects ineffective supervision resulting from a lack of communication within the dyad. The student wrote:

The teacher had given me the impression that I would be teaching the concept to the small group. In actuality, I worked with them on a practice activity. The materials available were not appropriate for the activity I was asked to do. The lesson would have been great if there was some kind of communication between the cooperating teacher and myself. I had prepared a well thought out activity. (104;2)

Several other indications that the cooperating teachers utilized the strategies provided during the inservice emerged from the written comments of the student teachers representing the experimental group. The following responses were examples:

We have previously discussed what we need to cover to meet the objectives and know our long range goals. Resource personnel will cover the classroom in order for us to collect materials and discuss unit plans. (019;2)

The cooperating teacher will observe the frequency of which a question is asked as well as whom was asked (frequency too) making sure each student has the opportunity to respond. (008;1)

. . .work on questioning strategies to develop higher level of thinking. . .ask something that does not have an ordinary

answer. (016;2)

Three additional comments reflecting procedures outlined during the inservice program appeared in the reports from the experimental group but were not recorded in the control group writings. The significance of demonstration and modeling of teaching skills by the cooperating teacher was demonstrated in the following comment: "From my cooperating teacher, I learned how to establish a rapport with the students, how to show them they are supported within the classroom and that we care."

(005;1)

The strategies of orienting the student teacher, providing resource materials and participating together in decision making and setting goals were also outlined as steps to effective supervision and building a positive mentoring relationship. These steps emerged from the following writings:

This weeks activities were centered around orientation. I was introduced to the faculty, briefed on school procedures, and general teaching responsibilities. I reviewed the curriculums and textbooks, assisted the cooperating teacher by making two diagnostic tests, answer keys, and scoring final exams. (008;1)

My cooperating teacher has been fantastic. While some student teachers have a class here, a class there, she is setting me up to simulate the whole process from Bell 1 to 7. I agree with her decision. (005;1)

Most noticeable in the written comments of the control group was a concern with routine procedures and lack of specific recommendations or

suggestions for improvements. The following comments were representative of this pattern:

Everything is fine. (111;4)

No recommendations. . .continue the excellent job! (119;1)

. . .continue to monitor students and give individual help when needed. . .submit lesson plans two days in advance. (106,1)

I will continue to plan and teach lessons all week, as well as develop and administer a social studies test. (116;2)

To summarize, the weekly progress reports served as a resource for analysis of the student teachers' perceptions and experiences regarding the supervision provided by the cooperating teachers. Analysis of the categories and patterns emerging from the written comments supported a difference between the supervision provided by the cooperating teachers receiving the inservice preparation and that of the cooperating teachers who did not receive training. Further in-depth analysis of the written responses suggested that the student teachers' overall perceptions of the student teaching experience were more positive for the experimental group and reflected aspects of the inservice training program.

Inservice Program Evaluation

The immediate response of the cooperating teachers to the two-day inservice was assessed at the conclusion of the training program. The participants' responses to the Program Evaluation questionnaire are displayed in Table 9. There were 12 Likert type items, two items of the yes/no format, and three questions requesting written comments.

Table 9

Cooperating Teacher Responses to the Program Evaluation Questionnaire

Statement	Response (N=27)				
	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	
1. The topic of this inservice program was relevant to my needs and interests.	19	5	2	1	0
2. ODU/NSU and Norfolk City Schools should continue to hold similar programs for cooperating teachers.	22	3	2	0	0
3. The goals I set forth for the program were met.	14	6	5	2	0
4. I would like to attend additional sessions on communication skills.	4	9	9	3	2
5. I felt that I gained information which will help me supervise student teachers.	21	3	2	1	0
6. The topics did not meet my expectations of what should have been covered.	1	1	1	7	17
7. I would like to have more training in understanding teaching/learning behaviors.	3	7	9	5	3
8. I gained a better understanding of observation/supervision skills than I had before the inservice program.	21	3	1	1	1
9. Too many topics were covered in the time allotted.	1	1	7	7	11
10. The activities were appropriate for the topics presented.	10	12	3	2	0
11. The handouts will be valuable and helpful.	24	1	2	0	0
12. The overall length of the inservice program was adequate.	10	7	5	2	3

Six items addressed the content of the inservice program.

