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Principals' and teachers' perceptions of teacher supervision

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PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS
OF TEACHER SUPERVISION

by

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of the requirements for the

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ABSTRACT

Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Supervision

by

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The purpose of this study was twofold: to determine the extent to which professional and bureaucratic approaches are used in schools around the country and to describe to what extent the elements of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation are used to supervise teachers. Survey research was used to ascertain the use of these methods.

Data collected indicated that professionalism, instructional supervision, and professional development techniques were the dominant approaches to supervision as indicated by administrators and teachers. When disaggregated by elementary and secondary schools and the degree held by the principal, groups were similar in overall use of professionalism, instructional supervision, and professional development, but secondary schools and principals with master's degrees used more bureaucratic and evaluation techniques. Examination of individual questions shows that different approaches are favored in professionalism, instructional supervision, and professional development, according to the demographic. A lack of collaboration, inside and outside

the school, was reported. Clinical supervision was used, but, on average, it was only used one to two times yearly, and different aspects of the process were implemented more frequently than others. Most respondents reported differentiation in supervision methods, usually based on tenure and need, and a prescribed evaluation tool was used.

More research needs to be done to conclude if professionalism is the dominant approach, or if bureaucracy is making headway because of *No Child Left Behind*. There are differing perceptions and uses of the techniques based on administrator and teacher, level of the school, and degree held by the principal.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Many influences have affected the ways in which teachers are supervised and evaluated. In the 1950s, America's educational system was spurred after the Soviet Union launched Sputnik. Critiques were questioning the nation's educational system, proposing that basic education in the United States was inadequate. Books like *Why Johnny Can't Read* (Flesch, 1955) questioned the ability of American schools to educate in a competitive market. In 1983, *A Nation at Risk*, by the National Commission of Excellence in Education, identified several aspects of education in need of reform, including assessing teacher competence and student learning in classrooms around the country.

A major focus of reforms in the 1980s was in the area of teacher supervisory process. In 1985, the Bicentennial Commission published a postscript to *A Nation at Risk*, which stated:

A nation is at risk when any of its professions is severely weakened. Teaching is such a profession. . . The basis for the genuine, sound practice of pedagogy is substantial and growing dramatically. If the nation wants to reduce its risk, it must upgrade the teaching profession and the conditions under which teachers practice. The achievement of one goal is inextricably linked to the other (p. 77).

As a result of this publication, mandates for teacher supervision started to parallel teacher preparation programs and certification processes (Iwanicki, 1998). Local, state, and national entities dictated the development of new supervision practices and measures to assess the value of teachers and their competency (Dagley & Veir, 2002; Elmore & Fuhrman, 1988, 2001).

Throughout the history of the United States, there have been many variations of teacher supervision. In colonial times, members of the community or representatives of the governments evaluated local teachers. These people were not educators, and they were mainly concerned with assessing the students' knowledge and determining the quality of the teaching methods being used (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Tanner & Tanner, 1987, 1990; Valverde, 1998). Badiali (1998) termed this the "community accountability historical phase". Teachers were not only judged on the quality of the instruction they delivered, but also on their place and appropriateness in the community at large.

A new supervisory process emerged in the 1800s. Delegation of supervision and evaluation responsibilities allowed traveling educators to evaluate and demonstrate effective teaching skills to teachers in larger communities (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Tanner & Tanner, 1987, 1990). At this point, the role of a supervisor expanded to include knowledge of teaching and learning by having a teacher supervise other teachers.

By the late 19th century, other changes had come about in the area of teacher evaluation. During this era, termed the "first scientific phase" (Badiali, 1998; Pfeiffer, 1998; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993), a teacher or administrator was designated as the supervisor over all teachers in most large areas. This person used an evaluation checklist to determine the quality of teaching (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Tanner

& Tanner, 1987, 1990). This phase saw the first attempt at developing an objective way to evaluate teachers. If certain conditions existed in the classroom and planning occurred, then the teaching was determined to be adequate. Glanz (1991, 1998) called this *bureaucratic supervision*; Badiali (1998) called it *professionalization*.

This trend toward objective evaluation coincided with the Progressive Movement. The Progressive Movement called for government and business reform to make political and industrial systems more fair and democratic. The Progressive Movement in education started during which time supervisors attempted to incorporate democratic ideals into supervision. Supervisors also tried to gain recognition for their abilities as professionals (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Tanner & Tanner, 1987, 1990). Guba and Lincoln (1985) described this period as the first generation of evaluation. They also called it the technical generation because the basis for evaluation was test results; students took standardized tests, and their performance generated statistics by which to measure teacher effectiveness (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). The validity of using testing to determine a teacher's merit is still debated today. Anderson and Robertson (2000) explained two opposing viewpoints on whether student testing should be part of evaluation. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 uses test scores to evaluate and judge schools and administration performance.

In the early 20th century, schools were charged with building better workers and citizens. The requirement for a school to have books, a building, desks, and a teacher led to the first standards for instructional supervision. Schools standards were based on hierarchical models from religious institutions, the military, business, and government (St. Maurice & Cook, 2005).

In the 1930s, supervisors' roles began to change. A supervisor's role became to determine what teachers needed to be successful. The supervisor sought to fulfill and support those needs of the teacher. This has been termed the *human relations phase* (Badiali, 1998; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). During this period, the role of supervisor shifted from evaluator to facilitator. Students' outcomes also came to be seen as based on the effectiveness of the teaching. Guba and Lincoln (1985) described this generation of evaluation as the *descriptive generation*. Testing could be a part of the process, but other indicators were used in conjunction with test results (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

The next change in supervision occurred during the 1950s and 1960s. The postwar emphasis shifted back to scientific evaluation; however, the objective evaluation of teachers expanded to take into account more of the elements that led to student learning and achievement (Badiali, 1998; Tanner & Tanner, 1987, 1990; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993).

The mid-1960s brought about what has been termed the *judgmental generation* in evaluation. During this time, supervisors were guided by standards developed to determine teacher effectiveness. Testing, again, could be part of the process, but other tools were used to determine the effectiveness of the teacher based on the standards attained (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) introduced *clinical supervision*. This system of evaluation called to mind the human relations phase of the 1930s; wherein a supervisor facilitated the improvements in teaching. In this model the teacher was the focus as the main agent of change. The teacher developed his or her own individualized improvement plan and the supervisors assisted in fulfilling this

plan. Thus the roles of supervisor and teacher became more collaborative in nature and supervision and evaluation encompass different activities (Tanner & Tanner, 1987, 1990).

Clinical supervision originated in the 1970s at the Harvard School of Education where Cogan was a professor and Goldhammer was a graduate student assisting him. They identified five steps comprising clinical supervision (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969). The first step required the supervisor to hold a pre-observation conference to establish relationships, identify desired outcomes, and develop a plan for improvement. The second step was to assist in the planning of a lesson in which the desired outcomes could be reached. In the third step, the supervisor observed and collected data. For the fourth step, teacher and supervisor would meet to analyze observation data together, looking for the agreed-upon outcomes. The last step was to evaluate the process and develop improvements for the next supervision cycle. At this point, the cycle repeated. Goldhammer (1969) commented further on the idea of clinical supervision:

If the reader will conceptualize “clinical” in the following manner, then we will be thinking of it in the same way. First of all, I mean to convey an image of face-to-face relationships between supervision and teachers. History provided the principal reason for this emphasis, mainly which in many situations presently and in various periods in its development, supervision has been conducted at a distance, as, for example, supervision by committees of teachers. “Clinical” supervision is meant to imply supervision up close. (p. 54)

Table 1

Clinical Supervision Models

<u>Model</u>	<u>Authors</u>
Original clinical models	Cogan; Goldhammer; Mosher; and Purpel
Humanistic/artistic models	Blumber; Blumberg; Barone; and Eisner
Technical/didactic models	Acheson & Gall; Hunter; and Joyce & Showers
Developmental/reflective models	Bowers & Flinders; Costa & Garmston; Garman; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon; Retallick; Schon; Smyth; Waite; and Zeichner & Liston

There have been several variations on the clinical supervision model. Blasé and Blasé (2004), Kelehear (2006), and Pajak (1993) distinguished four families of supervision, along with the authors who proposed the strategies.

Each model places a different emphasis on procedures for observation, feedback, and interactive conferences. Some systems of evaluation combine aspects of clinical supervision and the scientific evaluation process. Clinical supervision, along with many other evaluation systems, incorporates the steps of pre-conferencing, observing, and evaluating, but some models lack the aspects of teacher initiation and self-evaluation in improvement (Blasé & Blasé, 2004).

The last generation of teacher evaluation described by Guba and Lincoln (1985) is the *negotiated generation*. In this period, all stakeholders involved developed recommendations and program outcomes. The evaluators were seen less as experts and more as facilitators. This echoed clinical supervision in that teachers and supervisors worked together to develop and reach goals (Scott, 1998).

Background of Study

Many later researchers in teacher supervision have since expanded upon or moved away from earlier ideas to meet their needs and, according to them, to better meet the needs of teachers and supervisors. Today, many variations of these models are used to supervise teachers. Zepeda (2007a) advocated for a combination of three aspects of supervision to best achieve the goal of improving teaching. Her cycle of supervision included instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation (Zepeda, 2007a). Several studies have been done to determine the relationship between student achievement and effective teaching methods, but as yet no national research has been done to determine what methods are currently being used to supervise teachers in the United States today.

Although the specific methods of supervision utilized across the nation are yet unclear, two discernable branches of evaluation have emerged: formative and summative (Holland & Adams, 2002; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Ribas, 2000; Shelly, 2002; VanderLinde, 1998). Formative evaluation bases its results on the analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher. Formative evaluation focuses on helping the teacher improve and attempts to be nonjudgmental (Manatt, 1988). The administrator and the teacher analyze data and develop a plan for improvement (Veir & Dagley, 2002). Summative evaluations track the decisions and data collection methods that determine the employment status of teachers (Ribas, 2000), which helps management make better decisions about employment (Manatt, 1988). Summative evaluations are final, judgmental, and comparative (Manatt, 1988).

Many in the education field distinguish evaluation as a form of judgment and

supervision as a form of facilitating teacher growth. This has led to a debate as to whether supervision and evaluation should be done together or separately (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Scriven (1988) believed that the ideal evaluation system would involve different people doing both formative and summative evaluations. He also understood, however, that this is not easily done and would be almost impossible to implement in current school structures (Scriven, 1988). Proper evaluation of teachers should ensure adequate instruction, document quality of teaching, create accountability for stakeholders, and improve instruction (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Most authors describe the evaluation procedure as a bureaucratic process using a checklist and criteria for judging a teacher's effectiveness. In the debate as to what will increase student learning, several reform models have been introduced to tackle the issue.

Reform models have been a driving force behind most educational movements. Included in these reforms are changes in the supervision of teachers, as described in *A Nation at Risk* in 1983. With the push for accountability at the school level in No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, supervisors are starting to evaluate teachers based on student achievement and learning (Judson, Schwartz, Allen, & Miel, 2008; Shelly, 2002). Several reform models have advocated for standards to drive instruction and supervision.

National standards have had a major influence on the supervision of teachers (Gupton, 2003; Judson, Schwartz, Allen, & Miel, 2008; Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Standards have developed in most areas of education, and teachers are starting to be held accountable for their students reaching these standards in their evaluations. According to Holland (1998), "the lack of professional standards to clarify [the] process. . . in education is well exemplified in the field of instruction supervision" (p. 398). In recent

years, standards in teacher supervision have come to the forefront in the literature, as has improving teacher supervision methods and practices (Castles-Bentley, Fillion, Allen, Ross, & Gordon, 2005; Cooley & Shen, 2003; McIntyre & Byrd, 1998). *A Nation at Risk* (1983) incorporated several standards for instructional supervision. The general standardization of life and other occupations due to fifteen decades of rapid industrialization prompted this new movement of standards in areas such as instructional supervision (St. Maurice & Cook, 2005).

Professional development of teachers has been advocated in both federal laws and political goals for education. The publication of *A Nation at Risk* (1983) called for more professional development of teachers to improve instruction (Achilles & Tienken, 2005). To improve math and science education, the Eisenhower funding program, Title II of ESEA, implemented in 1985 (extended 1957, NDEA), increased the focus on professional development to improve teaching in these areas (Achilles & Tienken, 2005). *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* also emphasized professional development (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Achilles & Tienken, 2005). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 led to an increase in professional development to improve quality instruction; many states increased professional development efforts in response to this legislation (Achilles & Tienken, 2005).

Along with the federal emphasis on professional development, states have also implemented guidelines for evaluation of teachers. State laws and legislation have greatly influenced supervision; forty-one states have statues regarding the evaluation of teachers (Dagley & Veir, 2002). Along with unions and bargaining agreements, the evaluation process is usually well defined in each state. These mandates usually result in

teacher quality checklists that determine the presence and observation of certain things that make up “quality and learning” in the classroom. Rarely is the evaluation method at the discretion of the individual school or district. Seventy percent of states in 2002 had legislation that regulated the system used to evaluate teachers (Bloom, 2005; Veir & Dagley, 2002).

Now, with the implementation of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, ramifications for teacher supervision are vast (Shelly, 2002). Title II of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, deals specifically with professional development. There are also standards for teachers and state hiring, including the “highly qualified” status for teachers (Birman, Le Floch, & Klekotka, 2007; Keller, 2006; Koops & Winsor, 2005). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, requires testing to improve instruction and demands that states make average yearly progress objectives and disaggregate results based on socioeconomic factors, race/ethnicity, English language proficiency, and disability. The goal of this legislation is that all children in the United States be 100% proficient by 2014.

Many standards have expanded in regards to teacher development. Nationalized standards for teacher supervision are being put forward by the federal government to improve and homogenize teacher quality (Gupton, 2003; McIntyre & Byrd, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

The history of supervision is complex, and several ideas have been used and reused in efforts to understand how teachers teach in order to improve their teaching and students’ learning in schools. A dichotomy exists today in the nature of supervision. Tracy’s

(1998) explanation of this dichotomy was that, “supervision can be thought of as the function that draws together the discrete elements of instruction’s effectiveness (i.e., individual development) into whole school effectiveness (i.e., staff development)” (p. 86). She goes on to say that the supervision of teachers needed to purposefully merge the needs of the individual teachers with the needs of the school. In this idea are the concepts of summative and formative evaluation systems for teacher and organizational development.

There are two ideas of how and why supervision should take place: professionalism and bureaucracy. Bureaucracy in supervision surfaced in the 1890s (Glanz, 1998; Hanson, 1996; Reitzug, 1997), when supervisors attempted to develop and use a scientific system to analyze and evaluate teachers (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). Bureaucratic supervision involves a set of criteria by which teachers are evaluated (Glanz, 1998). True to Weber’s (1947) definition of bureaucracies, in bureaucratic supervision there is a hierarchy of authority, defined roles, impersonal orientation, separation of ownership, and rules and regulations.

Professionalism also started in the 1890’s as a result of the Progressive Movement in education. This movement fostered the idea that teachers and administrators should be recognized for their professionalism and abilities in the field (Glanz, 1998). Professionalism incorporated democratic ideals into the processes of teacher supervision allowing for input from teachers in the process (Hanson, 1996; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). This movement resulted in several new models of supervision that incorporate the ideas and needs of the teachers and administrators as professionals.

Bureaucracy and professionalism can both be placed on a continuum, with teacher

development and assistance on the far left and organization development and teacher evaluation on the far right (Tracy, 1998). Using such a continuum, professionalism would be on the left and bureaucracy would appear on the right. Several models in the middle incorporate an amalgamation of the two concepts.

The acceptance of one model by an administrator is based on three factors, according to Joyce and Weil (1980). First, the supervisor must understand the goal and the purpose of the model. Second, the supervisor must understand the model's theoretical assumptions about supervision. Third, the supervisor must agree with the major concepts and principles in the model.

Along with all the above-mentioned items that affect supervision, time itself is a major factor. Many different duties are assigned to administrators; as a result, evaluation and supervision are usually not their highest priority (Cooley & Shen, 2003; Goodwin, Cunningham, & Childress, 2003; Anderson, & Snyder, 1998). Other duties often take precedence, and so predesigned evaluation tools are used to make evaluation a quick and easy process. These tools, though efficient, leave much to be desired in their ability to assist teachers in improving their craft and refining their skills. Costa, Garmston, and Lambert (1988) want to dispel the myth that teacher evaluation alone improves instruction and argue that there is no evidence of this. Teachers, in many cases, are left to determine their abilities and improve in their work through their own means.

Much more goes into supervision than just an end evaluation of a teacher's abilities. Professional development, peer support, and collective planning, as well as leadership roles within a school, are all part of supervision (Kelly, 1999; Tracy, 1998; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Even though being a curriculum leader is ranked number one ranked

as their number one priority in surveys of principals, it often falls to last when measured in terms of what leaders actually do (Barott & Galvin, 1998). According to Barott and Galvin (1998), supervision is how educators coordinate interests, values, resources, skills, and time to produce effective services. Blachard and Johnson (1981) explained how to be one-minute managers, while others have advocated for classroom walk-throughs to supervise teachers using less time (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; David, 2008; Dyrli, 2008; Gewertz, 2008; Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Glickman and Kanawati (1998) recognized four major recent trends in teacher supervision: (a) a move toward a group focus; (b) an effort to facilitate growth; (c) a macro-conceptualization of the supervision process; and (d) working with and within a larger community, including the school as a whole and the community that the school serves (Glickman & Kanawati, 1998). The complexity of teacher supervision is vast and continues to expand with new ideas and theories.

Zepeda (2007a) has developed a cyclical supervision model composed of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluations as parts of supervision. Her work will be the conceptual framework for this study.

Understanding the diversity and complexity of the supervision of teachers has been the focus of much research in the last decade. Areglado (1998) produced one study that featured interviews with ninety principals on their views and practices in supervision. Areglado said, "Today's principals continue in large measure to engage in supervisory practices that contribute little to more effective instruction and student achievement" (1998, p. 591). Blasé and Blasé (2004) reviewed the *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* and found eighty-two articles on supervision theory, conceptions of supervision, legal issues, supervisors in various roles, evaluation of supervision practices,

conferences, reflective practice, and the history and research of supervision (inquiry and areas in need of research). They concluded that there is a need for further research on the effects of supervision on teacher behavior, how supervision relates to teaching, the characteristics of supervision, and conditions necessary for effective supervision. They found that few administration texts addressed supervision at all. Blasé & Blasé (2004) noted that, in looking at research on supervision and instructional leadership, there was a connection between supervisory actions and professional growth of teachers, teacher commitment, involvement, innovativeness, and increased student learning.

One of the most important roles given to administrators is understanding the supervisory process of teachers. Even though there are a number of models and definitions found in the literature as well as a variety of practices, no study has been done that deals with how the practices are perceived and which supervision methods are used and in what form.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was twofold: to determine the extent to which professionalism and bureaucracy are used in schools around the country and to describe to what extent the elements of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation are used to supervise teachers.

Research Questions

This study was guided by these questions:

- What are principals' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?

- What are teachers' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by principals: bureaucracy or professionalism?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by teachers: bureaucracy or professionalism?

Conceptual Framework

Several theoretical perspectives have had impacts on the supervision of teachers. Organizational theory echoed the changes in supervisory thought and practices in schools. Classical organizational theory developed in the early 20th century. It called for top to bottom leadership and management, it was machinelike in its implementation, it focused on the individual, and it included anticipated consequences, rules, and coercive leadership. Primarily informal, the theory revolved around time-and-motion studies and functional supervision. The ideal was a bureaucratic system with bureaucratic management (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). Part of classical organizational theory was the view of teacher supervision as inspection theory. This usually resulted in surprise visits by community members charged with the task of getting rid of ineffective teachers (Kelehear, 2006). From this first attempt to supervise came the bureaucratic model of supervision, which is still closely related to inspection.

Established in the 1890s, the bureaucratic supervision model sought to measure a teacher's performance scientifically to determine the efficiency of the teacher using a central authority (Harris, 1998). In the bureaucratic model, the supervision is done in a subjective manner. According to Sergiovanni (1992), the bureaucratic model assumes

that teachers are untrustworthy and subordinate to the leader's authority; teachers need to have close supervision and monitoring in order to reach the expected minimum. There is usually a clear set of criteria from which to judge a teacher's effectiveness (Acheson & Gail, 2003; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Whitaker, 2003). Models of supervision included in the bureaucratic supervision model are the teacher evaluation, developmental, and developmental analysis models (Harris, 1998).

The human relations approach surfaced in 1927. Prevalent were anticipated consequences and informality was the focus, but group norms were viewed as important. Included in this human relations approach were the Hawthorne studies, group dynamic, and leadership studies (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). Supervision as social efficacy included both scientific and bureaucratic methods. This professionalized the supervision of teachers but was still control-orientated and bureaucratic (Kelehear, 2006). The ideas grew as a result of the urbanization of America and the belief that scientific means could be used to analyze everything (Bennis, 1989; Glanz, 1998; Hersy, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001).

Much of bureaucratic supervision is now mandated through federal, state, and local agencies. Schools are in social systems, which are also open systems in that they are strongly influenced by things outside the system. As a result, schools must act and react in compliance with the rules and regulations established by external authorities (Gettels & Guba, 1957; Hersy, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001).

The behavioral science approach started in 1938 and combined the classical and human relations approaches. All major elements of both approaches were present, but

the behavioral science approach placed more emphasis on contingency leadership, culture, transformational leadership, and systems theory. Included in this organizational behavior approach were cooperative systems, social systems theory, hierarchy, theory X and Y, hygiene motivation, open-closed climate, situational leadership, and expectancy theory (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008).

Weaved into the bureaucratic approach to supervision are several other theories, the first of which is Theory X. Theory X is based on the assumption that people do not like to work and must be threatened and coerced into meeting standards (Hersy Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001; McGregor, 1961). Bureaucratic supervision hinges on the classification of a leader's power. The power base for leaders in the bureaucratic model includes reward power, coercive power, and legitimate power (French & Raven, 2003). Power is achieved through threats and rewards, and power is also granted by the governing body of the schools.

Using the professionalism model, teachers are evaluated on other, nontangible things. This form of supervision is often termed subjective. The professionalism model, according to Sergiovanni (1992), assumes that teaching is situational and that teachers' knowledge is based on experience. Teachers need to communicate about their profession and assistance is required to provide professional development and facilitate peer interactions. A professional orientation toward teacher supervision is characterized by: (a) individual teacher self-identified objectives, (b) community building within the school setting and district, (c) leadership behaviors, and (d) growth throughout the year (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Supervision models included in professionalism are clinical supervision, diagnostic supervision, training models, and coaching and mentoring

models (Harris, 1998).

Professionalism as a supervision model started in the 1890s. Teachers wanted more autonomy and began to prefer self-guided improvement. Supervision was thought to be most effective if it was done by a person at the same level, or closer to the level, of the teacher (Glanz, 1998). John Dewey was one of the leaders of the Progressive Movement in education. He believed that schools were the means to social progress and reform (Kandel, 2006).

Part of the behavioral science approach is based on Theory Y. Theory Y assumes that people are self-motivated to achieve and that they seek out responsibilities and can be creative without coercion (Hersy, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001; McGregor, 1961). In this form of supervision, leaders attain power from different sources. Professionalism reflects leaders' legitimate powers just as in bureaucratic supervision, but, in addition, leaders have expert and referent power. In other words, not only do leaders have the authority to supervise, but they also are believed to have expert knowledge of teaching and learning and to display a leadership quality that inspires people to seek their approval (French & Raven, 2003).

The professionalism model assumes schools receive less influence from the outside. According to this model, the feedback from the social system mainly comes within (Getzel & Guba, 1957). For example, if a principal supervises the teachers in his or her school, the manner of supervision and feedback to the teachers is based on the judgment of the principal from inside the social system. Kelehear (2006) described a democratic process of supervision as humane, moral, and having professional supervision to help teachers. He also identified the scientific process of supervision as moving away from

the task of rating and more toward scientific methodologies encompassing professionalism.

The post-behavioral science approach has been established since 2002. This approach includes integrated concepts of school improvement, democratic community, and social justice with emphasis on leadership (learning organizations, instructional leadership, and transformational leadership) and the incorporation of nontraditional perspectives (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008).

Running throughout teacher supervision are the elements which make up the supervisory process. Zepeda (2007a) has identified three main aspects of the teacher supervisory process: instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation.

Instructional supervision, according to Zepeda (2007a), “aims to promote growth, development, interaction, fault-free problem solving, and commitment to build capacity in teachers” (p. 29). She differentiates between supervision and evaluation by explaining that evaluation is a way to meet state and district mandates and to decide if, based on ratings, a teacher will return to work the following year. Supervision is much more than just evaluating a teacher; supervision takes into account the teacher’s career stage, what he or she desires, his or her conceptual level, formal and informal observations, collaboration, coaching, and several other factors (Zepeda, 2007a). According to Popham (1988), formative and summative evaluations differ in their purpose. Formative evaluations are used to improve teachers’ skills so they can perform better. Summative evaluations are used to determine if the teacher should be dismissed, to decide on tenure or probationary status, and to determine merit pay (Popham, 1988).

Professional development is now seen as a must for professional improvement and

growth. Instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation comprise a three-pronged approach to good teacher supervision, according to Zepeda (2007a), and these strategies will be the basis for the research in this dissertation.

Research Design and Methodology

In order to ascertain the methods used to supervise, professionally develop, and evaluate teacher, descriptive research was used. This research pulled from existing data in the form of a questionnaire developed in 2004 as a doctoral project by three doctorate students under the supervision of Dr. Patti Chance. The questionnaire assessed administrators' supervision practices and perceptions as well as teachers' perceptions. It also addressed instructional supervision methods, professional development, and evaluation teachers. For this research, a sample of convenience was drawn from two groups of "Principals of the Year". The first group was principals from elementary and the second groups consisted of principals from secondary schools. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and the National Elementary Association of School Principals (NEASP) supplied the stratified random sample. The population consisted of two or three principals per state.

Populations/Sample

The principals of the year were a sample of convenience. The groups were assumed to be average in their application and knowledge of supervision techniques. From this sample, a picture of the evaluation and supervision methods used nationwide was developed. There was also an opportunity to analyze the different perceptions of the

principal and the supervised teachers. The questionnaire presented a more complete picture of the methods used by asking that both the supervisor and teacher being supervised take the questionnaire.

A survey package was sent to each principal's school, containing one survey for the principal and three surveys for teachers they supervise. The teachers surveyed were chosen by the principals; the principals were asked to select the teachers from different subject areas and/or grade levels. Information was collected on the requirements for the teacher supervisory process, the methods used to supervise and evaluate, the professional development available, and the supervision processes implemented at the school level.

A database was then developed to analyze the data and draw conclusions about the practices used. Answers were categorized as reflective of professionalism models or bureaucratic models. Data were analyzed to determine the most common forms of evaluation and supervision used; the methods of data collections used by principals; the amount of time spent in conferences, observations, and professional development; the difference in supervision of new teachers as opposed to that of experienced teachers; the site-based supervisory techniques; and the supervision requirements dictated from outside the school.

Generalizations from the results were deemed valid due to the fact that the survey was conducted on such a large scale. Results were expected from at least half of the 100 surveys packets sent out, and these packets each included one principal's survey and three teachers' surveys. Fifty-seven percent of the principal surveys were returned and 45% of the teacher surveys were returned. This volume helped ensure that the results were accurate as to the models and methods of supervision used at the nationwide.

Definition of Terms

Supervision: Supervision is to “help bring about change in teachers’ instructional practices” (Alfonso & Firth, 1990). It can also be defined more broadly as in Ben Harris’ checklist:

- Teaching and learning
- Responding to changing external realities
- Providing support, assistance, and feedback to teachers
- Recognizing teaching as the primary vehicle for facilitating school learning
- Promoting new, improved innovative practices (1998, p. 2).

For the purpose of this study, the supervision process is defined as the progression of teaching and learning using various approaches (Harris, 1998). Zepeda (2007a) combined instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation, stating that, when “woven together in a holistic way, learning opportunities follow their own course while contributing to the overall development of the faculty and the organization” (p. 13).

Instructional Supervision: Zepeda (2007a) defined instructional supervision as that which “aims to promote growth, development, interaction, fault-free problem solving, and a commitment to built capacity in teachers” (p. 29).

Evaluation: Evaluation is defined as judging the quality of a teacher’s performance (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Evaluation is part of supervision (Zepeda, 2007a).

Professional Development: For this study, professional development is defined as the teacher’s or supervisor’s focus on the development of professional expertise using problem solving and inquiry (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). This is also categorized as

part of supervision (Zepeda, 2007a).

Bureaucracy: Bureaucracy “consists of a hierarchy of authority, prescribed rules, centralized decision-making and procedural specifications” (Glanz, 1998, p. 45).

Professionalism: Prior to the 1940s, professionalism was defined as the attempt of administrators to be accepted as professionals and gain recognition for their contributions in supervision (Glanz, 1998). Since then, the definition has broadened to encompass much more. For the purpose of this study, professionalism is defined as a democratic and cooperative form of supervision (Glanz, 1998). Combining these two definitions, professionalism can be viewed as the model in which teachers and supervisors work together to increase learning and produce better teaching, with the understanding that both are professionals in the field.

Limitations, Assumptions, and Delimitations

The sample of convenience used to collect the data is one limitation of the study. Because the goal of this study is to develop a national picture of supervision trends in the United States, the sample will reflect the currently used models and methods used from each state. Generalization of the results is not affected by the limitation of the selected exemplary principals.

A problem with surveys of this kind is that the survey or instrument is limited to the responses and the time each respondent put into their answers. Some respondents might have answered all the questions thoughtfully, and some might have answered quickly providing little information about the processes used in their school. To compensate for this, the survey has been composed of Likert-scale questions, yes-and-no questions, and

short answer questions.

One assumption of the study is that the questions will be answered honestly and accurately. This assumption is justified by having multiple sources of information from each school. Having three teachers and the principal answer the survey limits the amount of inaccurate information that might be given. This helps create a picture that is as accurate as possible of the supervisory process in schools.

Another limitation is that the teachers were selected by the principals. Principals could have chosen teachers who they could rely on to support them, and therefore the report data would be bias. This limitation cannot be avoided, but having multiple teachers supervised by the principal complete the survey, this would minimize the issue.

Significance of the Study

Other qualitative studies have been done to determine the supervision practices used in several schools and districts. Yet no national research of this type has been compiled before. This study serves as starting point for future research on the supervisory process and practices in the United States. Commonly used methods can be analyzed for their effects on teacher development and student achievement. Without a baseline, localized research can only scratch the surface of practices in supervision of teachers. Without a national account of the methods used, future research would remain small in scope and narrow in application. One of the most important tasks given to administrators is the supervision of teachers. Understanding the application of different methods and models of supervision is essential to the improvement and training of school administrators in the future.

Summary

Amid the roles of the principal and administration ever-expanding, supervision is on the forefront of educational reform. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) explained the responsibilities of principals and the time constraints in which they work. They also described five key aspects of effective principals: defining and communicating the mission of the school, coordinating the curriculum, supervising and supporting teachers, monitoring student progress, and nurturing the positive learning climate. National statistics should increase resources and help to further define the role of the principal as a supervisor.

Throughout history, different methods and philosophies of supervision have developed. This has led to several different theories about the supervisory processes used in schools today. Because of the diversity and complexity of the supervisory role, no study has examined the essence of supervision in the United States today. This study attempts to analyze one small aspect of supervision, in order to lay the foundation for broader research in supervision processes. By studying the types of supervision in use today and the roles supervisors play in assisting teachers in their professions, we can discover how to positively impact student learning through these supervisory processes.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Supervision

Supervision today takes many different forms and emphasizes different factors in the educational spectrum. Several different definitions of supervision are in use in the field. The simplistic definition of supervision is the evaluation of teaching (Harris, 1998). Harris (1998) described five contemporary aspects of supervision: teaching and learning; countering changing external realities; giving teachers support, assistance, and feedback; understanding that teaching is the catalyst for encouraging school learning; and encouraging new, improved pioneering practices. More complex descriptions have come to augment this definition as the development of schools and the process of supervising teachers has evolved (Harris, 1998). Glickman's (1985) study offered another definition of supervision as "the school function that improves instruction through direct assistance to teachers, curriculum development, in-service training, group development, and action research" (p. xv). Acheson and Waite (1998) described supervision's purpose as two fold: to promote meaningful professional growth and to foster student learning. Iwanicki (1998) used a similar definition explaining supervision in terms of evaluation. Garmston, Lipton, and Kaiser (1998) name three different functions of supervision: First, supervision should improve instruction. Second, supervision must develop an educator's potential for growth. Third, supervision should improve the organization's ability to

renew and grow. Supervision is also defined as helping teachers exercise their right, and their responsibility, to promote continued growth (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Blasé and Blasé (2004) view supervision as a combination of supervisory beliefs and educational philosophies with the purpose of building trust, empowering teachers, and fostering reflection. They maintained that supervision should be inquiry orientated, and it should encourage teachers' voices as well as acknowledges the context and complexity of teaching (Blasé and Blasé, 2004). Zepeda's (2007a) definition, used in this work, has a cyclical, three-pronged approach to supervision: instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation. The three aspects included in Zepeda's supervision approach are all integrated and each is part of the supervision process as a whole. All of the facets are essential threads necessary to complete the entire representation of teacher supervision. But, regardless of how supervision is defined, why is supervision of teachers important? Is there a link between teacher supervision and improved instruction?

Supervision is considered a key to success in schools. Ebmeier (2003) produced research that linked teacher efficacy to supervision. He defined efficacy as an individual's belief about his or her own capabilities to achieve a certain end. According to his work, supervision activities that teachers felt were supportive of their roles included providing feedback, encouragement, emotional support, reinforcement, as well as modeling experiences. If more classroom observations occurred, teachers felt they had more efficacy. Using scales to measure a principal's supervision, a principal's support of teaching, and teacher's satisfaction with working conditions, the conclusions drawn from the data determined that a principal supervisory behaviors and the efficacy beliefs of

teachers in that principal's school were remarkably similar (Ebmeier, 2003).

The roles of school administrators have expanded to include much more than management and administration. Principals are expected to be instructional experts, to support curriculum, to provide professional development, to use data-driven decision-making, to be visionary, and to be able to unite the faculty into a unified force to advance student achievement (Tucker, 2003). Standards outlining a criterion for professionalizing instructional supervision have become part of the educational landscape. Standards require managers and leaders to rethink existing systems and practices and to illustrate best practices (Castles-Bentley, Fillion, Allen, Ross, & Gordon, 2005). Tucker (2003) identified the behaviors important to instructional leadership as developing school goals, being visible, supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Effective leaders act as change agents, promote teamwork, work toward continuous improvement, build trust, and work toward short-term goals (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Several demands are made on school leaders, ranging from managerial and instructional to political, interpersonal, and moral (Greenfield, 2005). According to Greenfield (2005), "leadership is a reciprocal influence relationship between leaders(s) and the led, and in schools it generally involves efforts intended to improve the school's ability to accomplish its goal effectively" (p. 247).

Instructional leadership can be defined using several terms and attributes, but most definitions incorporate ideas about supervision.

Many pieces of literature about effective supervision describe various approaches to the supervisory process. Blasé and Blasé (2004) identified several processes that developed in supervision from 1850 to 1990, including: scientific management,

democratic interaction approach, cooperative supervision, supervision as curriculum development, clinical supervision, group dynamics and peer emphasis, as well as coaching and instructional supervision. (p. 7). Embedded within these processes are the philosophies of bureaucracy and professionalism. These two have been opposite sides of a continuum with a pendulum moving back and forth from the late 1800s to present.

Professionalism and Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy

Supervision in schools closely follows other social movements in the United States (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Hanson, 1996). In 1647, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts passed the Old Deluder Law to “save children from the devil” (Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); communities with fifty or more families had to provide basic reading and writing for children, while communities of one-hundred or more families had to establish a grammar school. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard led the way in establishing educational laws and curriculum development in schools (Kosmoski, 1997). Mann served as the Secretary of Education in Massachusetts from 1837 to 1848, and Barnard was part of the Connecticut State Board of Education around the same time; these two men piloted the movement to mandate state funding for boys’ and girls’ schooling in the 1800s (Kosmoski, 1997; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). Mann pioneered teacher training, creating the first school for teacher education (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). After schools became a state-run establishment and teaching grew into a recognized profession, citizens soon saw the need for teachers to be watched and controlled by the communities in which they were employed.

In the early settlements and during the colonial period, supervision in American schools consisted mainly of inspection and monitoring (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Hanson, 1996; Kelehear, 2006; Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Valverde, 1998). Inspectors were often ministers, councilmen, or other citizens who had received informal instruction in education (Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). These appointed individuals would visit schools in the area to ensure the teachers were adhering to community standards. Often these standards were not formally defined and did not have a direct link to the education of the students. Rather, inspectors wanted to verify that the activities in the schools were in line with community standards of religion and morality (Glanz, 1991; Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). During this time, schools were judged on whether or not they had books, a building, desks, and a teacher. More involved standards for schools developed from religious and military hierarchies that were modeled after the business and government bureaucracies of the time (St. Maurice & Cook, 2005). Most schools were merely one-room facilities where the teacher was in charge of every aspect of curriculum, discipline, and building upkeep (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) referred to this period of history in supervision as the “community involvement stage” (p. 19).

Bureaucracy emerged in school systems during the late 1800s and early 1900s (Valverde, 1998). Summative evaluation methods are based on bureaucracy, and teacher inspection served as the main tool in this type of supervision (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Hanson, 1996). The history of supervision in schools has its roots firmly planted in this method. McQuarrie and Wood (1991) stated that “the summative evaluation is the

judgment or rating approach to improve instructional practices” (p. 94). Bureaucratic models were commonly used to establish a consistent way to supervise (Killian & Post, 1998; National Education Association, 1988; Nolan & Hoover, 2008). By the 1930s, becoming a supervisor in some states required certification (Glanz, 1998). Even today, this is the extent to which many school leaders are trained to supervise their staffs. Most states require some form of summative evaluation of teachers, mainly for the purpose of maintaining the teacher’s employment (Greenfield, 2005, Veir & Dagley, 2002, Zepeda, 2007a).

During the late 1800s, schools were growing and in need of a system to help them run efficiently and effectively. Bureaucracy was the norm in management of industry and was credited with the successes of the time; so naturally, supervisory practice in education came to involve bureaucracy (Hanson, 1996; Kosmoski, 1997). The supervisory role soon became an internal part of school districts’ infrastructure (Glanz, 1991, 1998). Supervisors were expected not only to monitor compliance with the rules but also to provide assistance for instruction and to model good teaching practices for employees (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). Principals and superintendents carried out this function; therefore, a hierarchy of authority was established around these authority figures to manage the booming population in schools (Glanz, 1998; Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). The general push by the 1900s was toward scientific and efficient supervision so that the position of supervisor would gain influence and be considered legitimate. Supervisors were autocratic, and they supervised based on scientifically sound concepts associated with producing products. They were regarded as experts who had the final say in curriculum matters and the supervision of teachers. This

phase has been termed the *scientific phase* (Glanz, 1998; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001; Kosmoski, 1997; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993).

Although professionalism became a dominant supervision method in education from the 1900s through the 1940s, scientific and bureaucracy methods resurfaced in the 1950s, a time period Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) termed as the *second wave scientific phase*.

Professionalism

Professionalism is the basis for most formative evaluation methods and activities. It emerged as part of the Progressive Movement in the late 19th century and was formally incorporated into teacher supervision in the 1920s (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Hanson, 1996). Professionalism developed out of the belief that teachers were professionals and, as such, capable of guiding and participating in their own development and supervision. The main thrust of this movement revolved around teachers' satisfaction in their work. This started the formative domain of this type of supervision in education was termed the helping, supporting approach (McQuarrie & Wood, 1991).

By the 1920s supervisors were starting to realize, as the industrial period was in full swing, the Progressive Movement in the United States spawned professionalism in teacher supervision. Progressives believed that social inequalities could be fixed if the people embraced democracy. Schools were a prime place for this ideal to be realized if all students could be given equal opportunities. Supervisors assumed that if teachers were satisfied with their work, students would learn more (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993) and teachers were beginning to be viewed as professionals (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001). Guidance and assistance became the focus of progressive

supervisors (Glanz, 1991, 1998), and so supervisors were now expected to build relationships with the teacher and provide a supportive environment for them. This era was termed the *human relations phase* by Tracy and MacNaughton (1993).

During this period, supervisors were selected by the superintendent based on their successful teaching experience and their potential for performing administrative duties (Glanz, 1991, 1998; Valverde, 1998). In this way, supervision became more school based and collaborative (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). But, professionalism methods did not last for long; bureaucracy surfaced again in the 1950s.

In the 1970s, a renewal in the human relations phase occurred, which Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) termed this as the *second wave human relations phase*. Supervisors developed evaluative methods based on complex observation systems, and they used objectives to measure teacher and student outcomes. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, publications by Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) introduced clinical supervision further spurring this reappearance of the human relations phase.

Current State of Bureaucracy and Professionalism

Several different forms of supervision exist in schools today. From the history of educational supervision, it is clear that, over the years, the pendulum has swung back and forth between the opposing approaches of bureaucracy and professionalism. Supervision methods have ranged from bureaucratic tools of summative evaluation to the professional notions of formative requirements and activities.

Currently, supervision systems continue to vary greatly. An eclectic variety of all historical supervision practices play a role in modern teacher supervision. Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) described the current era as the *human development phase*, while

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) refer to it as the *human resources supervision period*.

Several techniques and combinations are often utilized, depending on the individual supervisor's philosophy and beliefs about teaching (Tracy, 1998). Despite the increase of professionalism methods during past decades, supervision can still be viewed currently as inspection, oversight, and judgment (Blasé & Blasé, 2004), procedures rooted in the bureaucratic supervision models. Where professionalism occurs, it is usually added at the discretion of the principal.

Killian and Post (1998) are among the authors who have questioned what kind of supervisory methods are currently being employed in American schools. With heavy emphasis on testing, accountability, and pay for performance, they conjecture that school supervision is currently moving toward bureaucracy. Sergiovanni (1995), however, suggests that supervisors are defining their role in a more supportive and accommodating way, while letting the mandates, regulations, and laws dictate the bureaucratic aspects of supervision. Sergiovanni (1995) described an 80/20 rule, suggesting that supervisors spend no more than 20 percent of their time assessing the teachers' abilities for evaluation purposes, and 80 percent of time their on professional development and improvement. Myers (2005) asserted that holding students and teachers to the criteria and curriculum prescribed by No Child Left Behind and other mandates is not appropriate. Furthermore, he noted that teachers are leaving the profession because the best indicator of a school's test scores is the school's location, and it has become clear that raising literacy does not raise socioeconomic levels (Myers, 2005). Therefore, teachers feel that they are bound to fail under the bureaucratic methods currently in place.

According to Firth (1998), *A Nation at Risk* indicated that professionalism can be a

means to reduce the number of at-risk students. He identified four characteristics of professionalism: expertise, autonomy, responsibility, and commitment. By exercising these values, supervisors following the professionalism model can improve the quality of teaching, and thereby improve the schools themselves. When teachers are empowered, learning and overall teaching competence improves. Firth (1998) also divided teaching into four categories: labor, craft, art, and science. This helps distinguish teaching as more of an artistic profession, one in which teachers should be left to grow and emerge as crafts people without having to adhere to rigid guidelines and control methods. Hunter (1988a) described an artistic element to teaching that is impossible to quantify by bureaucratic means. Again, these statements clearly echo a professionalism viewpoint.

Several mandates and legislative acts have prescribed curriculum guidelines, timelines, and expected outcomes. This method has sought to “fool proof” education (Sergiovanni, 1995). No Child Left Behind (2002) is seen as a legislative drive back toward bureaucratic methods. The supervisor’s role is to ensure that professionalism remains a factor in education, even in the face of bureaucratic restraints. Working with the teacher to develop their craft and provide direction for professional development is a responsibility Sergiovanni (1995) placed squarely upon principals’ shoulders. According to Kelly (1999) and Louis and Smith (1990), schools are mired in bureaucratic organizations methods. Evaluation itself does not improve teaching and learning; therefore, teachers are failing (Costa, Garmston, and Lambert, 1988; Lee 1991). The twentieth century has been witness to a tug of war between evaluating teachers and helping teachers improve or bureaucracy versus professionalism (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). The goal of schools during the industrial age was to supply workers. Today’s

schools need to develop independent thinkers who can deal with large amounts of information and also be creative. According to MacNeil (2005) the industrial factory model is no longer effective in today's climate; therefore, reform efforts have failed.

Definition of Supervision

Zepeda (2007a) characterized supervision as being comprised of three cyclical clusters: instructional supervision, evaluation, and professional development. Under the heading of instructional supervision, Zepeda included clinical supervision, differential supervision, developmental supervision, peer coaching, mentoring, and career stages. Zepeda also incorporated integrated professional development, as needed by individual teachers, into supervision, an inclusion that has been echoed by others describing professional development (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Fogarty & Pete, 2007; McQuarrie & Wood, 1991; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Zepeda, 2007a, 2007b). In looking at evaluation, Zepeda focused on the state and district mandates used to determine whether a teacher is to remain employed by the school. The processes of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation of teachers to improve the quality and character of education are all components of supervision (Koops & Winsor, 2005; Scriven, 1988; Zepeda, 2007a). Each of these clusters is discussed in depth below.

Instructional Supervision, Professional Development, and Evaluation

Instructional Supervision

Teacher supervision is “an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning” (Nolan & Hoover, 2008, p. 6). By Nolan and Hoover's definition, the main component is

instructional supervision. Instructional supervision is, simply put, the act of working professionally with teachers to determine what works best in the classroom and what needs to be improved (Zepeda, 2007a).

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision models are vehicles for improvements in instructional practices, and they are considered part of instructional supervision (Zepeda, 2007a). Clinical supervision came into the supervisory landscape when Goldhammer and Cogan published their works on clinical supervision in 1969 and 1973, respectively. The models have since been altered to suit different purposes, but all include some of the same basic elements of original clinical supervision.

Goldhammer (1969) identified five stages in clinical supervision. The first of these is the pre-observation conference. This is a meeting between teacher and supervisor before the observation to formalize a contract between the teacher and supervisor, establish rules for the observation, and develop a plan for observation. The second stage is the actual observation. During this stage data are collected by the supervisor, using the method agreed upon in the pre-observation conference. After the observation comes analysis and strategy. During this third stage the supervisor analyzes collected data and organizes it into an understandable format to present to the teacher. Patterns and major themes that arise are discussed in a post-observation conference, which is the fourth stage. At this conference, the teacher looks at the data and, with the assistance of the supervisor, draws conclusions from it. The fifth and final stage is post-observation conference analysis, in which the teacher and supervisor develop a plan of action for the next cycle of supervision. These stages then repeat, at regular intervals (Goldhammer, 1969;

Kosmoski, 1997; Neville & Garmon, 1998).

Cogan's (1973) work, published four years later, expanded Goldhammer's stages into eight phases of clinical supervision. The first of Cogan's phases is relationship building between teacher and supervisor. According to Cogan (1973), this phase is the most important of all the stages and the basis for successful clinical supervision. The relationship should be built on trust and a common goal of improving teaching. The second phase is planning for the lesson. At this stage, the teacher and supervisor plan the lesson together, developing all parts: expected outcomes, goals, objectives, activities, materials, and so on. Cogan's third phase is planning the observation strategy. This is equivalent to stage two of Goldhammer's model; both parties develop a plan for the collection of data, and the rules for the observation are established. The fourth phase is, as with Goldhammer's model, observing in the manner set forth in phase three. In phase five, the teaching-learning process is analyzed. This phase differs from Goldhammer in that Cogan believed the teacher and supervisor should analyze the data together. In the case of an inexperienced teacher, there may be a need for some coaching in data analysis. Phase six consists of planning the conferencing strategy. Both parties can participate in this stage, which is essentially developing a plan for the post-observation conference. Phase seven is the conference itself, wherein the teacher and supervisor meet to exchange ideas about the observed data. The last phase is renewed planning. This eighth phase is where the teacher and supervisor develop a plan for fixing problems and lay out a new plan for the teacher. The cycle then starts over again (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969).