Twenty-four of the 27 participants found the overall topics relevant to their needs and interests. Two of the group, however, found that the topics did not meet their expectations of what should have been covered. Eighteen of the participants responded that too many topics were covered in the time allotted.

Three items assessed specific topics of the inservice model.

Forty-eight percent of the cooperating teachers responded that they would like more information on communication skills and 37 percent more training in understanding teaching/learning behaviors. Eighty-nine percent of the participants responded that as a result of the training they had gained a better understanding of the observational/supervision process.

Evaluation of the activities, materials, and procedures also were addressed. Eighty-two percent of the cooperating teachers felt the activities were appropriate for the topics presented. Ninety-three percent of the group believed that the packet of handouts and the supervision worksheets would be useful during the supervision process. Seventeen out of the 27 cooperating teachers found the overall length of the inservice program adequate.

Eighty-nine percent of the program participants felt that they had gained information which would help them as cooperating teachers to be more effective supervisors. Eight teachers requested further training in the clinical supervision model. Thirteen wanted inservice workshops for cooperating teachers on other topics such as conferencing behaviors, classroom management strategies, and modeling. Twenty-five out of the

27 participants (93%) favored continuing similar programs for cooperating teachers. The two remaining respondents were neutral.

Two of the items requesting written comments asked the participants what they liked best and least about the inservice. What the cooperating teachers liked **best** about the program included:

1. The presentation of specific observation/supervision techniques, strategies, and data forms and other information pertinent to communication and role expectations.
2. The packet of handouts and explanations regarding their implementation.
3. The video on clinical supervision.
4. The teacher video(s) and follow-up supervision role playing activity.
5. The input from a previous student teacher and cooperating teachers.
6. The location and atmosphere of the program.
7. The scheduled follow-up session.

What the cooperating teachers liked **least** regarding the inservice training included:

1. The length of the sessions.
2. The Friday/Saturday two-day schedule in combination.
3. The repetition of some information and handouts experienced by cooperating teachers who had served in this capacity previously.

Inservice Follow-up Evaluation

The cooperating teachers' reactions to the inservice while supervising student teachers are reported in Table 10. There were four Likert type items and three questions requesting written comments.

Eleven of the 26 participants in the follow-up session indicated that prior to the inservice they were reluctant to neutral about supervising student teachers. Following the training all 26 approached the eager response toward becoming a cooperating teacher. Prior to training 19 participants believed their supervisory skills were adequate. At the time of the follow-up session, 24 of the participants believed their skills had improved and all 26 were more confident of fulfilling the role expectations. Sixteen of the 26 cooperating teachers had found it practical to implement the clinical supervision cycle during the first three weeks of student teaching supervision. Four additional participants said they had applied it informally.

In response to the written questions, the cooperating teachers reported that the following concepts and information provided during the inservice training had helped improve their effectiveness as a supervisor of student teachers:

1. Clarification of role expectations for both the cooperating and student teacher.
2. Importance of communication/trust and how to establish it.
3. The clinical supervision cycle observation/evaluation techniques and data forms and conference strategies.
4. Identification of specific behaviors to observe and evaluate.

5. The importance of modeling appropriate teaching/classroom management behaviors.

6. The numerous handouts to be shared with the student teacher.

Table 10

Cooperating Teacher Responses to the Follow-up Session Survey

Statement	Response (N=26)				
1. How did you feel about supervising student teachers before you participated in the inservice program?	reluctant	neutral	eager		
	3	4	4	5	10
2. How did you feel after the inservice?	reluctant	neutral	eager		
	0	0	0	9	17
3. Before you participated in the inservice program how would you have described your supervisory skills?	poor	adequate	excellent		
	0	2	17	5	2
4. At this time how would you describe your supervisory skills?	poor	adequate	excellent		
	0	0	2	18	6

Additional verbal input during the follow-up session included:

1. A modified inservice (approximately 3-5 hours) should be offered as an option to those teachers who had applied to be cooperating teachers previously. Two sections should be made available; one as a refresher course and one for first time cooperating teachers.

2. Omit Friday sessions and use one or two Saturdays or a teacher inservice day.

3. Provide cooperating teachers with student teaching handbooks from the appropriate university, and the name, address, and phone number of the student teacher **ahead** of the first day of student teaching.

4. Notify cooperating teachers of a cancelled placement as soon as possible.

5. Provide consultants (content area instructional specialists, university supervisors) if additional support is necessary.

Overall, there was strong agreement that similar programs should be offered for all future cooperating teachers. One participant commented, "I have already suggested to my principal that all cooperating teachers should be required to complete this type of training prior to having a student teacher."

In summary, the data collected from the student teachers, university supervisors, and cooperating teachers employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to evaluate the effects of inservice training designed to provide cooperating teachers with supervision skills. The results obtained from the data collection instruments, weekly progress reports and program evaluations corroborated the findings through the method of triangulation of multiple data sources.

Differences in the supervision provided by the experimental and control cooperating teachers were substantiated through quantitative and qualitative analysis. The student teachers perceived a positive difference in the supervision and modeled behaviors provided by the

experimental cooperating teachers who had experienced the inservice training program. Despite a relationship established between the student teachers' and university supervisors' evaluations of the cooperating teachers, there was no significant difference in the university supervisors' evaluations of the cooperating teachers. The quantitative evaluations of the cooperating teachers' perceptions regarding their supervision of student teachers was not significant. The qualitative evaluations, however, demonstrated an increased confidence regarding the supervisory role and willingness to serve as a cooperating teacher as a result of the inservice program.

In this chapter the analyses of both the quantitative and qualitative data were presented. The results indicated there are differences in the supervision of student teachers between cooperating teachers who receive training and the nontrained cooperating teachers. The specifics of these differences, implications, and recommendations will be discussed in Chapter five.

CHAPTER 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Student teaching is characterized as the most important phase in the professional preparation of teachers. Research documents the profound influence cooperating teachers have over the learning and experiences of student teachers. It is the cooperating teacher who plays the dominant role in the supervisory process and determines to a large degree the kind of teacher the student will become. Despite the recommendation for special training of cooperating teachers that began in the 1960's, formal preparation programs have been sporadic and research investigation of their effectiveness limited. Few recent studies have focused on the comprehensive preparation of cooperating teachers for their role in the supervision of student teachers.

The primary purpose of this research was to investigate the effects of an inservice training program for cooperating teachers on the supervision of student teachers. In order to address the specific research hypotheses and related questions developed for this study three phases were undertaken. First, the model for the inservice training program was developed based upon an extensive comparison of studies that suggested a recurring emphasis of the roles, responsibilities, and tasks expected of the cooperating teacher and the use of the clinical supervision model as a framework for executing those expectations during the supervision of student teachers. Second, the successful practices that contribute to staff development were identified after a variety of

methods and approaches were reviewed and the implementation phase of the inservice model was planned and presented. Third, in order to address the effects of the inservice, a comprehensive evaluation program was designed and executed using quantitative as well as qualitative techniques that employed a variety of data sources and collection procedures.

First this chapter will examine the effects of the inservice training program based on the data analysis presented in Chapter four. The remainder of the chapter will address implications and recommendations for future research and implementation.

Discussion of Results

The overall findings of this investigation indicated that the training of cooperating teachers did have a positive influence upon the student teaching experience. The effects were quantified both in statistically significant differences between the two groups and in the qualitative information collected about the training program and its impact on the supervisory process. Each of the hypotheses investigated will be discussed individually.

Hypothesis 1 addressed the issue of the cooperating teacher's supervision as evaluated by the student teachers. The results support and extend the findings of previous studies (Berg et al., 1986; Reavis, 1977; Thorlacijs, 1980; Whitehead, 1984). Student teachers whose cooperating teachers were trained rated the supervision feedback as positive and helpful. The data analysis was significant both

statistically, as measured on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile, and qualitatively as indicated in the weekly progress reports. More specifically, the content of the student teacher's writing described more positive communication and supportive interactions with the trained cooperating teachers. Additionally, the comments reflected more useful feedback including specific recommendations and suggestions for improvements. The lack of evaluative comments and focus on routine issues noted in the control group's weekly progress reports supports the findings described in previous research (Killian & McIntyre, 1985; Lipke, 1979; Mills, 1980; O'Neal, 1983b). Although the quantity of conferences was not significantly different between the two groups, the quality of the feedback was important. It seems that the cooperating teachers who were trained in providing critical feedback did utilize the strategy during conferences significantly more than the untrained cooperating teachers, a major focus of the inservice training.