Other writers on supervision have developed altered versions of the Goldhammer and Cogan models. For example, Acheson and Gail (1992) attempted to restructure the

models of Goldhammer and Cogan in order to simplify the process. They reduced clinical supervision to a three-phase process. The first phase is a planning conference, in which the teacher discusses his or her goals, needs, and objectives. Both parties compare the ideal teaching situation versus the performance of the teacher. A lesson is decided upon and then the terms of the observation are defined. Acheson and Gail's second phase is the observation, during which data is collected during the observation. The third and last phase in this model is the feedback conference. During this meeting, the teacher and supervisor analyze the data and develop goals to improve his or her teaching. This conference ends with the development of a plan for improvement in the next supervision cycle (Acheson & Gall, 1992, 2003; Duffy, 1998; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993).

Garman (1982) stressed personal empowerment in the clinical process, namely, how the process could affect teachers developing their own perceptions of good teaching. This method echoes the artistic styles in Eisner's (1982) work. He advocated relying less on scientific approaches and placing more emphasis on the art of the teaching process in clinical supervision. Hopkins and Moore (1993) expanded on clinical supervision, but they remained within the confines of Goldhammer's five stages, stressing the importance of classroom change being created by the teacher, not the supervisor. Hunter (1984) also developed another version of clinical supervision. Her model adhered to earlier ones; she included observation, data collection, post-observation conferences, and a period for correction. In addition, however, her model included a prescribed set of things good teachers do. Hunter (1988a) also advocated for conferencing with teachers and using several script taped observations to support the administrative recommendations in the post-observation conferencing period. She called for all parts of supervision models to be

tied to teacher skills and performance, which in turn should be tied to student learning. Her model is called *Instructional Theory into Practice* (I-TIP) (Duffy, 1998; Hunter, 1984).

A majority of studies on clinical supervision and different aspects of the models have focused on the teacher-supervisor relationship (Kilminster, Cottrell, Grant, & Jolly, 2007; Schoonmaker, Sawyer, & Brainard, 1998; Shantz & Brown, 1999; Smyth, 1984). Smyth (1984) identified clinical supervision as the method by which teachers are empowered to analyze their own teaching. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) discussed clinical supervision based on the partnership between teacher and supervisor. They emphasized the teacher's desire to improve and his or her ability to define good teaching, even though the teacher may need guidance in the interpretation and analysis of data. The main person responsible for the process is the teacher; the supervisor provides support.

Pajak (1993), Blasé and Blasé (2004), and Kelehear (2006) separated clinical supervision into four different classifications: original models, humanistic and artistic models, technical and didactic models, and developmental and reflective models. In doing this, Pajak (1993) was attempting to classify the different forms of clinical supervision that have surfaced since Goldhammer and Cogan's original works in 1969 and 1973, respectively. Several others have developed variations on the original clinical supervision, incorporating different characteristics of the teacher.

Clinical supervision implementation has varied. Each altered the phases or stages suggested by Goldhammer and Cogan (1969, 1973), but they all retain the common elements of pre-observation conferences, observation in the classroom, and a post-observation conference to give feedback and assist in planning. Andrews, Basom, and

Table 2

Variations on Clinical Supervision

<u>Title</u>	<u>Authors</u>
Differential supervision	Glatthorn, 1984
Developmental supervision	Glickman, 1985
Diagnostic supervision	Seager, 1978
Dimensions of Learning (DoL)	Brown, 1995
Cognitive coaching	Costa & Garmston, 1994; and Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988
Designing supervision based on the career stages of the teacher	Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser, 1998; Gocke & Threntham, 2001; Gupton, 2003; Hart, 1990; Ingersoll, 2002; Koops & Winsor, 2005; Marshall, 2005; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Oja & Reiman, 1998; Pajak & Tillman, 1987; Shantz & Brown, 1999; Stansbury, 2001; Van, Razska, & Kutzner, 2001; and Zepeda, 2007a
Gender	Shakesshaft, Nowell, & Perry, 1991
Right brain or left brain dominance by the teacher	Norris, 1991
Type of teaching style	Reinsmith, 1992
Area of certification	Cawelti, 2004; Cook, 1998; Fullan, 2002; and Glatthorn, 1998

Basom (1991) suggested that clinical supervision falls short in practice if the original models are not used.

Differentiated Supervision

Basing his efforts on Cogan and Goldhammer's seminal works, clinical supervision, Glatthorn (1984) developed ten professional development modules, calling his instructional supervision model *differentiated supervision*. Glatthorn included clinical supervision as one of the four options available to supervisors in differential supervision; the other options were cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring. Each of these can be used for different purposes and to supervise teachers at different stages of their development.

Developmental Supervision

Glickman's (1981) *developmental supervision model* is also based on Goldhammer's clinical supervision model, but Glickman focuses on teachers' cognitive development as facilitated by the supervisor. Glickman's model features three options for supervision: directive, collaborative, and nondirective. Which option to use was decided upon based on the teacher's performance and the data to be analyzed (Glickman, 1981).

Coaching

Within the larger realm of supervision, several models of coaching have also developed. Scriven (1988) believed that the key to successful formative evaluations was the use of mentors. Coaching and mentoring became a more and more important component in supervision, especially in the supervision of new teachers (Harris, 1998). One of the main works in this area was Costa's and Garmston's (1994) description of *cognitive coaching*. Three steps in clinical supervision, as defined by Cogan (1973), are used in this coaching model. Costa and Garmston focus on the use of language and relationship-building to foster cognitive development of teachers; however, their model is

not limited to the interactions defined by clinical supervision. There are several more events that constitute supervisory interactions. Cognitive coaching also focuses on changing the perceptions of the teacher, in order to build the capacity for change within them. The methods for coaching drew from the clinical supervision model and encouraged supervisors to move away from managing and more toward coaching as a supervisory method (Costa & Garmston, 1994).

Several variations on coaching have surfaced. Anderson and Snyder (1993) tied coaching and clinical supervision together in practice to better supervise teachers. Mentors have been referred to by several different names: consultants (Goldsberry, 1998), peer coaches (Gordon & Nicely, 1998; Valencia & Killion, 1988), and peer consultants (Acheson, Shamher, & Smith, 1998). Coaching itself has also been given different labels, according to the specifics of the method: technical coaching, collegial coaching, and challenge coaching (Garmston, 1987).

Goldsberry (1998) defined the function of coaching differently from that of mentoring. According to him, coaching occurs when a teacher has been specially trained or possesses specific knowledge about a program or teaching strategy and can thus give information and assistance to another teacher. Coaches can teach at inservices, visit classrooms, or conference with teachers about their specialty. Again, however, the coach has no supervisory responsibilities; he or she assists in improving instruction but does not formally evaluate it (Gewertz, 2008; Goldsberry, 1998; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Nolan & Hoover, 2008).

Coaching is another method that is defined differently in many pieces of literature. Peer coaching is described by Valencia and Killion (1988) as “the process where teams of

teachers regularly observe one another and provide support, companionship, feedback and assistance” (p. 170). A group of teachers mentoring one another was not a widespread variety of mentoring, but it is mentioned (Louis & Smith, 1990; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Valencia & Killion, 1988).

Garmston (1987) defined three different coaching models, the type of which depends on the purpose of the coaching: technical coaching, collegial coaching, and challenge coaching. Technical coaching aims to improve a teacher’s training; it usually occurs after staff development to reinforce the training received. Collegial coaching focuses on specific teaching methods, usually areas the teacher has requested help on improving. The last model, challenge coaching, assists teachers in developing plans and strategies to fix issues in the classroom the coach noted (Garmston, 1987).

Action Research

Action research is an extension of the coaching and mentoring methods. This term refers to groups of teachers working together to resolve problems or improve systems in schools by doing research and discussing results (Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Zepeda, 2007a). The roots of action research can be traced as far back as John Dewey; most historians of the industry agree that Kurt Lewin developed action research in late 1930s (Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Sometimes there was little actual research involved, but instead, groups worked together to share ideas and develop new theories about what would improve the situations in schools (Zepeda, 2007a). Because these groups generated discussions and invigorated the members, they are considered part of the methodology used to improve schools and supervision and could be considered part of peer coaching and mentoring (Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Gocke & Threntham,

2001).

Summary of Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision of teachers varies from person to person and school to school. It takes on many forms and can include myriad things. Several methods and models can easily be categorized as professional development. Because instructional supervision and professional development go hand and hand, several aspects of each blur conceptual boundaries and can be argued to belong to either realm (Zepeda, 2007a).

Professional Development

Zepeda (2007a) indicated that professional development should be determined by the individual needs of the teachers being supervised. According to Harris (1998), most training models do not focus on individuals because they have been designed for groups; the groups could be large (encompassing the entire faculty) or small (learning groups).

The definition of professional development given by Harris (1998) is:

1. Promoting effective teaching practices
2. Providing for continuous personal and professional growth
3. Changing the character of the school and teaching (p. 12)

These functions can also be termed in-service education, staff development, organizational renewal, or human resource development. The term *in-service education* was introduced into supervision by the 1960s; the term *staff development* began to appear in the 1970s (Gordon & Nicely, 1998). Iwanicki (1998) defined supervision as the fostering of student learning and meaningful professional development. In a study done of 1,075 educational supervisors in schools, 88.2% of those surveyed believed that staff development was the second most important dimension of the supervisory practice

(Badiali, 1998).

According to Sergiovanni (1995),

Teacher development and supervision go hand and hand. Principals have a responsibility to help teachers improve their practice and to hold them accountable for meeting their commitments to teaching and learning. These responsibilities are usually referred to as supervision. Done well, supervision enhances teacher development (p. 212).

Instructional supervision is closely linked to staff development. It has become clear that continuous improvement in methods and skills is essential to success in many different professions, and so the development of teachers has become more and more important in supervision (Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Carter, 2001; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2007a). Several links have been made between good supervision and staff development (e.g. Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Carter, 2001; Cooley & Shen, 2003; McQuarrie & Wood, 1991; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2007a). Professional development is best used when it is part of a larger supervisory scheme (e.g. Blair, 1991; Fuhrman & Odden, 2001; Fullan, 2002; Harris, 1998; Kosmoski, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sparks, 2002; Tucker, 2003; Zepeda, 2007a).

Professional Development in Response to Federal Mandates

Influences from outside the school, such as federal legislation and recommendations from committees, have impacted the growth and practice of professional development activities in schools. Whenever changes are mandated by an outside agency, it becomes a function of supervisors to incorporate these changes into the supervisory practice (Hazi,

1998). In recent years, professional development activities have increased in order to raise student achievement as a result of the publication of *A Nation at Risk*. The Eisenhower funding program, implemented in 1985, wanted to improve math and science education and provided for professional development to do so (Achilles & Tienken, 2005). In 1989, President George H. W. Bush held an educational summit with business executive and governors to determine what progress had been made in education since *A Nation at Risk's* release. The result of the conference became the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act*. One of President Bush's resulting goals was to provide more professional development of teacher (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Achilles & Tienken, 2005).

President George W. Bush's administration developed *The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*, which increased school administrations' responsibility to improve student achievement, retain high-quality teachers, and guide school practices in sound research. *No Child Left Behind* called on schools to improve the quality of instruction; many states increased professional development efforts in response (Achilles & Tienken, 2005). Administrators saw the continuous growth of students and staff as central to the vision of strong school leadership. Due to the focus of testing in *No Child Left Behind*, staff development became necessary to meet the needs of students specifically, rather than simply a means to educate teachers in general (Tallerico, 2005). When Virginia met the requirements of *No Child Left Behind* by implementing the Standards of Learning criteria-referenced test, principals reported the steps their schools took to prepare students for the new standards for which they were accountable. In order to prepare the teachers and students for the tests, principals facilitated professional development on test-taking skills: they reported communicating teachers' needs to the central office, working with

teachers on testing and preparation for tests, and allowing departments time to plan for test preparation strategies (Grogan & Roland, 2003). Thus, in Virginia, professional development took the lead in preparing for, and improving student performance on, the assessments. According to Blasé and Blasé (2004), “The message from the national, state, and local levels has long been clear: teacher development is central to school improvement, educational reform, and the attainment of high levels of student achievement” (p. 196).

Professional Development Attributes

In the *Dimensions of Supervisory Practices*, Pajak (1998) developed a ranking of the importance placed on supervision activities, as perceived by practitioners and scholars. Practitioners singled out staff development as the most important activity in supervision; scholars also ranked it number one. The current political climate of high-stakes testing and standards has pushed staff development further into the forefront of education (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Professional development can include a variety of activities, such as: assigned readings, behavior modeling, simulation, case discussion, conferencing, lecturing, on the job learning, programmed instruction, role playing, sensitivity training, or vestibule training (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). The focuses of professional development are the study of teaching and learning, collaboration, coaching relationships, action research, provision of resources, education about the principles of adult learning, and/or the advancement of all phases of professional development (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). To reach the goal of improved student learning, teacher preparation and development need to be approached as life-long learning. High standards must be maintained for students, and the focus must remain on effective practices linked to

student learning. Teacher expertise and leadership should also be utilized at all levels (Blasé & Blasé, 2004).

Coppola, Scricca, and Connors (2004) created the *Supportive Schools Model*, which integrates goal setting, lesson planning, observation, professional development, an extensive professional commitment, and an *End-of-Year Evaluation* to create a *supportive supervisor* in their system (Coppola, Scricca, & Connors, 2004). One component of supportive supervision is professional development. Based on the observed needs of the staff, professional development serves as an integral part of supervision and connects the other components of the Supportive Schools Model (goal setting, observations, and lesson planning) (Coppola, Scricca, & Connors, 2004).

Gordon and Nicely (1998) developed three different orientations of staff development: (a) transmission orientation, (b) transaction orientation, and (c) transformation orientation. Transmission orientation takes place when information is given to teachers from outside sources. This is usually followed by classroom observation and remediation of the learning, if needed. Transactional orientation focuses on a teacher's own reflection and problem solving. Transformation orientation is representative of a humanistic approach and cultural-change approach. The humanistic approach deals with self-directed growth by the teacher, while the cultural-change approach focuses on changes in the norms, values, and assumptions of the organization. Assessing the needs of the teachers is the first step in planning professional development. Such an assessment includes an organizational analysis, an operational analysis, and an individual analysis (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). Gordon and Nicely (1998) also distinguished six different levels of staff development: international, national and

regional, state and intermediate, district, school, and individual.

Tallerico (2005) assigned categories to describe the types of professional development a school might need: (a) individually guided, (b) collaborative problem solving, (c) observation and assessment of teaching, (d) training, and (e) action research. Individually guided professional development focuses on the teacher determining his or her own needs and goals. Collaborative problem solving entails two or more teachers' needs being address together. Observation and assessment of teaching describes teachers observing one another and helping one another assess needs and goals. Training professional development involves experts facilitating teachers' learning. Lastly, in action research professional development, one or more teachers identifies a problem, researches possible solutions, gathers data, and implements changes according to their findings (Tallerico, 2005).

In-service training differs from professional development in that in-service training focuses on renewal, teaching, reteaching, and reinforcing educational pedagogy (Holland, 1998). Glickman's (1985) model of developmental supervision relates the in-service to a teacher's ability to think abstractly. Glickman uses different models and techniques to correspond with different levels of abstract thought: high, middle and low.

Mentoring can be treated as a separate category from coaching. Mentoring differs from peer consultation in that one party has a greater degree of knowledge (Acheson, Shamher, & Smith, 1998; Marable & Raimondi, 2007). While peer consultation connotes equals working together, the term *mentoring* indicates that one person has more knowledge or experience, or both, which he or she can draw upon to help a less experienced teacher.

Mentoring can evolve naturally in a school, whenever a faculty member with more teaching experience takes another, less-experienced teacher under their wing. This natural tendency can also be fostered by assigning mentors. Supervisors have often used the concept of mentoring to assist new teachers in developing their craft (Goldsberry, 1998). One teacher is typically paired with another who teaches the same subject, and the mentored teachers can thereby receive guidance about classroom issues, management, and instructional strategies (Gordon & Nicely, 1998).

Whether assigned by a supervisor or drawn naturally into the mentoring relationship, mentors have no supervisory powers. These people are not charged with formally evaluating teachers' qualifications or actions. Instead, mentors act in a supporting role to assist teachers by using their own experiences to improve the learning curve of the mentee (Goldsberry, 1998).

Professional Development Implementation

Creating staff development encompasses several steps. Oliva (1989) suggested that staff development included both staff development and individual development. He added that there should be planning, implementation, and evaluation of both the staff development and the individual's use of the information gathered during their own professional development (Oliva, 1989). Several different activities can help teachers learn or renew knowledge that will assist them in professional and, sometimes, in personal growth. Examples include workshops, study groups, courses, professional development center projects, group therapy, simulations, gaming, sensitivity training, cooperative learning, mentoring, and computer-based programs (Harris, 1998). Supervisors need to participate in, guide, assist with, encourage, facilitate, and provide

resources for staff development (Kosmoski, 1997; Zepeda, 2007b).

Zepeda (2007b) outlined programs and activities for teachers that shape school culture using professional development. She emphasized that teachers are central to students' learning. Ideally, the entire school community should be involved in professional development activities. Zepeda (2007b) stated that professional development needs to be individualized as well as collegial; however, the ultimate goal of professional development is organizational improvement. Professional development activities should respect and nurture the intellect of the participants and promote leadership in teachers and all members of the community. Best practices based on research should be used and teacher expertise should increase with the learning strategies and technology incorporated. Professional development should be associated with high standards, inquiries, and improvements that are stressed daily. Professional development activities should be planned collaboratively, and they should be allotted the time and resources they require. The professional development activities should be part of a long-term plan and evaluated in terms of how it affects instruction, and should always, ultimately, be guided by how it can help improve student learning (Zepeda, 2007b).

Hall and Shieh (1998) developed and advocated for a hybrid organization development as part of supervision. They offer nine strategies for their hybrid model and argued that one naturally leads to the other: (a) work toward personal growth and organizational renewal; (b) teachers being taught and empowered to make decisions; (c) individual needs with the needs of the organization being aligned; (d) constructive culture; (e) organizational development as a long-term goal; (f) using structural change to promote efficiency; (g) changing values and assumptions of the group in order to

internalize the goals and objectives of the organization; (h) is using behavioral science models to change teaching; and (i) using supervision as a catalyst for change instead of as a watchdog approach.

Whitaker (2003) found that principals who promoted the effectiveness of individual teachers, apart from the whole, were more effective. He advocated for individualized staff development, which, ultimately, would have a positive influence on the whole group. Sparks (2004) established that structural and cultural functions could inhibit professional development from being successful and the approach to professional development needs to be different than it has been in the past. Hunter (1998a) asserts that there should be a long-term plan for supervision spanning several years. Hunter supported staff development, coaching, and evaluation as integral parts of the long-term plan. Zepeda (2007b) also reinforced the long-term planning needed for efficient professional development. The teachers and supervisor work in tandem to develop a plan and implement it (Achilles & Tienken, 2005).

In order to fulfill the needs of teachers and students, evaluation of the ongoing professional development activities has become crucial (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008). This evaluation also serves as a springboard for future planning and follow-up on professional development activities (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008; Zepeda, 2007b). According to Bradley (1987), a training model's purpose is fourfold:

1. the teacher's improved performance in the present job;
2. the enhancement of the teacher's prospects of career development;
3. the teacher being able to help the school strengthen its present performance;
4. the school being able to prepare itself to meet future demands on it. (p. 192)

Justification for Professional Development

Teacher improvement is a product of high-quality professional development. For teachers to be prepared to meet new standards and accountability measures currently being imposed on schools, professional development has become essential (Heinecke, Curry-Corcoran, & Moon, 2003). According to Tucker (2003), there needs to be a change in the supervision and evaluation of teachers. Supervision and evaluation should be used as a launch pad for professional development using the *Standards of Learning* described in her work. Peer collaboration needs to increase so that teachers can discuss teaching methods with one another. In light of low passing rates, there needs to be a focus on techniques and resources that can result in better student test scores (Tucker, 2003). School-based professional learning communities include the collaboration and support of teachers to encourage student learning (Greenfield, 2005). Professional development needs to encompass a community of learners dedicated to the high achievement of students (Sparks, 2004). Traditional methods of individual teachers working in isolation have not been successful, and it has become clear there is a need to work together to meet needs of students (Greenfield, 2005). According to Cawelti (2004), high-performing districts have several attributes in common, one of which is that they had adopted a new approach to professional development. The professional development offered in these high-performing districts is research-based, uses experts from within the system, serves as support for new teachers, and has financial resources available to fund professional development activities (Cawelti, 2004).

Summary of Professional Development

Professional development can take many forms and includes many features.

Effective professional development is clearly linked to improved student performance. Several districts have made professional development part of their evaluation systems (Nolan & Hoover, 2008; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002), which leads to the last component of Zepeda's (2007a) supervision cycle.

Teacher Evaluation

Evaluation is usually a pre-established set of criteria by which all teachers are judged; there are no individualized considerations or cooperation by groups of teachers to evaluate (Harris, 1998). Nolan and Hoover (2008) defined evaluation as, "An organizational function designed to make comprehensive judgments concerning teacher performance and competence for the purpose of personnel decisions such as tenure and continued employment" (p. 6).

Teacher evaluation usually includes value judgments about performance, uses a rating scale, and is used to determine continued employment (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988). Such evaluations are usually mandated by the governing body and include prescribed criteria for how to determine if a teacher is qualified to retain employment (Kelehear, 2006; Zepeda, 2007a).

Evaluation in Response to State Mandates

At the time of Dagley and Veir's (2002) writing, forty-one states had statutes regarding teacher evaluations. Most, however, do not link teacher evaluation with professional development or supervision. According to Hazi (1998), classroom observations are the most regulated area of supervision. Prior to the 1960s, supervision and evaluation of teachers were left to local entities and there was no interference from state and federal influences; teaching positions were considered to be "at-will" (Hazi,

1998). Currently, three levels of government contribute guidance in developing teacher evaluations: federal, state, and local. On the national level, Supreme Court cases and legislation influence teacher evaluation. State laws and court cases also impacted and shaped the evaluation, as do school code and administrative regulations. At the local level, evaluation procedures are influenced by bargaining agreements, school board policies, and employee grievance resolutions (Hazi, 1998; National Education Association, 1988). The main reason given for evaluations is to improve teaching, and it is logical to assume that a quality teacher leads to learning better students. This assumption has led to licensure, teacher certification, and legislative requirements in teacher evaluations (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988).

States have required evaluations be done within a certain time frame and be repeated at certain intervals. Once there were established guidelines for the evaluation process, districts developed criteria for visitations, conferencing, teacher evaluations, and complaints, which were used universally in the particular district or school. Probationary teachers were an exemption as they required more visitations, conferencing, and evaluations (Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Gupton, 2003; Hazi, 1998; Killian & Post, 1998; National Education Association, 1988).

According to Glatthorn (1998), forty-five states had formal evaluation systems in place 1998. Factors influencing supervision in schools have included external systems, the school's culture, structural elements within the school, instructional technology, and staffing. Supervisors formulate evaluations according to district, state, and federal guidelines, but this was a behind-the-scenes administrative task which teachers never participated (Glatthorn, 1998; National Education Association, 1988).

Models for Teacher Evaluation

In the 1960s and 1970s, several grants were awarded to examine the evaluation systems used in schools (Iwanicki, 1998). Several models and suggestions were discussed and recommendations were made. In the early 1980s, teacher evaluation came under scrutiny with the publication of *A Nation at Risk* (1983). Certification programs and teacher preparation changed as a result of the new publication, and teacher evaluations were examined as well. The problem with instituting prescribed changes was that the models set forth were too generic to be applicable to all situations (Iwanicki, 1998).

Iwanicki (1998) described three ways teacher evaluations historically have been viewed:

- Past: evaluation focuses on rating teachers on the basis of style or trait criteria
- Present: evaluation focuses on analyzing teaching on the basis of acceptable practices
- Future: evaluation focuses on analyzing teaching on the basis of what students learn (p. 155)

The main purpose of teacher evaluations is to make sure that a teacher's performance is consistent with established standards. Also, by establishing a set curriculum, supervisors assumed that a teacher will follow the criteria in the curriculum and leave nothing requiring scrutiny (Iwanicki, 1998).

Evaluations were established to determine a teacher's adherence to teaching procedures and practices. The skills are documented and matched to criteria for what is

thought to be good teaching (Iwanicki, 1998). Killian and Post (1998) termed this *scientific supervision*. They defined scientific supervision as “the process of systematically observing and analyzing instruction to determine the teacher’s effectiveness in achieving predetermined outcomes” (p. 1032). Killian and Post (1998) traced scientific supervision back to the early 1900s when scientific management influenced businesses and naturally began working its way into education. Evidence of this shift is still traceable in schools in supervision, rating scales, and merit pay.