A more detailed analysis of the student teachers' weekly progress reports revealed a higher percentage of comments indicative of effective teaching strategies in the experimental group. This investigation as well as earlier studies (Castillo, 1971; Copas, 1984; Grimmitt & Ratzlaff, 1986) found that the trained cooperating teachers oriented the student teachers, provided resources and helped the student teachers develop skills in planning and instruction with an emphasis on presentation, questioning strategies, and the development of classroom management skills. Other categories that did not reflect differences between the experimental and control cooperating teachers were not major objectives of the inservice program. This would seem to suggest a

relationship between the training components and the results of the study.

From a review of earlier studies (Balch & Balch, 1987; Copas, 1984; Koehler, 1986; Kuehl, 1976) it was concluded that there is a need for the cooperating teacher to be an exemplary model of a "good" teacher. This was corroborated in the findings reported for Hypothesis 2 which evaluated the cooperating teacher as a model teacher. When the experimental and control group cooperating teachers were evaluated by the student teachers on the Cooperating Teacher Performance Profile with regard to their modeling effective teaching practices, the difference between the two groups was statistically significant in favor of the cooperating teachers who participated in the inservice. Additionally, the written comments of the student teachers confirmed the statistical findings and supported the expectation that the cooperating teachers should model the behaviors the student teachers are attempting to learn and practice.

Hypothesis 3 established that the university supervisors' evaluation of the cooperating teacher as a supervisor was not statistically significant. The results must be interpreted cautiously, however, due to the number of supervisors who submitted evaluations. The small sample increases the chance for sampling error and limits the probability of demonstrating a difference between the two groups. Although the differences were not statistically significant, they were in the anticipated direction. The university supervisors' mean score evaluation of the experimental cooperating teachers was higher than that of the control group.

A statistically significant relationship between the student teachers' and university supervisors' evaluations of cooperating teachers was demonstrated for both the experimental and control group. The results of Hypothesis 4 established confidence in the evaluations despite the difference in the findings regarding the cooperating teachers' supervision found in Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3.

The results for Hypothesis 5 did not show a statistical difference between the experimental and control cooperating teachers' perceptions regarding their supervision of student teachers but this finding also must be interpreted with caution. The experimental cooperating teachers chose to participate in the training for professional growth and improvement of their skills. It is possible that the control group by not choosing to register for the inservice were already more confident of their ability as cooperating teachers and in the techniques of supervision.

The cooperating teachers' evaluation of the inservice program, however, confirmed that it was successful in providing specific training relevant to their needs and interests as supervisors. The immediate reaction of the participants was positive with 89% responding that they had gained a better understanding of the supervision process which would assist them as cooperating teachers to be more effective in observing and evaluating student teachers. Longer-term effects, assessed during the supervision experience, found the cooperating teachers believed their skills had improved as a result of the inservice training with 100% confident of performing the role expectations. This study and earlier cited studies (Drummond, 1980; Twa, 1984) suggest that inservice

training results in cooperating teachers who are more eager to accept student teachers, who are more comfortable in the role, and who are more confident of fulfilling the expectations as a supervisor of student teachers.

Limitations and Implications

Positive effects of the inservice training program were reflected in the student teachers' evaluation of the cooperating teacher as a supervisor and model teacher and in their written comments regarding the student teaching weekly experiences. The university supervisors' evaluation did not substantiate more effective supervision for the trained cooperating teachers but did correspond to the evaluations of the student teachers. The cooperating teachers' views regarding supervision did not establish a difference between the experimental and control group. The cooperating teachers who participated in the inservice did evaluate the training as beneficial and believed that their supervisory skills had improved as a result of the inservice training.

Despite the fact that the results of this investigation are somewhat consistent across multiple measures and similar to the findings of other researchers, caution should be exercised in evaluating the findings due to limitations in the design of the study. The conditions of the investigation necessitated the use of a quasi-experimental design since random assignment of the subjects was not feasible. Therefore, possible alternative hypotheses may be operative when attempting to

attribute the differences between the groups to the effects of the training received by the program participants.