Teacher evaluation usually relies on a rating scale. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) gave three main reasons for performance appraisals: (a) to determine the effectiveness of personnel using a standard scale; (b) to make decisions about compensation, promotions, transfers, demotions, and termination; (c) to determine the professional development needs of the staff. States and school districts traditionally endorse formal rating scales to determine whether a teacher has the skills required to be certified and/or offered continued employment. The purpose of these rating scales is evaluative, or summative. Acheson and Gail (2003) stated that evaluation rating scales need to be made known to the teacher ahead of time. Evaluation systems should have standard criteria, several data sources, communication, and feedback, and teachers should be able to affect the criteria in some way (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988).

Components of a Teacher Evaluation

A typical evaluation contains a variety of information and criteria. Acheson and Gail (2003) listed eleven items typically measured in teacher evaluation instruments:

1. the teacher’s ability to teach content accurately;
2. the teacher’s learning outcomes, which should be explicit to students;

3. lower-cognitive and higher-cognitive objectives in instruction;
4. the teacher's use of curriculum materials and technology appropriate for the lessons' objectives;
5. the teacher's ability to motivate students to achieve the lesson's objective;
6. the use of a variety of teaching strategies;
7. the effectiveness of the teacher in dealing with classroom management issues;
8. the teacher's use of feedback on students' performance and reteaching, if needed;
9. the teacher's ability to maintain a positive, cooperative classroom climate;
10. whether the teacher adjusts instruction appropriately for unexpected events and time constraints; and
11. the regular assessment of student progress and achievement.

Acheson and Gail (2003) also stressed the importance of having a rationale for each item assessed, which is explained to the teacher before the evaluation. Other items measured in evaluations could include whether the teacher prepares coherent and complete lesson plans; to what extent the teacher demonstrates ethical, professional behavior; how the teacher contributed to his or her colleagues' development and to the school as an organization; how effective the teacher's communicates with parents and other members of the community; and whether the teacher demonstrates continued professional development. A typical evaluation tool would include a five-to-seven point

scale to judge the teacher's effectiveness in each area (Acheson & Gail, 2003).

Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) defined three categories of appraisal reports. The first, which they term the *judgmental approach*, rates employees' traits or behaviors against those of other employees. It usually includes a graphic rating scale, ranking, paired comparison, and/or forced distribution. The next category, the *absolute standards approach*, compares employees to predefined standards. This approach could include a checklist, essays, and/or critical incidents, and it utilizes behaviorally anchored rating scales. Finally, the *results-oriented approach* measures how well established goals have been attained as the main criteria for evaluations (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2008).

Coppola, Scricca, and Connors (2004) created the Supportive Schools Model, which incorporates an evaluation piece. In their model, the End-of-Year Evaluation includes an introduction and factual data, instructional strengths and recommendations, professional growth and recommendations, extracurricular activities and recommendations, and a summary with a rating. The End-of-Year Evaluation is part of a larger scheme of supervision.

Hunter (1988a) developed a diagnostic tool to assist supervisors in evaluating teacher performance. She asserts that the summative evaluation should have a set criteria, utilize a known instrument, be based on data, and include goals for the next year. Her system of evaluation prescribed professional development based on a criteria assessment of performance. She married the concepts of assisting and assessing teachers in her program. Initially, the teachers and supervisor work together, while the supervisor assists the teacher with clinical supervision and professional development recommendations. Afterwards, the teacher is assessed by the supervisor to finalize the evaluation process.

According to McGreal (1988), teacher evaluation is successful when it has four components: a clear criterion, opportunities for teacher involvement in the system, multiple sources of data, and feedback activities that are incorporated into the system.

Lee (1991) and Kelly (1999) both argued that classroom observations and evaluations are not enough. These strategies by themselves simply do not work to improve teaching and learning (Zepeda, 2007a). By themselves, evaluation checklists have little effect on improving poor teachers, and good teachers view the evaluation alone as a waste of time. Furthermore, several great ratings on evaluation instruments did not positively affect teachers or inspire them to become better at their craft (Whitaker, 2003). More is needed to help teachers bridge the gap between classroom observations and educational strategies (Kelly, 1999; Lee, 1991; Reitzug, 1997; Zepeda, 2007a).

Summary of Evaluation

Looking at evaluation purely as a way to determine a teacher's effectiveness according to established standards of performance is a narrow way to determine if students in a specific teacher's class are learning. Teacher evaluations are a required component of supervision in most states; however, alone, they are not an effective way to improve instruction. Several teacher evaluation tools reflect attempts to combine the elements included in professionalism and bureaucracy. Popham (1998) suggested that summative and formative evaluations systems be combined into *Judgment-Based Teacher Evaluation*. This system uses collective professional judgment and multiple sources of evidence to determine the final evaluation. Although there are mandates for summative teacher evaluations in almost every state, there has been no evidence that summative teacher evaluations improve instruction (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988).

Summary

Supervision has been defined as a way to improve teaching and thereby increase student learning using diverse approaches (Gocke & Threntham, 2001; Harris, 1998; Holland, 1998; Hyman, 1975; Pfeiffer, 1998; Zepeda, 2007a). Zepeda suggested a holistic and cyclical way of supervising teachers, an approach that includes instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation. Using these concepts together provides larger lenses with which to supervise teachers and a more appropriate approach to supervision. Using each part in isolation is not as effective a method. Furthermore, basing a system entirely on bureaucratic or professionalism methodologies lacks in comparison to a system that takes advantage of the contrast in both approaches. Using both professional and bureaucratic means provides a larger scope of supervision from which to analyze the process of supervising teachers. This study will determine what combinations of these concepts are used nationwide in the supervision of teachers.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction and Review of Study

Supervising of teachers is a significant part of an administrator's duties. The aim of teacher supervision is to improve teachers' effectiveness and increase student learning in the classroom. There are several different methods of supervision that can be employed to meet these goals. This study examines the supervision methods used nationally by surveying two administrators from each state.

Statement of the Problem

The history of supervision is complex and many ideas have been used and reused in efforts to understand how teachers teach, how to improve their teaching, and, ultimately, how learning occurs in schools. Tracy (1998) described supervision as the function that brings together the separate elements of instruction's effectiveness, such as teacher development, into the scope of whole-school effectiveness. She went on to say that "supervision must create a link between individual teacher needs and school goals, which is a function that does not happen by chance" (p. 86).

Several movements throughout the history of education in the United States have formed the different ideas and philosophies that guide teacher supervision today. A dichotomy exists today in the nature of supervision. There are two main competing ideas

of how and why supervision should be done: professionalism and bureaucracy. The educational pendulum has swung back and forth from one emphasis to the other from the mid-nineteenth century until the present.

Identified in the 1890s, bureaucracy in supervision describes the attempt to develop and use a scientific system to analyze and evaluate teachers. Bureaucratic supervision involves a checklist or set of criteria by which teachers are evaluated. As in Weber's (1947) definition of bureaucracies, there are defined roles, a hierarchy of authority, impersonal orientation, separation of ownership, and rules and regulations (Glanz, 1998; Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993).

Professionalism was also ushered in during the 1890's as part of the Progressive Movement in education. Like those in the business world, educational administrators attempted to gain recognition for their role in society as professionals. This movement grew into the idea that teachers and administrators should be recognized for their professionalism and abilities in the field (Glanz, 1998). Professionalism incorporated democratic ideals and processes into the methodologies of supervising teachers (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1993). This movement has resulted in several models of supervision that take into account the ideas and needs of both teachers and administrators.

These two, bureaucracy and professionalism, can be placed on a continuum. Professionalism would be on the left and would include teacher development and assistance, and bureaucracy would appear on the right and would include bureaucratic organizational development and teacher evaluation (Tracy, 1998). Several models are an amalgamation of the two. Whether or not an administrator accepts one model or another is based on three factors. According to Joyce and Weil (1980), first, the supervisor must

understand the goal and the purpose of the model. Second, the supervisor must have a clear picture of his or her own theoretical assumptions about supervision. Last, the supervisor must agree with the major concepts and principals in the model. Bureaucracy and professionalism will be looked at to determine which is the most commonly used by principals today.

Along with the above-mentioned items that affect supervision, time is also a major factor. Administrators have many different duties; as a result, evaluation and supervision are sometimes not their top priority. Other duties may take precedence, so predesigned tools for evaluation are used to make evaluation a quicker and easier process. These tools, however, leave much to be desired in their ability to help teachers improve their craft and refine their skills. Teachers, in many cases, are left to determine their abilities and excel in their work through their own means.

Zepeda (2007a) offered a cyclical view of supervision, which includes instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation as parts of the entire supervision process. Using Zepeda's supervision process as a guide, this study will determine the current uses of the components she described in her work.

Purpose of the Study

The goal of this study is to understand one of the most important roles given to administrators: the process of supervising teachers. Even though there are a number of models and definitions found in the literature, no study has dealt with how the practices are perceived, what models are in use, and in what form. This study examines the importance given to instructional supervision, evaluation, and professional development

yielding an understanding of the current emphasis placed on bureaucratic and professional methods of teacher supervision throughout the nation.

Research Questions

This study is guided by the following questions:

- What are principals' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What are teachers' perceptions of supervision processes used in schools?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by principals: bureaucracy or professionalism?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by teachers: bureaucracy or professionalism?

This research will use existing data collected from a cross-sectional survey administered in 2004, as part of a doctoral project. The survey was named the Instructional Leadership Inventory (ILI) (Appendix A). The survey asked principals, along with three teachers they supervised, to determine the supervisory practices used in schools across the nation. The survey asked a variety of questions related to instructional leadership. Items on the ILI were related to three topics:

1. Principals' knowledge base about classroom instruction,
2. Principals' knowledge and practice relevant to professional development,
and
3. Principals' supervision practices.

This study will analyze data specifically related to supervision. The supervision components of the survey were composed of ten demographic questions, 31 questions

answered using a Likert-scale, and nine open-ended questions. Supervision questions are divided into two subcategories: professionalism and bureaucracy. The questions are also analyzed by three categories defined by Zepeda (2007a): instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation.

Sample

For this study, secondary and elementary administrators from each of the fifty states were included in the sample population. This was a sample of convenience and data depended on volunteers from the sample population completing the survey (O'Leary, 2004). Descriptive research was used to ascertain the principals' supervisory practices. The questionnaire itself was developed as a doctoral project under the supervision of Dr. Patti Chance, Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. A team of three doctoral students developed the questionnaire to survey administrators and teachers regarding instructional leadership practices. For this research, two groups of "Principals of the Year" were used: those honored by the National Association of Secondary Principals (NASSP) and those honored by the National Elementary Association of School Principals (NEASP) for the 2003-2004 school year. The administrators were assumed to be average in their application and knowledge of instructional supervision. From this sample, a picture of the evaluation and supervision methods used can be developed. By surveying both the supervisor and the people being supervised, a more accurate representation of the models and methods can be gained.

Design of the Study

A survey packet was sent to each principal's school, containing one survey for the principal and three surveys for teachers whom the principal supervised. The teachers filling out the surveys were to be from different subject areas and/or grade levels. The ILI asked participants respond to items related to administrative supervision activities, including questions about professionalism, bureaucracy, instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation of teachers. Responses were received from approximately 60% of the surveys sent out. Because the survey was done on such a large scale, generalization from the results is valid (Nardi, 2003). Sending four surveys to each school, one for the principal and three for teachers, helped ensure that the results were accurate as to the model and method of supervision used at the site.

Instrumentation

Exploratory research was defined by Nardi (2003) as research to get a rough sense of what is happening on a particular topic for which we do not yet have enough information. In order to gain a general sense of the supervision methods and practices, exploratory research was used. Surveys have several traits, as described by Alreck and Settle (1985); they are comprehensive, can range from simple to complex, and can be customized to meet the time and amount of money available to do them. Surveys are also versatile in their method of delivery and flexible in their level of complexity or simplicity to analyze. Last, surveys are efficient ways to gather data (Alreck and Settle, 1985).

This sample, principals' of the year chosen by the NASSP and the NEASP, was purposeful and convenient. The method for the survey was a self-administered, mailed

survey. There were two surveys developed, one for principals and one for teachers. The ILI instrument contained questions relating to classroom instruction, professional development, and perceptions of supervisory practices. For the purpose of this study, items related to supervision were analyzed, including professionalism, bureaucracy, instructional leadership, professional development, and evaluation. The principal survey included questions about the administrators' supervisory practices. The teacher survey asked about the teachers' perceptions of the principal's supervisory practices. The principal's survey had ten demographic questions; the teacher's survey had nine demographic questions. The surveys for both principals and teachers contained 31 supervision questions using the following scale: 1 (*not at all*); 2 (*slight extent*); 3 (*no opinion*); 4 (*some extent*); and 5 (*great extent*). Nine open-ended questions concluded the surveys (see Appendixes A and B, respectively, for complete surveys). Approval and permission for the data collection was obtained from the University of Nevada, Las Vegas Social and Behavior Sciences Committee to use human subjects in this research in 2003.

Before the surveys were sent to the sample population, they were reviewed by experts in instructional leadership to determine if the questions were appropriate for the purpose of the study. Two people served as reviewers: Dr. George Pawlas, Professor of Educational Leadership at the University of Florida, and Dr. Sally Zepeda, Professor of Educational Leadership at the University of Georgia. This expert review helped to determine the credibility, conformability, and dependability of the survey. Recommendations and changes indicated by the reviewers were incorporated into the final survey.

A pilot study was done with teachers and administrators in the Las Vegas area in 2004 to determine the readability and clarity of the survey. The survey was administered to a small group. This pilot study produced recommendations for changes, which were incorporated into the survey to ensure it was readable, unambiguous, and focused on the data needed.

Data Collection

The initial survey was sent out via the U.S. Postal Service to all the principals. The mailing included: a cover letter (Appendix C) to the principals, the principals' survey (Appendix A), a cover letter for the teachers' surveys (Appendix D), and surveys for three teachers supervised by the principal (Appendix B). The teachers were selected by the principals, who were asked to choose a variety of teachers for the task. Four weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder card was sent through the mail to all principals who had not responded, as well as to principals whose teachers had not yet responded. If the teachers or the principals still had not responded eight weeks after the initial survey was sent, a letter to those who had not responded and another set of appropriate surveys was sent in the mail. Another reminder card was mailed two weeks after the second survey was mailed if responses were still not received. The survey authors estimated that a 50% to 60% return rate would be adequate for valid survey results (Rea & Parker, 1997); 57% of principals responded and 45% of the teachers responded.

Analysis of Data

A total of 31 questions made up the supervision part of the survey. Questions on both

surveys, principal and teacher, were categorized as suggesting either a professional or bureaucratic approach. There were thirteen questions defining a professionalism view and twelve questions defining a bureaucratic view. The questions were further categorized into the three interrelated areas defining supervision for this study: instructional supervision, professional development, or evaluation (Appendix E). There were ten questions related to instructional supervision; ten questions related to professional development; and ten questions related to evaluation. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean were determined. An independent sample t-test and a Levene's Test for Equality of Variances with a 95% confidence intervals was used to determine the correlation between the principals' and teachers' responses. Frequencies of answers given by teachers and administrators were analyzed, as well as demographic differences base on secondary and elementary responses and the responses based on degree held by the principal. The open-ended questions were qualitatively analyzed to determine patterns and significant themes in the answers.

Significance of the Study

This study began as initial data collection tool to be used as a springboard for other qualitative and quantitative research on supervision practices. Several pieces of literature emphasize the need for a link between instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation practices, but there is no current research as to what combination of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation is in place at schools currently.

Limitations

The age of the data is one limitation. The original survey was sent in December 2004, with follow-ups through February 2005. The practices described could have changed according to new laws and statutes in each state, the perceptions of the participants, and/or the practices used. This limitation cannot be avoided; however, it is ameliorated due to the level of accuracy and the sample size used.

We can assume that the data collected from the sample was valid and could be applied to a broader range of principal practices used in the United States. Although the sample was an accessible population chosen for convenience, the principals and teachers surveyed are representative of those throughout the United States.

The survey research has its limitations as well. As in all surveys, there is an assumption that characteristics or beliefs can be described or measured accurately using self-reporting. We also must assume that answers were honest and accurate as to the methods employed.

Summary

This study attempts to fill gaps in research regarding the emphasis placed on professionalism or bureaucratic approaches to supervision, as well as the practices and methods actually used in the supervision of teachers. This study may shed light on principals' and teachers' perceptions and beliefs about supervision, as well as perceptions of supervisory practices. Future research may use findings from this study to launch additional studies that may correlate supervision practices to school effectiveness. This

study may also inform educational leadership preparation programs about current practices in teacher supervision by identifying current gaps or needs in administrative practice.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

For the last five years, much of the emphasis in education has been on meeting the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2003. Principals have been ordered to raise test scores to meet standards, which increase yearly, as established by the law. With the stress placed on using research-based practices and disaggregation of test results into several subgroups, principals are attempting to find new ways to motivate, accelerate, and teach students in all areas and in all subgroups. With the threat of a state takeover for schools that reach their fifth year in the category of “needs improvement”, principals are under increased pressure to reach the yearly goals set for achievement. Teachers are also feeling the accountability of the system in the form of pressure from their administration to increase test scores. Supervision is tool to improve the teachers’ craft, and, it follows, improve learning, so that benchmarks can be attained.

Several methods and models are used to supervise teachers. Two categories form opposite sides of a continuum: the approaches of professionalism and bureaucracy. During the history of teacher supervision in the United States, professionalism and bureaucracy have emerged as the two major theoretical viewpoints to teacher supervision. Over time, there have been shifts from one end of the continuum to the other, depending on social movements, areas of focus, and research available. In 1993, Tracy and

MacNaughton coined the term *human development phase* for the current professionalism period in teacher supervision. As recently as 2002, Sergiovanni and Starratt affirmed that professionalism was the dominant approach and named the era the *human resources supervision period*. It remains a question as to whether the professionalism approaches described are still dominant, or if a change in teacher supervision is presently occurring because of *No Child Left Behind*. This research looks to find an answer to whether professionalism or bureaucracy currently dominates teacher supervision in schools, as reported by administrators and teachers.

Because of the major focus on raising test scores so that by 2011 all students are proficient, improving an educators' ability to teacher all students has become paramount. Several new methods, and a revisiting of old methods, of supervision have been developed that are touted to increase teacher proficiency. Zepeda (2007a) developed a three-pronged method she recommends to improve teacher's effectiveness through supervision. Zepeda's (2007a) three components are instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation. She recommends combining these three prongs into a balanced supervision system has the greatest benefit for teachers and, in the long run, students. This research looks to discover the current emphasis placed on each of the three methods in schools, as reported by principals and teachers.

Instrumentation and Research Questions

Methodology

This study was conducted using survey research. One survey was developed for principals, and one was developed for teachers. These surveys, the Instructional

Leadership Surveys (ILI), were composed of 10 demographic questions, 84 Likert-Scales questions, and 11 open-ended questions for each group. Participants had the following scale choices: 1 (*not at all*); 2 (*slight extent*); 3 (*no opinion*); 4 (*some extent*); and 5 (*great extent*).

Nine open-ended questions concluded the surveys (see Appendixes A and B, respectively, for complete surveys). For the purposes of this study, the scale was changed for data to be accurately calculated. The scale changed to: 0 (*no opinion*), 1 (*not at all*), 2 (*slight extent*), 3 (*some extent*), 4 (*great extent*), and “u,” to indicate no response was given or the response could not be determined.

Of the 84 Likert-scale questions, a total of 31 questions dealt with supervision. Questions on both surveys, principal and teacher, were categorized as suggesting either a professional or a bureaucratic approach. There were 13 questions defining a professionalism view and 12 questions defining a bureaucratic view. The questions were further categorized into the three interrelated areas of supervision, described by Zepeda (2007a), for this study: instructional supervision, professional development, or evaluation (Appendix E). There were 10 questions related to instructional supervision; 10 questions related to professional development; and 10 questions related to evaluation. Of the 11 open-ended questions, eight were designed to further explain the supervisory processes used.

Population

The population was a sample of convenience made up of the Principals of the Year chosen by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and the National Elementary Association of School Principals (NEASP) for the 2003-2004

school year. One - hundred schools made up the sample. Fifty of the schools were defined as secondary by NASSP, and 50 were elementary as defined by NEASP. The schools represented a combination of rural, urban, and suburban areas. The schools varied in size and grades taught. Each of the principals was asked to give three surveys to teachers in their schools, making possible a return of 400 surveys.

Survey

The initial mailing yielded 47 principal surveys returned and 94 teacher surveys returned. Two weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder postcard was mailed and another packet was sent two weeks after the reminder cards, which included surveys for all teachers and principals for whom a survey had not been received. Two weeks later, another reminder postcard was sent as the last attempt to encourage participation in the study. After those reminders, nine more principals and 43 more teachers responded. The total return rate was 56% for principals (56/100), and 45.6% for the teachers (137/300).

Research Questions

This study was guided by four research questions:

- What are principals' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What are teachers' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by principals: bureaucracy or professionalism?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by teachers: bureaucracy or professionalism?

Findings

Demographic Questions

Ten demographic questions were asked in the principals' survey: (a) their current position, (b) how many years they had been in their current position, (c) years they taught, (d) sex, (e) age, (f) highest degree earned, (g) level of school, (h) location of the school, (i) the size of the school, and (j) the size of the district. In the teacher's survey, nine demographic questions were asked: (a) years they taught, (b) years at the school, (c) sex, (d) age, (e) highest degree earned, (f) level of school, (g) location of the school, (h) the size of the school, and (i) the size of the district.

Administrative survey respondents were asked what their current position was: principal, assistant principal, other administration, or other. Out of the 56 respondents, 54 indicated they were principals. One marked assistant principal, and one indicated the position of other administrator. For the purposes of this research, it is assumed that administrators are following the same supervision guidelines and have expectations in line with those of their principal; therefore, the two respondents who are not principals will be included in the study, except the data disaggregated by degree of the principal.

The demographic data pertaining to personal information showed a cross-section of the population answered the surveys. Most of the administrators (44.6%) indicated that they had been in the position between six and ten years; 23.2% indicated they had between one and five years of experience in the position; 23.2% administrators indicated between 11 and 20 years experience; 7.1% has been in the position over 20 years. The majority of the teachers (69.3%) had been at the school less than 11 years, 19% teachers had been there between 11 and 20 years, and 11.7% marked over 20 years. Years taught

ranged from one to more than 30. A majority of the teachers (52.2%) and administrators (60.7%) had between seven and 25 years experience. More females (81.6% of the teachers and 57.1% of the administrators) answered the surveys. The administrators were, on average, older than the teachers. Of the 56 administrators that indicated their age range, 64.3% were over 50. The teacher group showed a balance of ages: 16.2% were between 20 and 30 years old, 26.5% were between 21 and 40 years old, 24.7% were between 41 and 50, and 29.4% were over 50 years old. Most of the teachers held either a bachelor's degree (34.1%) or a master's degree (63%). A little over half of the administrators (55.6%) held master's degree and 44.4% held specialist degrees or doctorates.

School information given also showed a diverse sample answered the surveys. Teachers and administrators indicated that 41.8% of the schools were considered elementary. Approximately 25% of the teachers and administrators indicated that their school was a middle or junior high school (24.6% of teachers and 26.3% of administrators). The remaining 33% of the schools were high schools (as reported by 32.1% of teachers and 34.5% of administrators). Suburban schools (as marked by 52.3% of teachers and 54.5% of administrators) outnumbered urban and rural schools. An average of 25.5% of the schools was urban and 35.7% were rural. The schools were categorized into five sizes. The breakdown is as follows: 130 to 500 students (33%); 501 – 1000 students (42.4%); 1001-1500 students (14.7%); 1501 -2000 students (3.1%); and 2001 – 2600 students (6.8%). The final piece of school data asked for was district size. Six (3.3%) districts had less than 1000 students; 26 (14.3%) had between 1001 and 2500; 44 (24.2%) had between 2501 and 5000; 48 (26.4%) had between 5001 and 10000

students; 30 (16.4%) had between 10001 and 25000; 18 (9.9%) had between 25001 and 50000; and 10 (5.5%) had over 50001.

Professionalism versus Bureaucracy

Professionalism

To answer the research questions about professionalism and bureaucracy, survey data were divided into questions that indicated a professional orientation or a bureaucratic orientation. First, answers were analyzed as to the extent that they reported professionalism or bureaucratic approaches. The following research question was applied:

- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by principals: bureaucracy or professionalism?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by teachers: bureaucracy or professionalism?

Thirteen questions were determined to have the professionalism orientations. Figure 1 shows the responses of teachers and administrators who answered “to some or great extent” to professionalism questions in order from highest to lowest by administrators responses. These questions were built around the professionalism viewpoints, indicating that the administrators included the professional opinions of their teachers in planning, used mentoring, had teachers set their own instructional goals, held professional dialogues with teachers about their craft, used coaching, had teachers initiate new strategies in the classrooms, had teacher observe other teachers and provide feedback, and noted that professional skills in the classroom improve when teachers read and use current professional articles and practices (items 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 13, 18, 22, 28, 32, 33, 35,

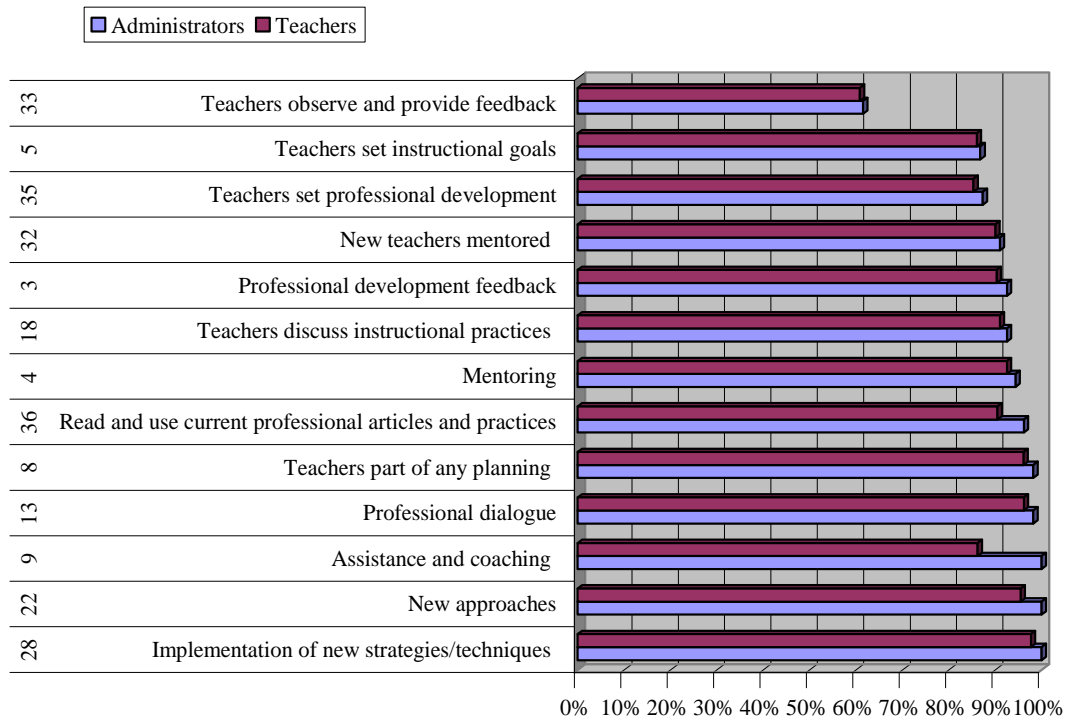


Figure 1. Responses “to some or great extent” by teachers and administrators to professionalism questions.

and 36).

For the 13 professionalism questions, ten of the professionalism-oriented questions were answered to some or great extent by 90% or more of the participants (See Appendix F). One-hundred percent of the principals indicated that, to some or great extent, teachers were part of planning new innovations that affect teaching and learning in the school (item 8, with a mean of 3.71); the administrators assisted struggling teachers (item 9, with a mean of 3.73); and teachers felt safe to try new strategies in their classrooms (item 22, with a mean of 3.67). Over 90% of the administrators agreed, to some or great extent, that mentoring was used in the school (94.4%, item 4, with a mean of 3.54); that teachers were part of the planning that impacts teaching and learning (98.2%, item 8, with a mean

of 3.71); that teachers grew professionally when they dialogued with other teachers (98.2%, item 13, with a mean of 3.80); that teachers discussed professional practices together (92.5%, item 18, with a mean of 3.43); that teachers' professional skills in the classroom improved when they read and use current professional articles and practices (96.2%, item 36, with a mean of 3.29); that new teachers were mentored (91%, item 32, with a mean of 3.76); and that teachers improved when they read and used research to improve professional practices (96.2%, item 36, with a mean of 3.29). When asked if teachers observed other teachers and provided feedback (item 33, with a mean of 2.61), 61.5% of the administrators agreed, to some or great extent, making this the lowest ranked question (see Appendix F for all percentages).

Teacher's answers on the same questions regarding professionalism differed from those of the administrators. On the teacher survey, none of the practices were 100% answered with "some to great extent". Those questions that 90% or above responded "to some or great extent" included: if teachers involved with the planning of professional development gave feedback to the faculty (90.3%, item 3, with a mean of 3.09); if mentoring was used (92.5%, item 4, with a mean of 3.37); if teachers grew when they engaged in professional dialogue with other teachers (96.2%, item 13, with a mean of 3.54); if teachers met to discuss professional practices (91%, item 18, with a mean of 3.37); if teachers felt safe to try new approaches (95.5%, item 22, with a mean of 3.69); if teachers were part of planning and implementing new strategies (97.7%, item 28, with a mean of 3.52); if teachers improved when they read and used research to improve professional practices (90.5%, item 36, with a mean of 3.10); if teachers were part of planning that impacted teaching and learning (96.1%, item 8, with a mean of 3.44), and,

lastly, whether new teachers were mentored (90%, item 32, with a mean of 3.46). Only 60.8% of the teachers indicated, to some or great extent, that they observed other teachers and provide feedback (item 33, with a mean of 2.55) (see Appendix F for all percentages).

Bureaucracy

Twelve questions asked of administrators were analyzed to determine if bureaucracy was indicated to some or great extent in teacher supervision. Figure 2 shows the responses of teachers and administrators who answered “to some or great extent” to bureaucratic questions in order from highest to lowest by administrators responses. These questions asked about federal laws impacting supervision, mandated use of instructional practices, standards, instructional sequencing, professional development goals relating to school goals, data used to analyze a teacher’s performance, participation in professional development, diagnostic tools to supervise teachers, grades in the teacher’s grade book, and students reaching predetermined proficiencies in core subjects (items 1, 15, 17, 23, 26, 27, 45, 46, 48, 49, 50, and 52).

Two bureaucratic-orientated questions were answered with “to some or great extent” by 100% of the administrators (see Appendix G). Namely, whether standards drove instruction (item 17, with a mean of 3.80) and whether professional development activities related to school goals (item 26, with a mean of 3.85). Another question was answered “to some or great extent” by over 90% of the administrators – this questions asked if data were utilized to plan professional development (96.4%, item 27, with a mean of 3.73). The lowest occurrence of “to some or great extent” was to the question of whether the number of grades in a teacher’s grade book was used to determine a teacher’s

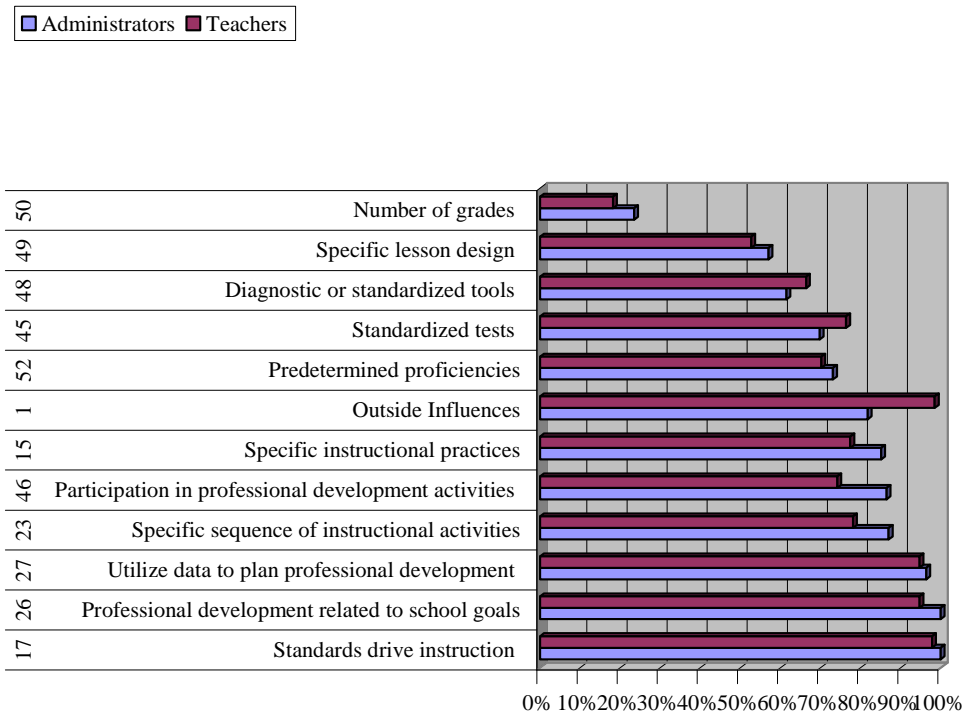


Figure 2. Responses “to some or great extent” by teachers and administrators to bureaucratic questions.

effectiveness (item 50, with a mean of 1.63) with only 23.5% (see Appendix G for all percentages).

Teachers were asked the same 12 questions that pertained to a bureaucratic perspective in their supervisor’s activities. It is noteworthy that 11.7% of the teachers did not answer these bureaucratic-orientated questions, indicating lack of knowledge about the supervisory process in this area in their schools. Of the 12 questions asked, four were answered with “to some or great extent” by over 90% of the respondents. These questions were: whether decision about supervision were influenced by outside entities (98.5%, item 1, with a mean of 3.49); whether standards drove instruction (97.8%, item 17, with a mean of 3.64); whether professional development activities were related to school goals (94.7%, item 26, with a mean of 3.49); and if data were used to drive

professional development activities (94.7%, item 27, with a mean of 3.48). Three questions stood out as the ones fewest teachers agreed with “to some or great extent”: whether a diagnostic or standardized tool was used to assess teaching method (66.4%, item 48, with a mean of 2.28); whether adherence to a specific lesson design was required by teachers (52.7%, item 49, with a mean of 2.03); and whether the number of grades in their grade books was used to determine their effectiveness (18.2%, item 50, with a mean of 1.29) (see Appendix G for all percentages).

Summary for Professionalism and Bureaucracy

In order to compare groups, a professionalism and bureaucratic quotient will be derived by deriving a mean of the percentages that agreed “to some or great extent” with questions in each category. This will make it possible to compare the groups in this research; quotients used to compare instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation overall agreement as well.

Looking at both groups and comparing their views of professionalism or bureaucratic methods, several noteworthy points can be made. Among the administrators, a quotient of 91.8% felt that they use professionalism in teacher supervision to some or great extent. Among the teachers, a quotient of 88.3% felt that their administrators used professionalism in their supervision.

As for the bureaucracy questions, a quotient of 77.6% indicated that bureaucratic methods of supervision were used to some or great extent. Of the teachers, a quotient of 75.2% indicated that bureaucratic approaches were used in teacher supervision. So, judging by the survey questions asked, both teachers and administrators indicated that professionalism was the dominant approach used in the overall supervision of teachers.

Other factors were also examined to determine the prevailing approach used, such as the degree held by the administrator. Of the total 56 principals who answered the survey, 33 indicated they held a minimum of a master's degree. Twenty-four administrators held degrees higher than a master's degree, either a specialist degree or a doctorate. Differences can be measured in the reports of these two groups: master's degrees and above held by the principal.

Of the group of administrators holding only a master's degree, 91.3% professionalism quotient was derived. In the groups of administrators holding degrees higher than a master's degree, 93.1% professionalism quotient was reached (see Appendix F for all percentages). Figure 3 represents the professionalism questions responses, "to some or great extent," given by principals with only master's degrees and those with above a master's degree.

Of the group of administrators holding a minimum of a master's degree, 73.3% bureaucratic quotient was indicated. In contrast, 67.9% bureaucracy quotient was indicated by those holding above a master's degree (See Appendix G). Figure 4 represents the professionalism questions responses, "to some or great extent," given by principals with master's degrees and those with above a master's degree.

From these data, it can be determined that administrators holding degrees above a master's degree incorporate slightly more (1.8%) professionalism supervision techniques and less bureaucratic techniques (5.4%) than those administrators having only a master's degree.

By disaggregating results according to degree held by the administrator, a measurable difference (7% or more) arose in two of the professionalism-oriented questions. The

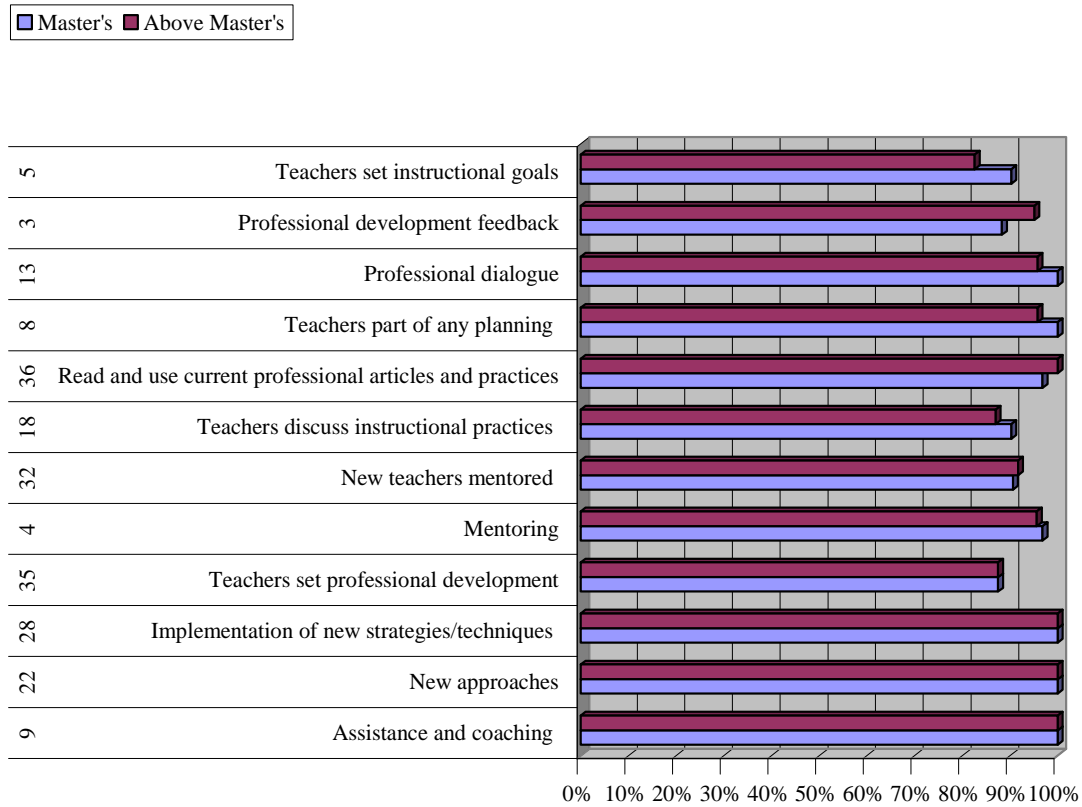


Figure 3. Responses “to some or great extent” by principals with only a master’s degree and above a master’s degree to professionalism questions.

first question and whether teachers observe other teachers and provide feedback (24% difference, item 33), was reported to be used more by those holding above a master’s degree. Whether a teacher set his or her own instructional goals (7.7% difference, item 5) was reported by administrators holding a master’s degree giving more affirmative responses (see Appendix F for all percentages).

Several discrepancies were also evident in the reporting of bureaucratic techniques. In the bureaucratic questions, differences of over 7% occurred in seven questions: whether decisions regarding supervision were based on the influences of outside entities (8.3%

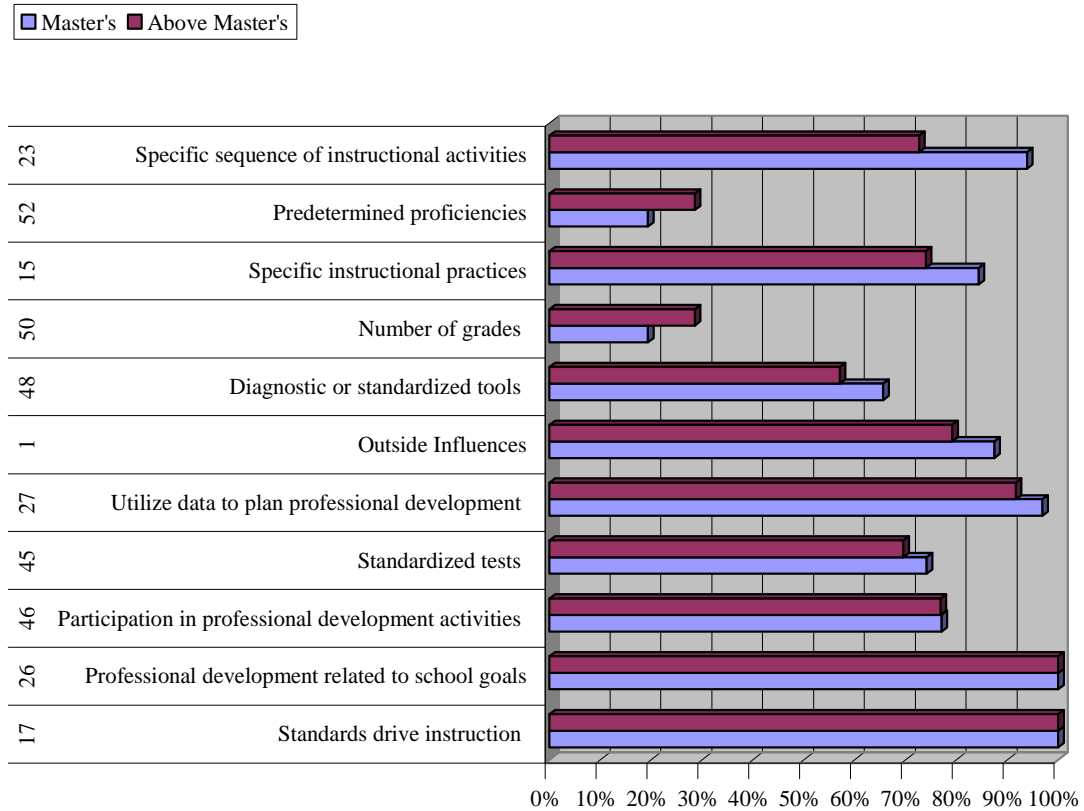


Figure 4. Responses “to some or great extent” by principals with only a master’s degree and above a master’s degree to bureaucratic questions.

difference, item 1); whether a specific sequence of instructional activities was expected (21.2% difference, item 23); whether a diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods are used to determine a teacher effectiveness (8.5% difference, item 48); whether a teacher’s adherence to a specific lesson design is used to judge effectiveness (24.6% difference, item 49); whether specific instructional practices are mandated in the classroom (10.4% difference, item 15), whether the number of grades in the teacher’s grade book was used to judge effectiveness (9.2%, item 50); and, lastly, whether students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas is used to determine a teacher effectiveness (9.2% difference, item 52). The last two questions

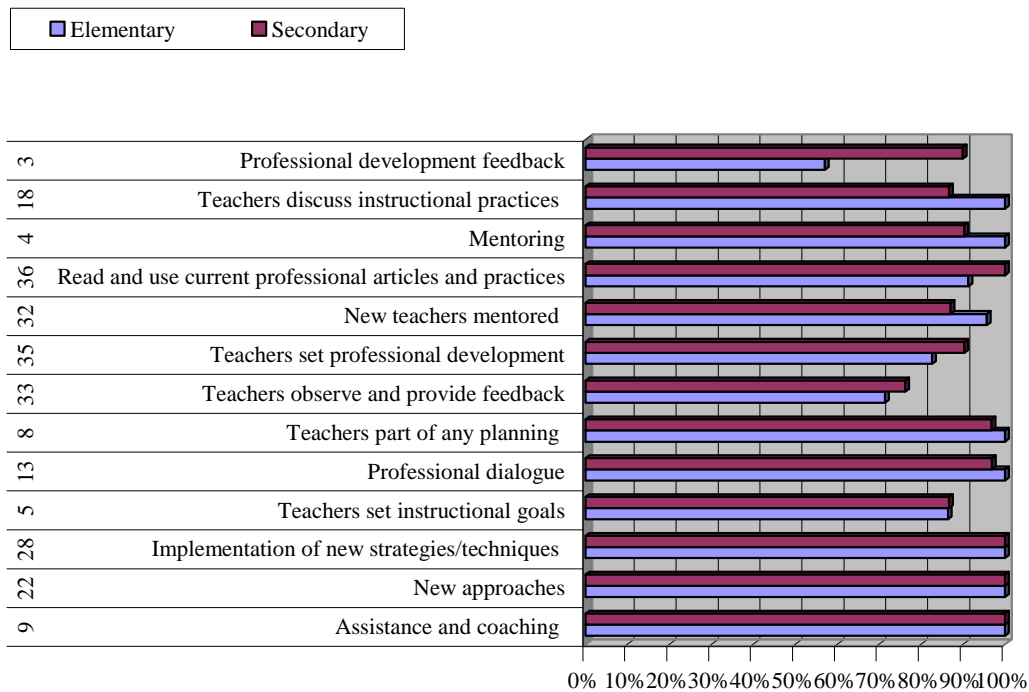


Figure 5. This figure represents the percentages of questions related to professionalism answered “to some or great extent” by administrators in secondary and elementary schools.

indicated a higher use by administrators holding advanced degrees. The first five items were used less by administrators holding a degree higher than a master’s degree (see Appendix G for all percentages).

Taking a cross-section from a different angle, we can examine the difference in professionalism and bureaucracy in elementary and secondary schools. There was no noteworthy difference between school groups in the use of either approach (See Appendix F and G). In the elementary schools, 91.1% professionalism quotient was determined by the responses of the teachers and administrators. In the secondary schools, 92.4% professionalism quotient was reached. In the elementary schools, teachers and administrators reported that 73.3% bureaucracy quotient and, in the secondary schools,

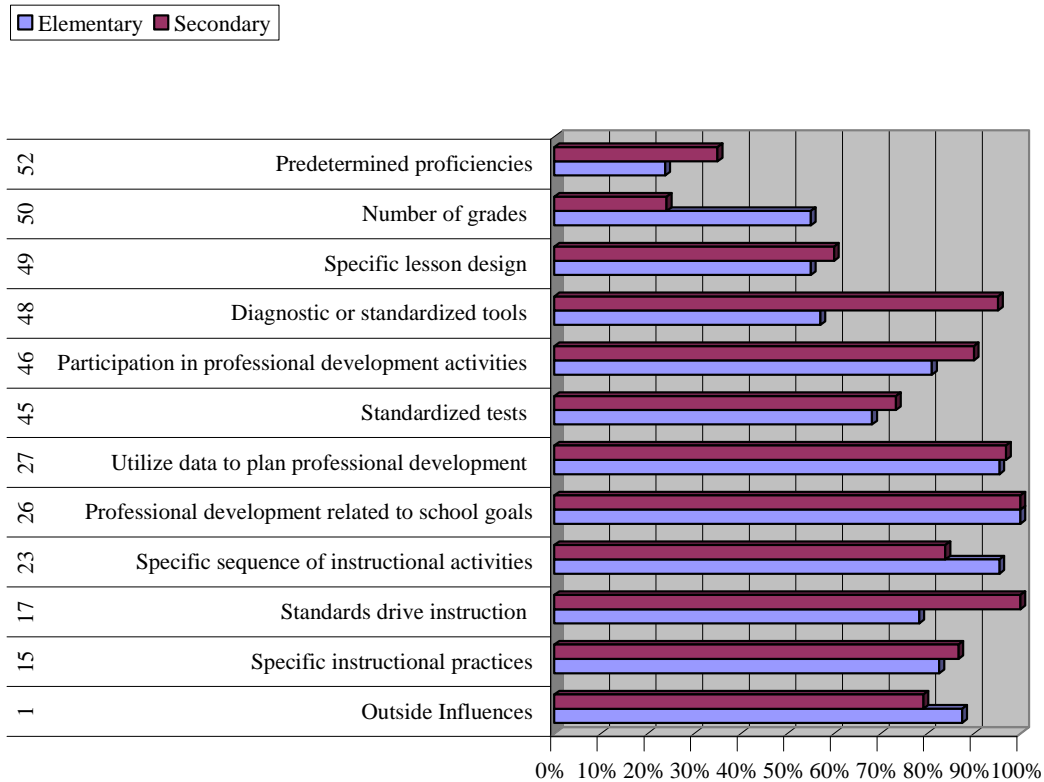


Figure 6. This figure represents the percentages of questions related to bureaucratic answered “to some or great extent” by administrators in secondary and elementary schools.