While most of the threats to the internal and external validity of the study were controlled with the posttest only control group design, compromises did exist that must be addressed. One possible threat to the internal validity of the research is differential selection despite matching of the subjects on several relevant variables. The experimental group volunteered for the inservice program. As discussed previously, it is possible that the cooperating teachers who chose to participate in the training possessed different traits from those in the control group such as motivation, confidence, or anxiety. The results of self-selection could have been positive or negative but no data is available to determine the effects on this study. The first concern with selection also compromised the external validity or generalization of the results due to the possible interaction effects of selection and the inservice training treatment. Future research should control for the selection factor, if conditions permit, such as random assignment of cooperating teachers or by using volunteers for both groups. Another consideration would be to investigate whether cooperating teachers who elect to participate in staff development training are different from those who do not.

A second concern regarding external validity is the possibility of experimental bias. This researcher developed and implemented the inservice training program and analyzed the data which must be considered a limitation on the generalization of the findings. Additional studies that utilize an impartial researcher to implement the

training program should be conducted to evaluate the effects of the inservice model.

A third consideration limiting the interpretation of the results is mortality and the small sample size. This consideration is especially critical regarding Hypothesis 3 discussed previously. Future research should attempt to increase the sample size and provide additional procedures to insure cooperation of all members of the student teaching triad.

Another consideration is the qualitative data utilized in the study. While the data permitted content analysis it was somewhat restricted by the "closed" nature of the responses to the questions on the weekly progress reports. Analysis of more "open" responses such as those submitted in journal entries should be considered as well as interviews and/or observations of supervision conferences. Additional data sources of a different quality would allow the researcher to obtain a better understanding of the cooperating teacher's supervision and the effects of training on the process. This type of data would provide the researcher with a better opportunity to evaluate whether what is learned during training is applied during student teaching supervision.

No attempt was made in this study to insure that the trained cooperating teachers understood or employed the specific processes inherent in the clinical supervision model. Studies need to be conducted that monitor the implementation of the training procedures. In addition, the literature suggests that cooperating teachers have different supervisory styles (Balch & Balch, 1987) and all student teachers can not be supervised the same way (Bitner, 1983; Cohn &

Gellman, 1988; Gitlin, Ogawa, & Rose, 1984). In an effort to provide for the different needs and developmental levels of the student teachers, the inservice program should be refined and extended to include alternative strategies and models of supervision.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this study support and extend the findings of previous research while raising important considerations regarding student teaching supervision. As early as 1970 Dussault acknowledged the importance of the cooperating teacher as a supervisor: "Teachers of tomorrow are significantly influenced today both by their general observations of professionals around them and by the specific guidance they receive from designated persons who assume responsibility for their induction into the profession" (p. vii). More recent investigation (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986) has indicated a heightened awareness surrounding the role played by the cooperating teacher. With the increased demand for extended field experiences and the focus on how better to train student teachers and evaluate their performance during the final aspect of the teacher education program more "good" cooperating teachers will be required.

The research outlined in the review of literature indicated that cooperating teachers have the potential to enhance the effectiveness of teacher education, but finding and retaining qualified cooperating teachers has been an ongoing problem for university and college student teaching programs. Educators interested in the task of providing our

schools with competent student teachers must invest more in learning about how to prepare cooperating teachers to be effective supervisors.

Efforts should focus on the construction of supervision models and materials, the refinement and evaluation of the models, and the development of inservice training programs or college courses to strengthen the skills of the cooperating teacher. The research of Koehler (1986) for example, established that the transfer of skills and knowledge from the college experience to student teaching is possible if the cooperating teacher is aware of the target skills learned in the teacher education program and/or naturally employs those skills in the classroom. Continued research is necessary in order to have an ultimate effect on the preparation of cooperating teachers.

Further investigation with large numbers of trained cooperating teachers would improve the reliability and generalization of the data collected about the influence of the cooperating teacher on the student teaching experience. Specific studies employing trained and nontrained cooperating teachers in areas such as the quality of the interaction or what and how feedback is provided would add valuable information to the student teaching field.

The results of the present study suggest staff development inservice training can enhance the quality of the supervision provided by the cooperating teacher. The participants in this investigation perceived a need for such training and support the inservice model as a means of providing continued program implementation. This data supports the need to focus training efforts in the areas of orientation, communication, and knowledge of teaching and supervision strategies with

an emphasis on the concepts of the clinical supervision cycle: observation, evaluation, and effective feedback conferencing. A secondary issue is the need for continued research and development in the areas of incentive options, university collaboration, inservice program presentation, and how best to provide staff development.