77% reported the same. Differences, again, were apparent in the use of professionalism and bureaucratic strategies. Figures 5 and 6 show the percentages of answers, “to some or great extent,” to bureaucratic and professionalism questions by elementary and secondary administrators.

Secondary schools had higher percentages (above 10% difference) in agreement on the questions: whether standards drove instruction (21.7% difference, item 17); if a diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods were used (38.1% difference, item 48); if predetermine proficiencies of standardized tests were used to judge a teacher’s effectiveness (11.2% difference, item 52); and, the only professionalism

question, if feedback was given on professional development (32.9% difference, item 3). Elementary administrators reported higher instances of the expectation of seeing a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom (11.6% difference, item 23); using the number of grades in a teacher's grade book to judge the teacher's effectiveness (30.9% difference, item 50); and, the only professionalism question, discussing instructional practices while conferencing with teachers (13.3% difference, item 18) (see Appendix F and G for all percentages).

Instructional Supervision

Following Zepeda's (2007a) cyclical model of supervision, three areas of supervision practices were used to determine the administrators' perceptions of supervisory practices in schools: instructional supervision activities, professional development activities, and evaluation activities. The following research questions apply:

- What are principals' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What are teachers' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?

Ten questions were used to determine the extent to which administrators used instructional supervision techniques to supervise teachers. Figure 7 shows the responses of teachers and administrators who answered "to some or great extent" to instructional supervision questions in order from highest to lowest by administrators responses.

Questions indicating instructional supervision activities included: Do teachers set their own instructional goals? Are teachers are part of planning? Is coaching used? Do teachers feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms? Are teachers part of implementing new strategies and techniques at the school? Do teachers take responsibility for improving instruction at the school? Do teachers observe other teachers

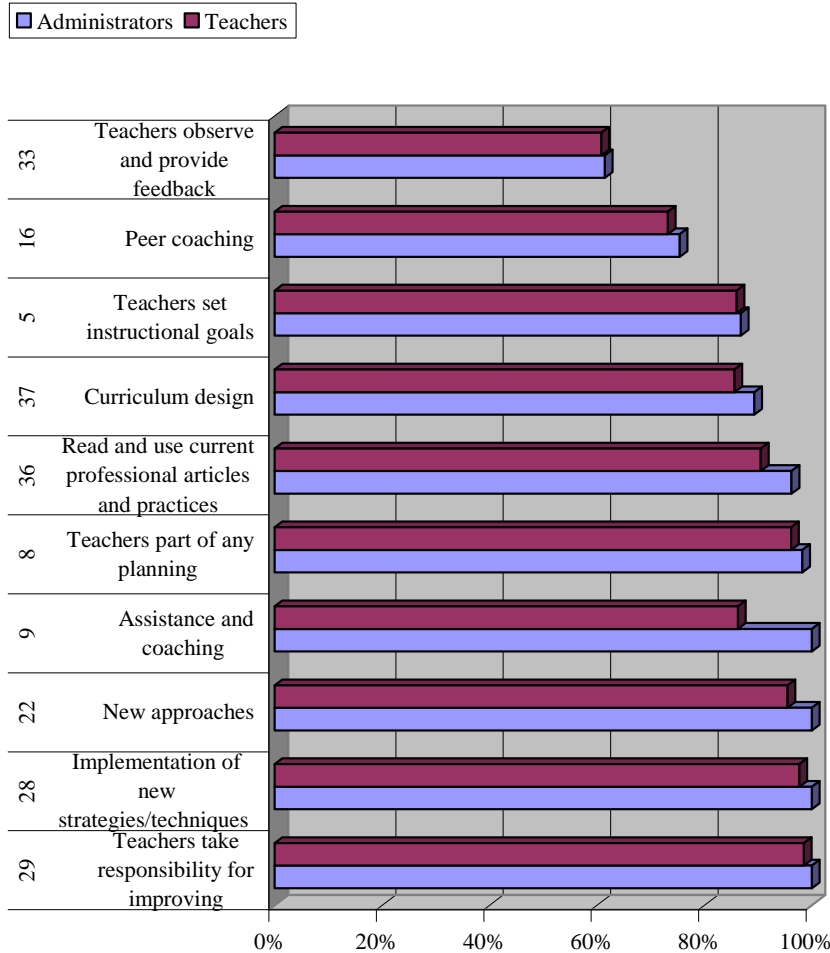


Figure 7. Responses “to some or great extent” by teachers and administrators to instructional supervision questions.

and give feedback? Do teachers read and apply professional articles? Lastly, are teachers involved in curriculum design (items 5, 8, 9, 16, 22, 28, 29, 33, 36, and 37) (See Appendix H).

One-hundred percent of the administrators reported “to some or great extent” that teachers felt safe to try new approaches (items 22, with a mean of 3.67); that coaching was used (item 9, with a mean of 3.73); that teaching was part of implementation of new strategies and techniques (item 28, with a mean of 3.76); and that teachers were responsible for improving instruction (item 29, with a mean of 3.65). Two questions,

namely whether teachers were part of planning that impacted teaching and learning (98.2%, item 8, with a mean of 3.71) and whether teachers used of professional articles to improve instruction (96.2%, item 36, with a mean of 3.29), had responses that indicated over 90% of administrators agree, to some or great extent. The lowest scoring question was whether teachers observed other teachers and provided feedback – this question received only 61.5% affirmative responses. The remaining three questions concerning instructional supervision were agreed with by over 70% of the administrators (see Appendix H for all percentages).

Similarly, the teacher survey contained 10 questions also related to instructional supervision practices. Five of the questions were affirmed by 90% or above with the answers “to some or great extent.” Almost all teachers felt safe to try new approaches in the classroom (95.5%, item 22, with a mean of 3.69) and teachers reported taking responsibility for improving instruction (98.5%, item 29, with a mean of 3.52). Next among the high-scoring questions was whether teachers implemented new strategies and techniques that affect teaching and learning (97.7%, item 28, with a mean of 3.52) and whether teachers were part of planning that impacted teaching and learning (96.1%, item 8, with a mean of 3.44). Last in the 90% or above range was whether teachers read and used current research on instructional practices (90.5%, item 36, with a mean of 3.10). The lowest agreement was to the question of whether teachers observed other teachers and provided feedback (item 33, with a mean of 2.55), with only 60.8% agreeing, to some or great extent (see Appendix H for all percentages).

Disaggregation of the data to compare elementary and secondary school responses was done. Again, using an instruction supervision quotient, when looking at elementary

schools versus secondary schools, the overall quotient of instructional supervision activities indicated is within two percentage points (elementary 90.6% and secondary 92.9%). However, when we examine individual questions, elementary and secondary schools display different emphasizes in specific areas of professionalism. Figure 8 compares the answers given, to some or great extent, by elementary and secondary schools. The use of peer coaching was marked “to some or great extent” by 78.3% of elementary school administrators, and by 72.4% of secondary schools administrators and teachers (5.9% difference). Teachers’ involvement in curriculum design was also reported differently by the two groups with 78.3% of elementary schools and 96.9% of secondary schools agreeing to some or great extent (18.6% difference), as well as teachers reading and applying information from professional articles with 91.3% of elementary schools and 100% of secondary schools agreeing, to some or great extent (8.7% difference). Although the groups displayed differences in methods, overall the quotient for instructional supervision activities was similar (see Appendix H for all percentages).

Data on the use of instructional supervision activities were also disaggregated to compare schools in which the principal had a master’s degree with those whose principal possessed degrees higher than a master’s degree. In schools where the principal had a master’s degree, an instructional supervision quotient of 90.2% was indicated. Those schools whose principals held higher than a master’s degree had a 92.2% instructional supervision quotient (2% difference). Figure 9 compares the answers given, to some or great extent, by principals with master’s degree and principals with higher than a master’s degree (see Appendix H for all percentages).

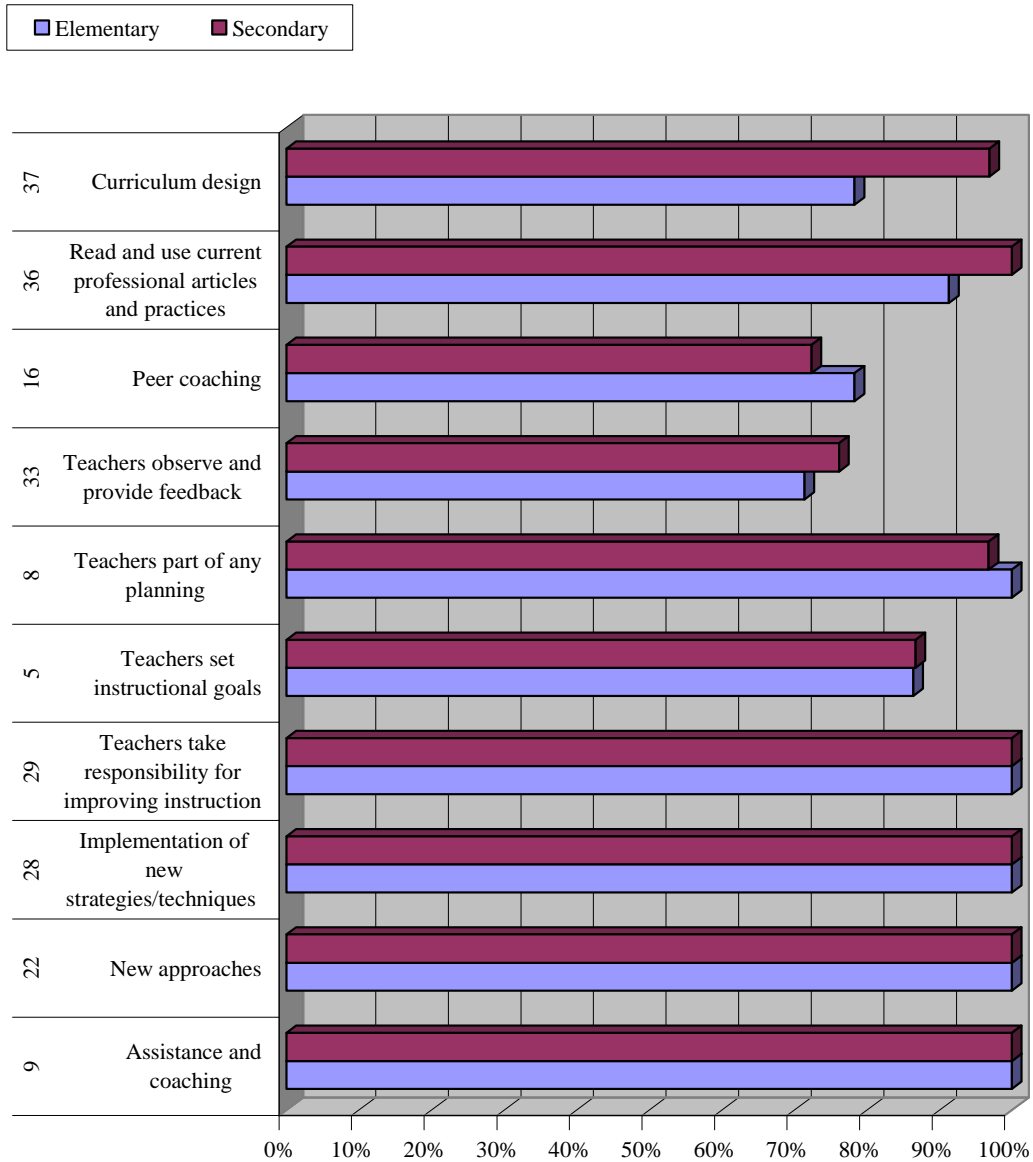


Figure 8. Responses “to some or great extent” to instructional supervision questions by administrators from elementary and secondary schools.

Looking at individual questions, there was a more noticeable difference (7% more). Principals possessing above a master’s degree were 24% more likely to have teachers observe other teachers and provide feedback (item 33) and 7.9% more likely to involve teachers in curriculum design (item 37). Administrators with master’s degrees were 7.7% more likely to have teachers set their own instructional goals (item 5). Again, although

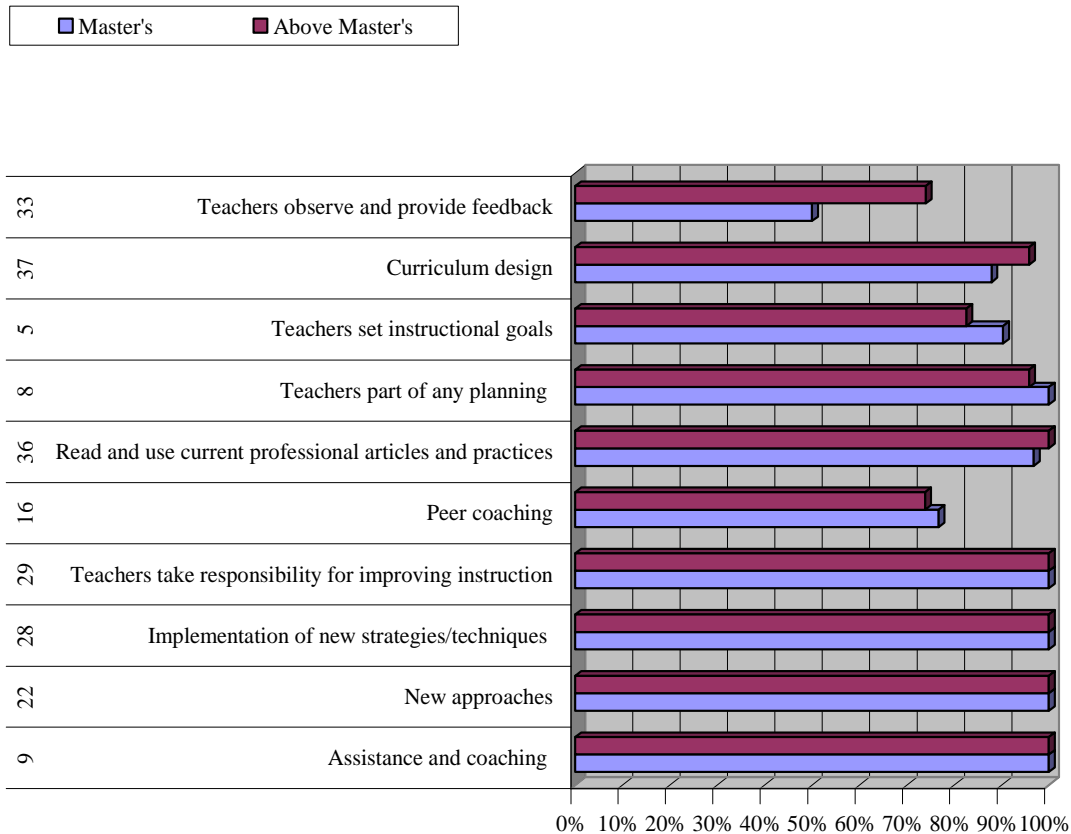


Figure 9. Responses “to some or great extent” to instructional supervision questions answered by principals with master’s degrees and principals with higher degrees.

different strategies were used, both groups had similar agreement with instructional supervision strategies as a whole (see Appendix H for all percentages).

Professional Development

Ten questions were used to determine the extent to which professional development was used in teacher supervision by administrators. Figure 10 shows the responses of teachers and administrators who answered “to some or great extent” to professional development questions in order from highest to lowest by administrators responses. Questions related to professional development included: whether university faculty were used to plan professional development activities; if feedback was provided to teachers

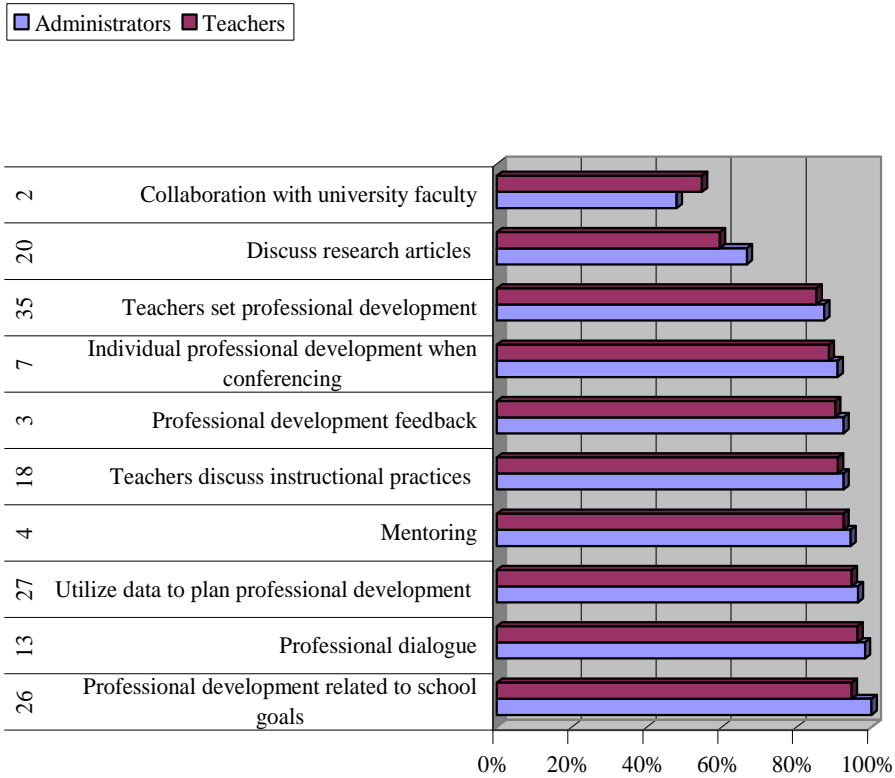


Figure 10. Responses “to some or great extent” by teachers and administrators to professional development questions.

about professional development; whether mentoring was used; if professional development was discussed when conferencing with teachers; if teacher grew professionally if they dialogued with other teachers; whether teachers discussed instructional practices; if teachers met to discuss current literature about instructional practices; if professional development activities related to school goals; whether data (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) were used to plan professional development; and if teachers set their own professional development goals (items 2, 3, 4, 7, 13, 18, 20, 26, 27, and 35).

Looking at the frequency of responses that indicated “to some or great extent,” only one question dealing with professional development was marked by 100% of the

administrators: whether professional development activities were related to school goals (item 26, with a mean of 3.85). Six of the questions were agreed with by over 90% of administrator respondents: if teachers grew professionally when dialoguing with other teachers (98.2%, item 13, with a mean of 3.80); if data were utilized in planning professional development activities (96.4%, item 27, with a mean of 3.73); if mentoring was used at the school (94.4%, item 27, with a mean of 3.73); if teacher discussed their instructional practices (92.5%, item 18, with a mean of 3.43); if feedback was given to teachers about professional development activities (92.5%, item 3, with a mean of 3.20); and if professional development activities were discussed with teachers when conferencing (90.9%, item 7, with a mean of 3.38). Two questions had below 70% agreement: 66.7% of the administrator respondents agreed, to some or great extent, that teachers met to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices in their classrooms (item 20, with a mean of 2.69) and only 48% agreed that they collaborated with university faculty for professional development activities (item 2, with a mean of 2.25) (see Appendix I for all percentages).

The same 10 questions on the teacher survey were used to indicate professional development supervisory activities. Six questions were agreed to upon, to some or great extent, by 90% or greater of the teachers responding. These majorities agreed, in their schools, that: teachers grew professionally when dialoguing with other teachers (96.2%, item 13, with a mean of 3.54); data were used to plan professional development (94.7%, item 27, with a mean of 3.48); professional development activities related to school goals (94.7%, item 26, with a mean of 3.49); mentoring was used at the school (92.5%, item 4, with a mean of 3.37); teachers met to discuss instructional practices (91%, item 13, with a

mean of 3.54); and, finally, that those charged with planning professional development activities provided feedback to faculty members (90.3%, item 33, with a mean of 2.55). Two questions fell between 50% and 60%, the lowest responses, in measured agreement: if teachers used research to improve instruction practices (59.4%, item 36, with a mean of 3.10) and whether university faculty collaborated with the school on professional development activities (54.7%, item 2, with a mean of 2.33) (see Appendix I for all percentages).

When the data for elementary and secondary schools were compared, a quotient of 86.2% indicated the use of professional development activities at the elementary level, and a quotient of 84.8% indicated the same at the secondary level. Again, examining the groups as wholes is not as striking as tracking the individual activities used. Figure 11 shows the compared data for elementary and secondary professional development questions. Those at secondary schools reported that feedback was provided to other faculty members about professional development activities (32.9% difference, item 3), and teachers set their own professional development goals (7.7% difference, item 35) more than those at the elementary level. Instances of teachers meeting to discuss instructional practices (13.3%, item 18); collaboration with university faculty on professional development (7.1% difference, item 2); discussing professional development when conferencing with the administrators (8.6% difference, item 7); using mentoring (9.7% difference, item 4); and teachers meeting to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices in their classrooms (14.6% difference, item 20) were more likely to be reported by those at the elementary level (see Appendix I for all percentages).

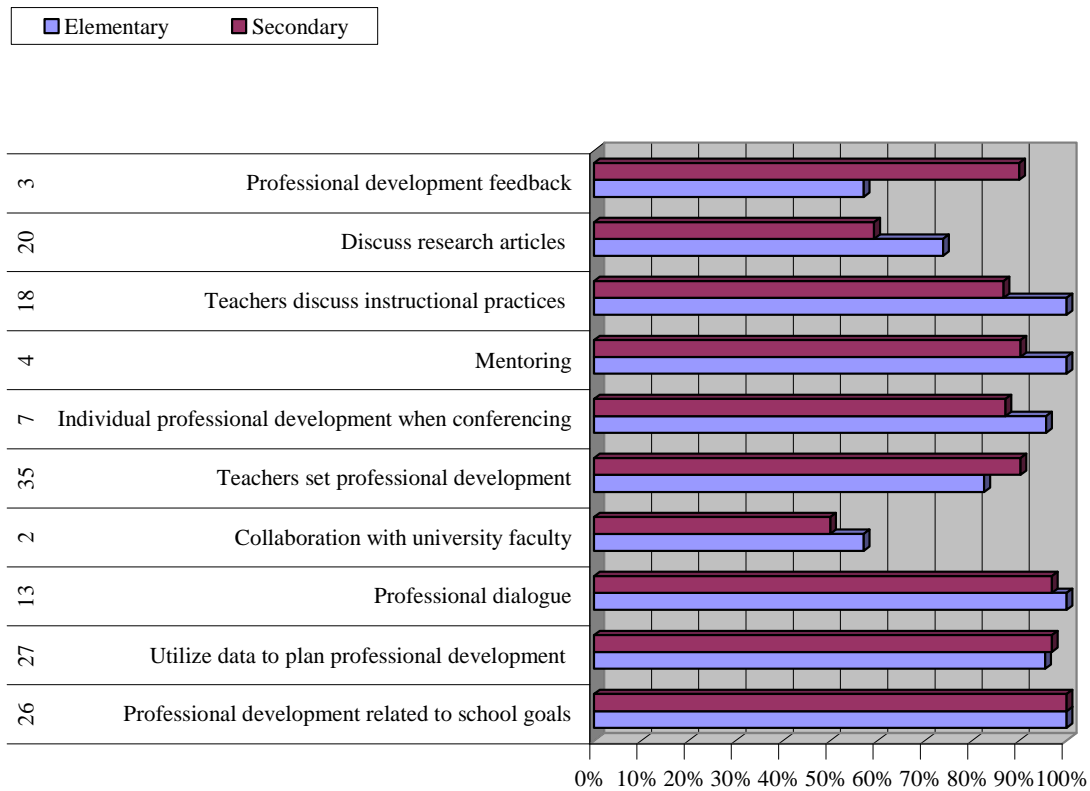


Figure 11. Responses “to some or great extent” to professional development questions answered by elementary and secondary administrators.