Future inservice programs should consider alternative scheduling options. The participants' evaluations indicated that the Friday/Saturday schedule was too long yet not sufficient to cover all the topic areas addressed in the training model. Another suggestion was the need to provide two separate programs; one for new cooperating teachers and a modified inservice model for teachers that have previously served as cooperating teachers. A sequence of training workshops or program options that the participants could select to attend based upon their individual needs and developmental skills as cooperating teachers should be investigated.

In conclusion, the data summarized in this study reflects the positive effects of an inservice training program designed to prepare cooperating teachers for the supervision of student teachers. The inservice was successful in providing the cooperating teachers with a set of expectations for the role, strategies to utilize during the observation and evaluation process, and confidence in the ability to be effective supervisors. It appears that the influence of training was evident not only for the cooperating teachers but for the student teachers as well. The student teachers viewed the trained cooperating teachers as more effective supervisors and as more competent model teachers.

Although the effects of preparing cooperating teachers for their role appears to have a positive influence on the student teaching experience, further research is necessary before recommending that inservice training become a prerequisite for all cooperating teachers who supervise student teachers. Once expert consensus establishes the validity for such training perhaps teacher certification standards will respond to the need for cooperating teacher preparation.

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Appendix A

Participant Demographic Information

Number of years in teaching? _____

Number of Student Teachers Supervised? _____

Highest degree held? _____

Are you currently enrolled in a degree program? _____

If yes, type of program? _____

Have you had previous course work in supervision? _____

Grade level presently teaching? _____

If middle or high school, what is your area of
concentration? _____

Please indicate:

Male _____ Female _____

You will have a student teacher during the:

First experience _____ Second experience _____ Both _____

The student teacher will be supervised by:

ODU _____ NSU _____ OTHER _____

Appendix B

Inservice Agenda

INSERVICE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR COOPERATING TEACHERS ON THE SUPERVISION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

Friday, January 11, 1991
Saturday, January 12, 1991

FRIDAY

4:00 - 4:15	Registration
4:15 - 4:30	Opening Remarks
4:30 - 5:15	Cooperating Teacher Orientation ODU - Dr. Kreamelmeyer NSU - Dr. Winstead
5:15 - 6:00	Panel Discussion/Questions
6:00 - 7:00	DINNER*
7:00 - 7:50	Barriers to Effective Supervision Interpersonal Communication Skills
7:50 - 8:00	BREAK*
8:00 - 8:40	How to ... Be a Super Supervising Teacher
8:40 - 9:00	Overview of Saturday's program

SATURDAY

8:00 - 10:00	Teaching/Learning Behaviors Instructional Process Classroom Management
10:00 - 10:20	BREAK*
10:20 - 11:20	The Clinical Supervision Model
11:20 - 12:00	Video (The Supervisory Process)
12:00 - 1:00	LUNCH*
1:00 - 2:00	Systematic Observation Procedures

2:00 - 2:10	Break*
2:10 - 3:30	Clinical Supervision Activity Video / Role Playing
3:30 - 3:45	Program Evaluation
3:45 - 4:00	Closing Remarks

* Talk with teachers in Free Time about how they do Student Teaching Supervision

Appendix C**Resource Materials Packet**

Situational Leadership: Developing Eagles in the Classroom
Suggested List of Duties for Student Teaching
Some Suggestions for Better Teaching
Planning for Effective Instruction
Strategies to Extend Student Thinking / Questioning for Quality
Thinking
Workshop on Instructional Skills
Lesson Design
Taxonomy of Thinking Levels
Effective Questioning: The Heart of Effective Teaching
Learning Together and Alone
Channeling Instruction
Discipline / General Suggestions for Discipline
Critical Attributes of an Effective Discipline Plan
Maximizing People Strategies
Roadblocks to Communication
Staff Notes (Packet IV)
BTAP and the Six Components of Teaching
Helpful Hints: Excerpted from Supervising Student Teachers / A
Guide for Cooperating Teachers

Appendix D**Supervision Worksheets**

Performance Based Teacher Evaluation: Pre-observation Worksheet

Teaching Practices Which Can be Examined

Documenting the Observation

Lesson Analysis

Post-Observation Conference Form

Supervisor Conference Self-Appraisal Guide

Teacher Observations: Data Collection Forms (Packet II)

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Appendix G

Program Evaluation

DIRECTIONS: Please read the following items and circle the appropriate number to the right of the item.

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree	
1. The topic of this inservice program was relevant to my needs and interests.	A	B	C	D	E
2. ODU/NSU and Norfolk City Schools should continue to hold similar programs for cooperating teachers.	A	B	C	D	E
3. The goals I set forth for the program were met.	A	B	C	D	E
4. I would like to attend additional sessions on communication skills.	A	B	C	D	E
5. I felt that I gained information which will help me supervise student teachers.	A	B	C	D	E
6. The topics did not meet my expectations of what should have been covered.	A	B	C	D	E
7. I would like to have more training in understanding teaching/learning behaviors.	A	B	C	D	E
8. I gained a better understanding of observation/supervision skills than I had before the inservice program.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Too many topics were covered in the time allotted.	A	B	C	D	E
10. The activities were appropriate for the topics presented.	A	B	C	D	E
11. The handouts will be valuable and helpful.	A	B	C	D	E
12. The overall length of the inservice program was adequate.	A	B	C	D	E

Would you like further training in the supervision model presented today? YES _____ NO _____

Would you like to attend workshops for cooperating teachers and supervisors on other topics? YES _____ NO _____

If yes, please list the topics _____

What did you like BEST about the inservice program?

What did you like LEAST about the inservice program?

Appendix H

Follow-Up Session

Directions: Please read the following items and circle the appropriate letter.

1. How did you feel about supervising student teachers before you participated in the inservice program?

reluctant	neutral	eager
A	B	C
		D
		E

2. How did you feel after the inservice?

reluctant	neutral	eager
A	B	C
		D
		E

3. Before you participated in the inservice program how would you have described your supervisory skills?

poor	adequate	excellent
A	B	C
		D
		E

4. At this time how would you describe your supervisory skills?

poor	adequate	excellent
A	B	C
		D
		E

5. What if any concepts from the inservice program have you used in your supervision up to this point?

6. Did the inservice program provide any information which will help you improve your effectiveness as a supervisor of student teachers?

7. Have you found it practical to apply the clinical supervision cycle in these early stages of the student teaching experience?

Autobiographical Statement

Name: Cheryl S. Baker, M. S., Ed.

Date of Birth: March 6, 1947
Sheffield, Massachusetts

Education: Old Dominion University
Norfolk, Virginia
Degree: Master of Science 1970
Major: Education
Minor: Special Education

Old Dominion University
Norfolk, Virginia
Degree: Bachelor of Science 1969
Major: Elementary Education
Minor: Special Education

Appointments and Positions:

Graduate Teaching Assistant, Department of Educational Curriculum and Instruction, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia, 1989-1991.

Consultant, Southeastern Cooperative Educational Programs, Norfolk, Virginia, 1988-1991.

Educational Supervisor, Portsmouth Psychiatric Center, Portsmouth, Virginia, 1987-1988.

Educational Diagnostician, Portsmouth Psychiatric Center, Portsmouth, Virginia, 1978-1987.

Instructor, Department of Educational Foundations and Special Programs, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia, 1975-1977.

Adjunct Instructor, Department of Special Education, Old Dominion University, 1970-1975.

Director of Practicum, Department of Special Education, Old Dominion University, 1972-1973.

Teacher, Behavior Disorders, Child Study Center, Old Dominion University, 1970-1972.

Educational Director, East Ocean View Summer Enrichment Preschool Program, Norfolk, Virginia, Summer 1972, 1973.

Educational Director, Model Cities Preschool Enrichment Programs, Norfolk, Virginia, Spring 1973.

Honors and Awards:

The Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi, Old Dominion University, 1991.

Old Dominion University Alumni Association Outstanding Scholar Fellowship, Old Dominion University, 1989-1990.

The World Who's Who of Women, 1976.

Scholarship for Graduate Studies, Special Education, Old Dominion University, 1969-1970.

Scholarship for Undergraduate Studies, Special Education, Old Dominion University, 1968-1969.