Looking at disaggregation by the degree held by the administrator, a quotient of 86% of the administrators holding a master’s degree use professional development activities, and a quotient of 84.8% with higher degrees use them. Once again, some individual questions yield a greater difference. Figure 12 shows the compared data for principals with master’s degree and principals with higher degrees answers to professional development questions. Principals with higher degrees are more likely to provide feedback to other faculty members about professional development (15.6% difference); however, principals with only master’s degrees are more likely to (10.5% difference) discuss individual professional development when conferencing with teachers (see Appendix I for all percentages).

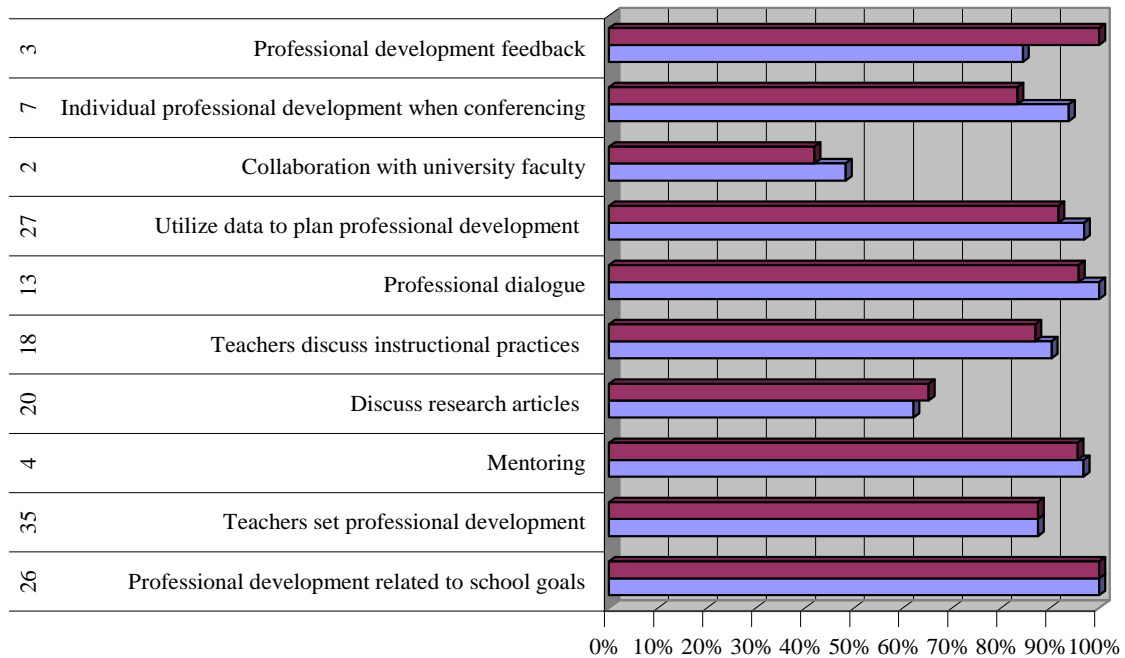


Figure 12. Responses “to some or great extent” to professional development questions answered by principals with only master’s degree and those with above a master’s degree.

Evaluation

The last category defined as part of the supervisory by Zepeda (2007a) is evaluation. Ten survey questions relate to evaluation activities. Figure 13 shows the responses of teachers and administrators who answered “to some or great extent” to evaluation questions in order from highest to lowest by administrators responses. These questions cover topics such as: outside entities influencing supervision, mandated instructional practices, standards driving instruction, sequencing of activities in the classroom, student performance on standardized tests determining teacher effectiveness, teacher’s participation in professional development activities determining effectiveness, diagnostic

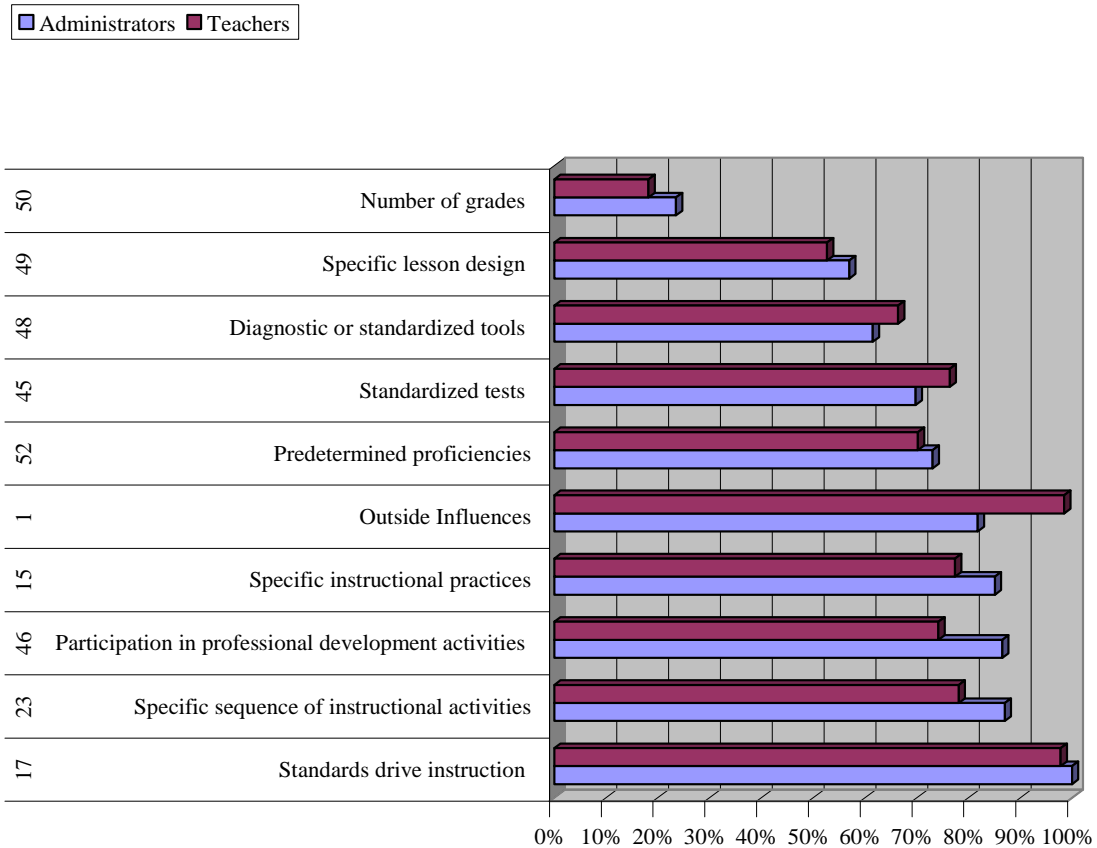


Figure 13. Responses “to some or great extent” by teachers and administrators to evaluation questions.

or standardized tools used to assess teaching methods, adherence to a specific lesson design determining effectiveness, number of grades in a teacher’s grade book determining effectiveness, and students’ meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas (items 1, 15, 17, 23, 45, 46, 48, 49, 50, and 52).

Of the ten questions on the administrative survey, only one garnered 100% agreement by administrators: whether standards drove instruction (item 17, with a mean of 3.80). After this unanimous topic, agreement on all other questions then drops below 80%. The items with the lowest agreement were whether students’ performance on standardized tests determined teacher effectiveness (69.8%, item 45, with a mean of 2.67); whether a

diagnostic or standardized tool to assess teaching methods was used to judge a teacher's effectiveness (61.5%, item 48, with a mean of 2.46); whether a teacher's adherence to a specific lesson design was used to judge a teacher's effectiveness (57%, item 49, with a mean of 2.39); and, last of all, whether the number of grades in a teacher's grade book determined effectiveness (23.5%, item 50, with a mean of 1.63) (see Appendix J for all percentages).

Likewise, ten questions on the teachers' survey were used to determine the degree to which evaluation techniques played into teacher supervision. Of the ten questions, two were marked by 90% or above as agree "to some or great extent": whether decisions were made regarding supervision based on outside influences (item 1, with a mean of 3.49) had 98.5% agreement, and whether standards drove instruction (item 17, with a mean of 3.64) had 97.8% agreement. Three questions had agreement responses below 60%: 66.4% agreed that a diagnostic tool or standardized method was used to determine effectiveness (item 48, with a mean of 2.28); 52.7% agreed that adherence to a specific lesson design determined a teacher effectiveness (item 49, with a mean of 2.03); and, finally, a mere 18.2% agreed that the number of grades in a teacher's grade book determined effectiveness (item 50, with a mean of 1.29) (see Appendix J for all percentages).

Again, these data were also separated into responses from elementary and secondary schools. Figure 14 shows the compared data for elementary and secondary answers to evaluation questions. The difference in overall importance placed on evaluation activities was similar: elementary schools had a 68.4% quotient and secondary schools had a 72.7% quotient (4.3% difference). Results differed depending on the method.

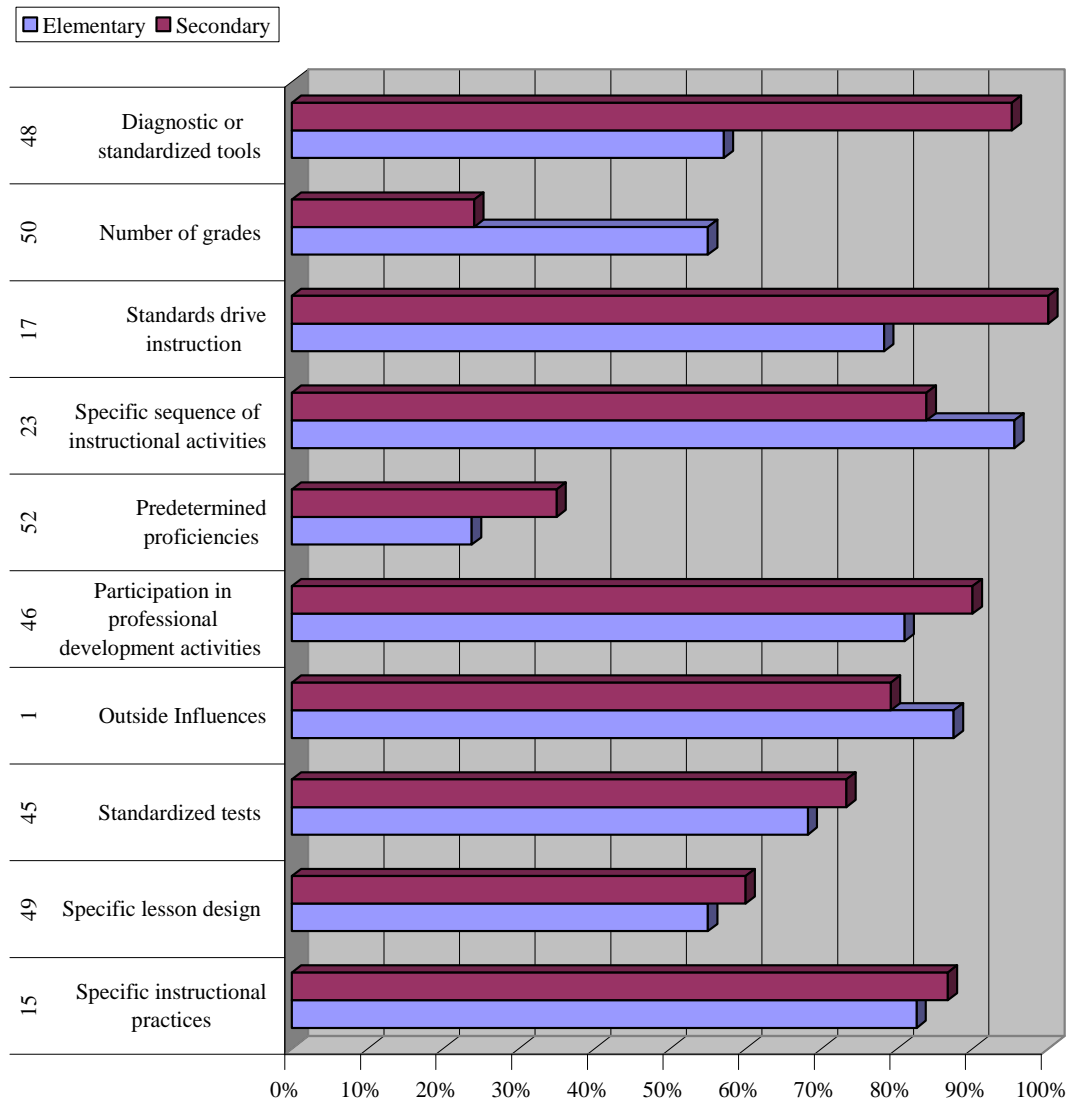


Figure 14. Responses “to some or great extent” to evaluation questions answered by elementary and secondary administrators.

Elementary administrators are more likely to use the number of grades in a teacher’s grade book to judge effectiveness (30.9% difference, item 50) and to expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom (11.6% difference, item 23). Secondary administrators are more likely to use predetermined proficiencies on standardized tests to judge a teacher’s effectiveness (11.2% difference, item 52); to use diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods to judge a

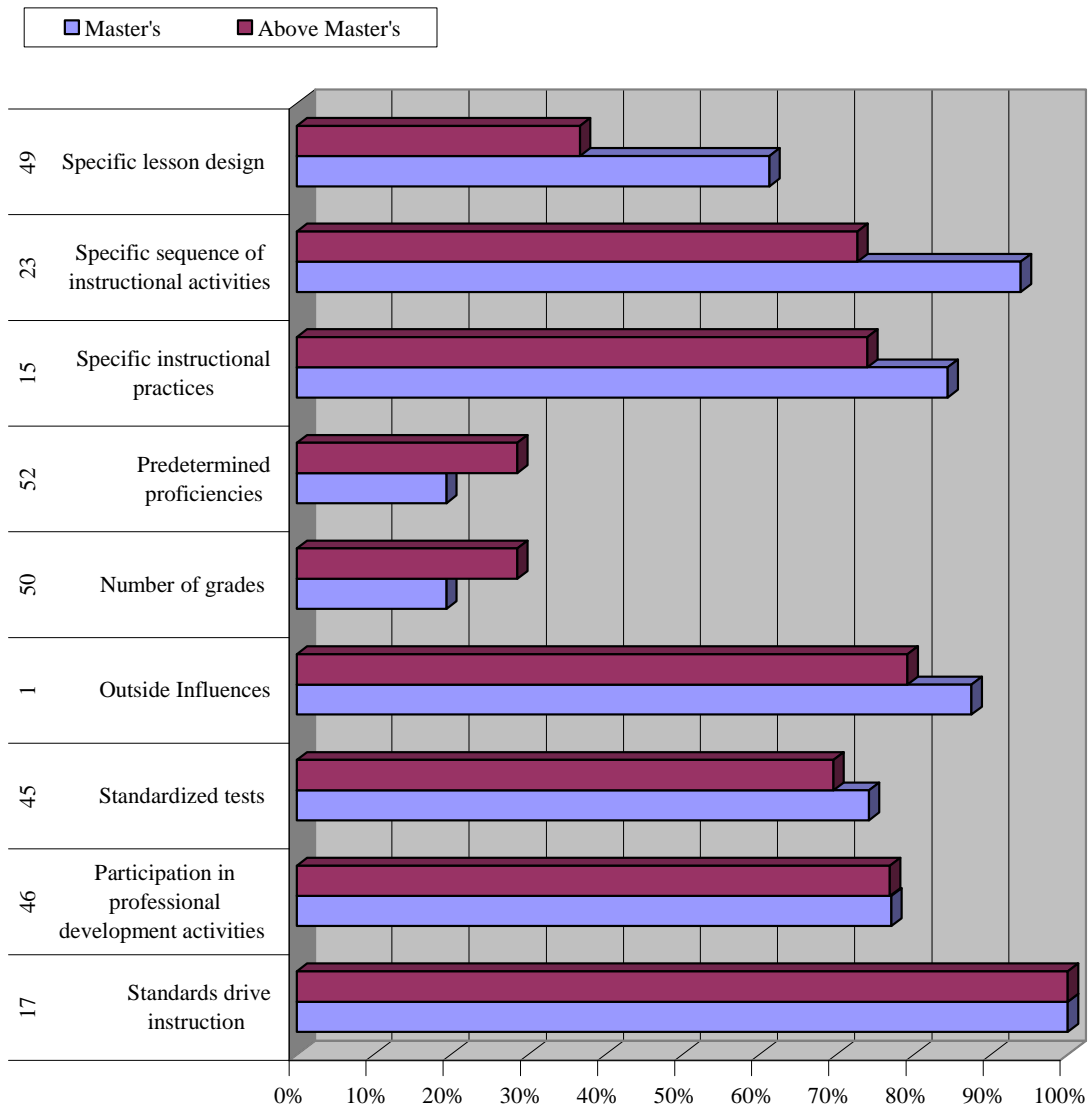


Figure 15. Responses “to some or great extent” to evaluation questions answered by principals with only master’s degrees and principals with higher than a master’s degree.

teacher’s effectiveness (38.1% difference, item 48); and to have standards drive instruction (21.7% difference, item 17) (see Appendix J for all percentages).

What degree was held by the administrator was also used to parse the responses concerning evaluations. An evaluation quotient of 68.6% was determined by administrators with degree no higher than a master’s degree, and an evaluation quotient of 62.9% was determines by administrators with higher degrees (5.7% difference).

Figure 15 shows the compared answers to evaluation questions based on the degrees held by the principals. Major differences were noted in the following questions: whether a teacher's adherence to a specific lesson design was used to judge a teacher's effectiveness (24.6% difference, item 49); whether administrators expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom (21.2% difference, item 23); and whether administrators mandate the use of specific instructional practices in the classroom (10.4% difference, item 15). All were indicted to be used more by administrators holding a master's degree (see Appendix J for all percentages).

Summary of Instructional Supervision, Professional Development, and Evaluation

Using answers given by administrators for questions relating to instructional supervision, a 90.4% instructional supervision quotient was derived. Teachers' responses indicated an 86.2% quotient of instructional supervision. Professional development had an 86.7% quotient for administrators, and an 84.8% quotient for teachers. The evaluation quotient was 73.8% for administrators and 71.6% for teachers.

When looking at elementary schools versus secondary schools, the quotients of instructional supervision are within two percentage points (elementary, 90.6%, and secondary, 92.9%). When the data for elementary and secondary schools are compared in professional development, a quotient of 86.2% of the elementary administrators indicated the use of professional development activities and a quotient of 84.8% of the secondary administrators indicated the same. Data show a different level in overall importance placed on evaluation activities: elementary, 68.4%, and secondary, 72.7%. Secondary administrators reported using evaluation techniques 4.3% more than elementary administrators. The groups as wholes are not as striking as trends that

emerged when the individual activities are examined.

Data were also disaggregated to indicate the use of instructional supervision activities in schools with principals who had a master's degree versus schools with principals who possessed a degree higher than a master's. Of the responses from schools where the administrator had a master's degree, a 90.2% instructional supervision quotient was determined. At schools with principals possessing higher than a master's degree, a quotient of 92.2% was determined for instructional supervision activities. A quotient of 86% of the principals holding a master's degree use professional development activities, and a quotient of 84.8% with higher degrees use them. Principals with a master's degree had a quotient of 68.6% for evaluation activities. Principals with higher than a master's degree had a quotient of 62.9% for evaluation activities. Principals with higher than a master's degrees reported using evaluation techniques 5.7% less than principals with a master's degrees. Individual answers in each category revealed differences in implementation of the strategies.

Other Data Collected

Standard deviation and standard error mean (Appendix K) were calculated for both teachers and administrators in order to establish a correlation between the administrator and teacher data. An independent t-test was done, and significance indicated at a 95% confidence level (Appendix L). Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was performed on all pairs to determine whether the two groups being compared had approximately equal variance on the dependent variable (Appendix M). In a number of situations, Levene's Test was significant (Sig. < .05).

According to the Levene's Test, four professionalism questions had a significant

variance in the answers given by administrators and teachers. The four questions were: Are teachers part of any planning that impacts teaching and learning (.002, item 8)? Is there assistance and coaching of teachers who are struggling (.000, item 9)? Do your teachers grow professionally when they engage in dialogue with other teachers (.000, item 13)? Are teachers a part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning (.001, item 28)? Are new teachers mentored each year (.001, item 32)? The Levene's Test indicated that nine bureaucratic questions had a significant difference in responses by teachers and administrators. The questions were: Are the use of specific instructional practices mandated in the classroom (.003, item 15)? Do standards drive instruction at your school (.001, item 17)? Is there an expectation to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom (.002, item 23)? Are professional development activities related to school goals (.000, item 26)? Is data utilized (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) to plan professional development activities (.013, item 27)? Is student performance on standardized tests used to judge a teacher's effectiveness (.007, item 45)? Are diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.025, item 48)? Is adherence by the teacher to a specific lesson design used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.002, item 49)? Are students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.000, item 52)?

The Levene's Test indicated that four instructional supervision questions had significant differences in the responses given by teachers and administrators. The questions were: Are teachers part of any planning that impacts teaching and learning

(.002, item 8)? Is there assistance and coaching given to teachers who are struggling (.000, item 9)? Do teachers use peer coaching (.048, item 16)? Are teachers a part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning (.001, item 28)? Five questions related to professional development indicated a significant difference in the responses by teachers and administrators. The questions were: Is university faculty collaborated with for professional development activities (.035, item 2)? Is individual professional development discuss when conferencing with teachers (.019, item 7)? Do teachers grow professionally when they engage in dialogue with other teachers (.000, item 13)? Are professional development activities related to school goals (.000, item 26)? Is data utilized (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) to plan professional development activities (.013, item 27)? Lastly, the Levene's Test indicated seven evaluation questions having significantly different answers given by teachers and administrators. The questions were: Are the use of specific instructional practices mandated in the classroom (.003, item 15)? Do standards drive instruction (.001, item 17)? Is there an expectation to see a specific sequence of instructional activities in the classroom (.002, item 23)? Is student performance on standardized tests used to judge a teacher's effectiveness (.007, item 45)? Are diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.025, item 48)? Is adherence by the teacher to a specific lesson design used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.002, item 49)? Are students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas used to determine a teacher's effectiveness (.000, item 52)?

Analyzing the questions, overall three questions had a teacher and administrator

response difference of 10% or greater if responses were grouped “to some or great extent” and “to slight extent or not at all.” More teachers than administrators (16.7% difference) noted the impact of outside influences on teacher supervision. Assistance and coaching for struggling teachers was reported, to some or great extent, by 100% of the administrators, but by only 86.2% of the teachers. Participation in professional development activities was reported to be used to judge teacher effectiveness by approximately 12.3% more administrators than teachers.

If these results are divided into those reflecting professionalism and bureaucracy, six of the questions with above a 5% were bureaucracy-oriented questions and three were professionalism-oriented. If disaggregated by relation to instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation, six questions show a difference in perceptions of evaluation methods, three show a difference in perceptions of instructional supervision methods, and two show a difference in perceptions of professional development methods.

A factor analysis was done to uncover underlying constructs or factors in data. Because of the limited amount of data for administrators, a factor analysis on the groups was not possible; therefore, a factor analysis of the data was not reported.

Open-Ended Questions

Eight open-ended questions concluded the surveys. Answers were analyzed qualitatively to determine patterns and glean more in-depth information about supervision (Table 3). The questions were as follows:

1. How many times do you and teachers /you and your supervisor evaluate data together from observations each year?
2. How many pre-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher/does

you supervisor hold during a school year?

3. How many formal observations in the classroom do you/does you supervisor do for each teacher every year?
4. Do you/does your principal differentiate supervision for different teachers?
5. If yes, how?
6. Does a prescribed evaluation tool determine your supervision method/does you supervisor use a prescribed evaluation tool?
7. Please describe the evaluation tool.
8. How many post-observation conferences do you/does your supervisor hold with each teacher every year?

Of the 56 administrators' responses, 48 answers could be categorized into six categories. Of the 137 teachers, 119 could be categorized. The categories are: one to two times, three to four times, five to six times, seven to eight times, and nine or more times. Sixty of the teachers (50.4%) indicated that they analyzed data with their supervisor between one and two times each year; 22 of the administrators (45.8%) indicated the same. Forty-four teachers (37%) and 18 administrators (37.5%) reported that they analyzed data together three to four times yearly.

The administrators' and teachers' answers to this question were similar. Approximately 82 respondents of the two groups (46.9%) indicated that they analyze data together one to two times yearly. The answer of three to four times yearly was ranked second as 62 respondents (35.4%) answered this way.

The number of pre-observation conferences was the next open-ended question. Of the 56 administrators' responses, 50 could be categorized. Of the 137 teachers' answers,

Table 3

Open-Ended Questions

Times per year	<u>Analyze Data Together</u>		<u>Pre-observation Conference</u>		<u>Formal Observation</u>		<u>Post-observation Conference</u>	
	Admin n-8	Teacher n-119	Admin n-50	Teacher n-123	Admin n-48	Teacher n-130	Admin n-45	Teacher n-115
0	1.3%	5.0%	12.0%	26.0%	2.0%	3.1%	0.0%	7.8%
1-2	45.8%	50.4%	61.8%	80.0%	73.0%	73.8%	73.3%	75.7%
3-4	37.8%	37.0%	10.0%	13.8%	41.7%	23.1%	33.3%	16.8%
5-6	0.0%	5.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	2.2%	0.0%
7-8	2.1%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
9+	12.5%	5.0%	2.0%	0.0%	2.1%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%

123 could be categorized. The same scale was used: one to two, three to four, five to six, seven to eight, and nine or more. Thirty-two of the teachers (26%) reported that they had no pre-observation conferences. The majority of the teachers and administrators reported that they had one to two pre-observation conferences yearly; 76 teachers (61.8%) and 40 administrators (80%) fit this category.

The next question asked how many formal observations were done each year. Of the 56 administrator responses, 48 answers could be categorized. Of the 137 teacher responses, 130 could be categorized. Four teachers' answers and eight administrators' answers fit into more than one category. The same categories were used as the previous question. Thirty-five of the administrators (73%) and 96 of the teachers (73.8%) indicated that they had one to two formal observations, making this the most common answer. Twenty of the administrators (41.7%) and 30 of the teachers (23.1%) reported

Table 4

Differentiated Supervision and Evaluation Tool

	Differentiated Supervision		Prescribed Evaluation Tool	
	Admin n-54	Teacher n-130	Admin n-54	Teacher n-136
Yes	92.6%	61.5%	75.9%	91.2%
No	7.4%	38.5%	24.1%	8.8%

between three and four formal observations yearly.

Teachers were asked if the supervision was differentiated for teachers in their school (Table 4). Of the 137 responses, 130 could be categorized as yes or no. Eighty of the teachers (61.5%) responded that supervisors differentiated at their site. Fifty teachers (38.5%) did not perceive that supervision was differentiated. Of the 54 administrator responses that could be classified, 50 (92.6%) indicated that they differentiated supervision in their school and only 4 (7.4%) indicated they did not differentiate.

When teachers and administrators were asked how the supervision was differentiated, several major categories emerged in the answers. Although 12 of the administrators' answers could not be categorized (seven did not answer), the remaining 44 were categorized into the following four groups: (a) differentiation to accommodate the teacher's need for more supervision, (b) differentiation based on experience or non-tenure, (c) differentiation based on teachers' self-directed goals, peer coaching, and collegial observations, and (d) differentiation because of the subject or area taught by the teacher. Thirteen answers fit into more than one category. A majority of the administrators (31 or 70.5%) differentiated based on the teacher's need for supervision.

The next highest ranked category is differentiation based on experience or non-tenure with 16 responses (36.3%). Six administrators (13.6%) differentiated based on the teacher's self-directed goals and collegial activities. Finally, five administrators (11.3%) claimed they differentiated depending on the subject the teacher taught.

Of the 137 teacher surveys, 74 could not be classified into a category for this question (58 did not answer); this left 63 answers that could be categorized into the same groupings. Thirteen of the answers fit into multiple categories. The category with the highest percentage was differentiation based on the experience or non-tenure with 42 (66.7%). Twenty-eight of the teachers (44.4%) perceived differentiation based on the need of the teacher. Four of the teachers (6.3%) in each category reported differentiation based on the two factors: the teachers' self-directed goals, peer coaching, or collegial observations and subject taught by the teacher.

Teachers and administrators reported different reasons for differentiating supervisory. Whereas teachers felt that most of the differentiation was based on the experience of the teacher, most administrators reported that the need of the teacher was their main reason for differentiation in supervision.

Teachers and administrators were then asked if a prescribed tool determined the supervision method used in the school. Forty-one of the administrators (75.9%) answered affirmatively, and 13 (24.1%) answered negatively (Table 4). Two administrators' answers could not be classified as yes or no. Of the 136 teachers who answered this question, 124 (91.2%) believed that a prescribed tool did determine the supervision method used, while only 12 (8.8%) did not concur.

When asked to describe the tool, respondents gave several types of answers.

Classifying these into categories was difficult because some answers were very vague, some were only opinions of the tool, some gave the name of the model used, and others just defined the tool as the district mandates. Classification was attempted, and six categories did emerge from the answers. The categories are: (a) state, county, or district/parish prescribed tool, (b) a rubric, (c) a specific model (named), (d) checklist, (e) self-directed by the teacher, and (f) other – describing part of the process of clinical supervision. Of the 56 administrator responses, 18 could not be classified because too little information was given (7) or the field was left blank (11). Of the 137 teacher responses, 29 could not be classified (15 were left blank). Two of the administrators' answers fit into more than one category and as did three of the teacher's answers. Ten administrators (26.3%) and 46 teachers (42.6%) described the tool as a state, county, or district/parish prescribed tool. Nine of the administrators (23.7%) and 15 of the teachers (13.9%) described the tool by naming the model used: the Charlotte Danielson Model, the Billon Evaluation Model, Mval, DEP-T, Tom McGreal Model, Pathwise, Wiggins and McTighe Model, Pearson Education Inc, Madeline Hunter Method, Learning 24/7 Model, the Professional Teacher, I.D.P. goal sheet, PEP-T, and PEPE were answers given. A rubric was identified by 7 of the administrators (18.4%) and seven of the teachers (6.5%) as the evaluation tool. Two administrators (5.3%) and seven teachers (6.5%) perceived the evaluation tool as a checklist. Three of the administrator (7.9%) and five of the teachers (4.7%) described the tool as a teacher self-directed plan for professional growth. The last category of "other" differs from the answers that could not be classified in that information about the process of clinical supervision was given, but not a description of an evaluation prescribed tool. Ten of the administrators (26.3%) and

20 of the teachers (18.5%) answers were classified as “other.”

The last open-ended question asked how many post-observation conferences are held between supervisor and teacher every year. The same four response categories were used. No answers were higher than five post-observation conferences yearly. The most common answer was one to two times, with 33 of the administrators (73.3%) and 87 of the teachers (75.7%) indicating that post-observation conferences were held only once or twice yearly. The next most common response was three to four times yearly, with 15 of the administrators (33.3%) and 19 of the teachers (16.8%) indicating this frequency

Summary

Data collected indicate that professionalism is the dominant approach to supervision as indicated by administrators and teachers. When disaggregated by elementary and secondary schools, both groups were similar in overall quotients in professionalism, but secondary schools used more bureaucratic techniques. Professionalism ranked higher in overall use as indicated by both the secondary and elementary data. However, examining individual questions shows that different approaches are favored in each according to the demographic. When disaggregated by degree held by the principal, those data showed that principals with master’s degrees focused on bureaucratic techniques more than principals with degree higher than a master’s degree. Professionalism methods were also used slightly more by administrators with higher degrees, but by less of a margin.

When examining components part of Zepeda’s (2007a) supervision approach, instructional supervision activities were the most common approach, with professional development not far behind. Evaluation is used, but to a lesser extent, as reported by

administrators and teachers. Again, when separated into elementary and secondary groups, the overall quotient of the use of instructional supervision and professional development was similar; however, evaluation was indicated to be used more by secondary administrators. Individual questions indicate that different methods are favored by elementary and secondary administrators. When separated into principals holding master's degrees and those holding higher degrees, the data show a slightly higher quotient of administrators holding higher than a master's degree utilizing instructional supervision techniques. Data indicating professional development activities were similar among the two groups, but there is a larger difference in the use of evaluation techniques in teacher supervision.

Open-ended questions indicated that a clinical supervision was prevailing, but, on average, it was only used one to two times yearly, and different aspects of the process were implemented more frequently than others. Most respondents reported differentiation in supervision methods, usually based on tenure and need. A majority of the schools had a prescribed evaluation tool, but, in most cases, the type of tool could not be determined from the data gathered.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

In today's school climate of standards-based assessments to determine the adequacy of school in America, principals are under heavy scrutiny. *No Child Left Behind* has proven to be one of the most bureaucratic laws passed in the history of education in America, yet, in practice, professionalism methods in teacher supervision have proven to be more effective. Balance when supervising teachers is needed; one that meets teacher's needs and improve student achievement to be able to reach the criteria established by the states.

Teacher supervision has evolved over time, and has been impacted by different needs and factors throughout the history of the United States. During the emergence of teacher supervision, bureaucratic methods were seen as a necessity to supervise and inspect teachers. Teacher supervision gradually grew into a professional activity as the Progressive Era began. Progressive thoughts and zeitgeist of the time naturally led into the methodologies and practices of supervision. Since both professionalism and bureaucracy emerged in supervision, the pendulum has swung back and forth from one emphasis to the other.

Within professional and bureaucratic practices, there is the need for a equilibrium in the methods used to determine teachers' effectiveness and give them the tools to improve.

Research has led to several methods that are shown to improve a teacher's abilities in the classroom. Zepeda (2007a) offers an approach to supervision that encompasses instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation. If these three approaches are applied in a cycle of supervision, teachers are supported, their needs are met, their craft is improved, and legal obligations are met.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was twofold: to determine the extent to which professionalism and bureaucracy are used in schools around the country and to describe to what extent the elements of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation are used to supervise teachers.

Research Questions

This study was guided by these questions:

- What are principals' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What are teachers' perceptions of supervisory processes used in schools?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by principals: bureaucracy or professionalism?
- What is the prevailing approach to supervision as perceived by teachers: bureaucracy or professionalism?

Research Methodology

A survey was developed, the Instructional Leadership Inventory (ILI), to determine

what methods of supervision were currently being used in schools. Zepeda's (2007a) work on supervision was applied, after the survey was published, as a guide to outline three areas of supervision that, when used together, work to improve a teacher's abilities: instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluations. The survey included ten questions that would indicate how each of the three strategies was utilized, as indicated by teachers and administrators. Another goal was to discover which approach, professionalism or bureaucratic was more dominant in supervision of teachers. Thirteen questions were used to determine an orientation toward professionalism, and 12 to determine a bureaucratic orientation.

The study described in this dissertation used existing data. The extant ILI consisted of ten demographic questions, 84 Likert-scale questions, and 13 open-ended questions. The ILI was developed as part of a doctoral project with two other doctoral candidates. The survey asked a variety of questions related to instructional leadership, with items specifically related to three topics:

1. Principals' knowledge base about classroom instruction.
2. Principals' knowledge and practice relevant to professional development.
3. Principals' supervision practices.

Thirty-one of the survey questions and eight open-ended questions were specific to inform about teacher supervision.

The ILI was completed by two groups of "Principals of the Year": those honored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and those honored by the National Elementary Association of School Principals (NEASP) for the 2003-2004 school year. In all, 50 secondary principals and 50 elementary principals were included

in the population. Three additional surveys were also sent to be given to teachers who worked at the principal's school. By using principals and teachers, supervision methods could be determined from each perspective.

The survey asked for basic demographic information. Principals were asked for their current position and how many years they had been in that position. Teachers were asked how many years they had been at the school. Teachers and administrators were asked to indicate how many years they had taught, their gender, their age, and the highest degree they had earned. There were also questions about the school at which they worked; both groups were asked for the level of their school, the student population, the district size, and the location of the district.

The Likert-scale questions asked for the teachers and the administrators to indicate to what extent a statement was true and to what extent certain evidence was used to judge a teacher's effectiveness. The scale given was: 1 (*not at all*); 2 (*slight extent*); 3 (*no opinion*); 4 (*some extent*); and 5 (*great extent*). For the purposes of this research, the available answers were changed to: 0 (*no opinion*); 1 (*not at all*); 2 (*slight extent*); 3 (*some extent*); 4 (*great extent*); and u (*no answer given*) in order to run calculations using the answers. Of the 31 questions relating to teacher supervision, 13 were related to professionalism practices, 12 were related to bureaucratic practices, 10 questions related to instructional supervision; 11 questions related to professional development; and 10 questions related to evaluation.

Before the survey was mailed, a pilot survey was done and feedback was used to alter the survey for readability and reliability. The survey was also reviewed by experts in the area of instructional leadership to determine the validity and reliability of the survey.

The survey was mailed with a cover letter via the U.S. Postal system and the packet included a cover letter, a principal's survey, three teachers' surveys and a teacher cover letter. After the initial response, a reminder card was sent, and then another survey packet. A second reminder letter was sent. The response to the survey was a return rate of 56% for principals (56), and 45.6% for the teachers (137).

Interpretation of Findings

Bureaucracy versus Professionalism

Several different forms of supervision exist in schools today. From the history of educational supervision, it is clear that, over the years, the pendulum has swung back and forth between the opposing approaches of bureaucracy and professionalism. Supervision methods have ranged from the bureaucratic tools of summative evaluation to the professional notions of formative requirements and activities. The twentieth century has been witness to a tug of war between merely evaluating teachers and actively helping teachers improve – or more simply put, between bureaucracy and professionalism (Nolan & Hoover, 2008).

Currently, supervision systems continue to vary greatly. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) described the current era of teacher supervision as the *human resources supervision period*. Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) called it the *human development phase*. Supervisors use a variety of techniques and merge the two approaches depending on their need (Tracy, 1998). Despite the opinions of Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) and Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) that, during the past decade, professionalism has become the dominant supervision approach, supervision is still viewed by teachers and

administrators as bureaucratic (Blasé & Blasé, 2004).

Sergiovanni's (1995) 80/20 rule states that supervisors should spend no more than 20% of their time assessing teachers' abilities for evaluation purposes, leaving 80% of their time to spend on professional development and improvement. Firth (1998) indicated that by giving teachers expertise, autonomy, responsibility, and commitment the number of at-risk students would reduce. Both authors emphasize a professionalism approach.

Juxtaposed to the professionalism promoted by Tracy and MacNaughton (1993), Tracy (1998), Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), Sergiovanni (1995), and Firth (1998), there is also the belief that bureaucratic means are central to the supervision of teachers. The current laws and mandates influencing teacher supervision, such as *No Child Left Behind* and state laws mandating a specific sequence of teacher supervision, led Killian and Post (1998) and Myers (2005) to view teacher supervision as moving toward bureaucracy. According to Kelly (1999) and Louis and Smith (1990), schools are now mired in bureaucratic organization methods. MacNeil (2005) stated that the industrial factory model is no longer effective in today's climate; therefore, reform efforts fail. Myers (2005) argued that teachers are leaving the profession because of the bureaucratic restrictions on their jobs, which determine competence by factors beyond the control of the teachers. These federal laws and mandates have dictated curriculum guidelines, timelines, expected outcomes, and teacher supervision.

The supervisor's role today is to ensure that professionalism remains a factor in education, even in the face of bureaucratic restraints (Sergiovanni, 1995). Relying solely on bureaucratic means to supervise teachers does not improve teaching and learning, so

professionalism must remain part of supervision in order to keep teachers from failing (Costa, Garmston, and Lambert, 1988; Lee, 1991). Zepeda's (2007a) model of supervision, with equal emphasis on instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation, balances the approaches of professionalism and bureaucracy. This model can be used not only to meet the needs of teachers in improving their craft and having autonomy, but also to meet the requirements of mandates about evaluation and comply with other bureaucratic restrictions on supervision.

The significance of this study was to determine which approach was currently more dominant in the supervision of teachers: professionalism or bureaucracy. From the analysis done it is clear that professionalism is still dominant. To illustrate these competing forces, we can imagine bureaucracy and professionalism placed on a continuum, with teacher development and assistance on the far left and organization development and teacher evaluation on the far right (Tracy, 1998). On such a continuum, professionalism would be on the left and bureaucracy would appear on the right. If today's schools were placed on this continuum, they would appear just left of center, leaning toward professionalism, but not by much. If each side represented 100 units of space, and an indicator is moved 91.8 units from center to the left and back 77.6 to the right, administrators would place the current state of teacher supervision at 14.2 on the professionalism side.

Teachers, reporting that less professionalism and more bureaucratic measures are in place, would place the indicator 9.6 units from the center, but still on the professionalism side.

could also be said that there is a balance supervisors are currently holding onto; today supervision remains slightly closer to the professionalism side of the continuum, but the push toward bureaucracy could be a trend. When results are grouped into “to some or great extent” and “to slight extent or not at all,” teachers and administrators responses were compared. Of the nine questions with 5% or more difference in the answers given by the two groups, six of the questions are bureaucracy-oriented questions and three are professionalism-oriented. If disaggregated by relation to instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation, six questions show a difference in perceptions of evaluation methods, three show a difference in perceptions of instructional supervision methods, and two show a difference in perceptions of professional development methods. These variations show that teachers and administrators have divergent perceptions of the supervisory process, especially as it pertains to bureaucracy and evaluation.

Teachers indicated that more bureaucratic strategies were used than administrators. The history of bureaucracy in supervision still persists. Even though administrators indicated the use of more professionalism techniques when supervising, the bureaucratic image of the bureaucratic supervisor is still prevalent. Teacher evaluation usually includes value judgments about performance, uses a rating scale, and is used to determine continued employment (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988). Such evaluations are usually mandated by the governing body and include prescribed criteria for how to determine if a teacher is qualified to retain employment (Kelehear, 2006; Zepeda, 2007a). Administrators and teachers need to share more information about the expectations and processes involved in supervision, so all parties involved can describe and understand it.

Instructional Supervision, Professional Development, and Evaluation

Supervision is way to improve teaching and thereby increase student learning using diverse approaches (Gocke & Threntham, 2001; Harris, 1998; Holland, 1998; Hyman, 1975; Pfeiffer, 1998; Zepeda, 2007a). The cycle of supervision described by Zepeda (2007a) of instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation could be represented by a triangle, or pyramid, with the most used methods at its base, leading upward to the less-used strategies. According to the administrators, the dominant method is instructional supervision, followed by professional development and then evaluation.

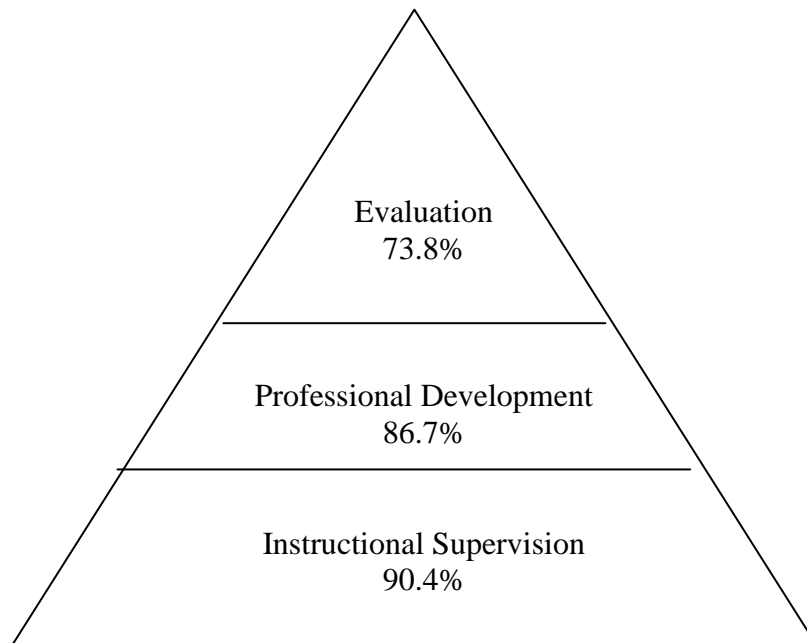


Figure 18. Administrator's Hierarchy of Quotients of Zepeda's Supervision Cycle

Teachers agreed to a lesser degree, but the proportions are about similar. The broadest category was still instructional supervision, seconded by professional development, and last was evaluation.

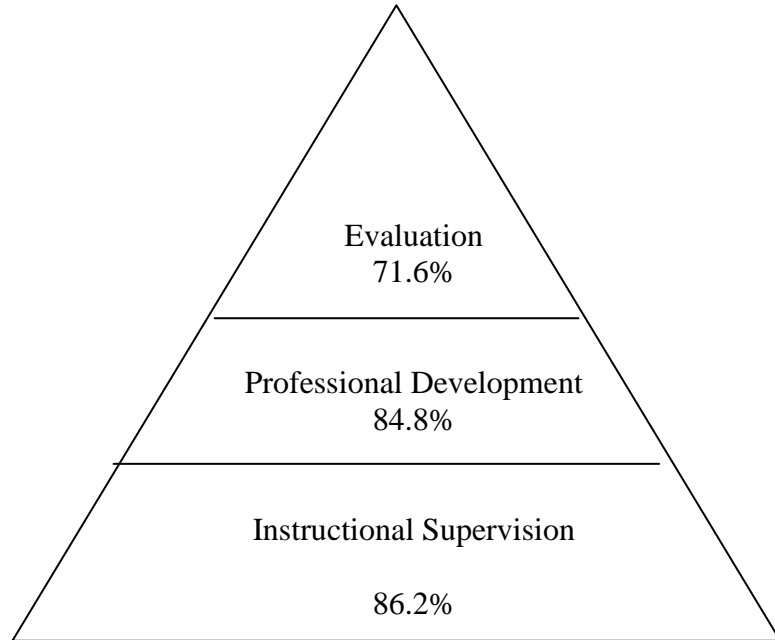


Figure 19. Teacher's Hierarchy Perceptions of Quotients of Zepeda's Supervision Cycle

Teachers who participated in this survey viewed instructional supervision and professional development as having less emphasis than did administrators. This could be owing to the expectations given by administrators as to the supervisory process. It could also be because the specific teachers included in the survey were simply not part of all the professional development activities or instructional supervision activities asked about in the survey.

This study does confirm that Zepeda's (2007a) three-pronged cycle of supervision is in place in schools, as perceived by teachers and administrators. Sergiovanni's (1995) 80/20 rule is also seen in the results of the study, but not in the proportions Sergiovanni suggested.

Several links have been made between good supervision and staff development (e.g. Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Carter, 2001; Cooley & Shen, 2003;

McQuarrie & Wood, 1991; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2007a). It is evident that instructional supervision methods and professional development are priorities in the scheme of supervision. To meet new standards and accountability measures currently being imposed on schools, professional development has become essential (Heinecke, Curry-Corcoran, & Moon, 2003). Tucker (2003) suggested that evaluation should be used as a launch pad for professional development, again, showing the interconnectedness of the three aspects of supervision describe by Zepeda (2007a).

Secondary Versus Elementary

The differences as a whole in the use of professionalism and bureaucracy in elementary school versus secondary school administrators was slight, but variations in the use of different strategies was more striking. Secondary administrators were more likely to use the bureaucratic methods of employing standards, a standardized tool to evaluate teachers, and student performance on standardized tests to determine the effectiveness of teachers. This could be accounted for in the larger number of faculty usually supervised at the secondary level. Employing bureaucratic methods would standardize the supervision of a large number of teachers possibly being supervised by different administrators. Elementary administrators were more likely to expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities and use the number of grades in the teacher's grade book to determine effectiveness. This could be accounted for in that elementary teachers have a wide range of subjects to cover. Ensuring that there are grades for the different subject areas and sequencing the activities may be a more appropriate tool at the elementary level.

Orientation toward professionalism also varied between secondary and elementary administrators. Secondary administrators are more likely to give feedback on professional development activities, allow teachers to set their own professional development goals, and encourage teachers to read and use current professional articles and practices. Again, taking into account the size of most secondary schools and the specialization of the teachers, these activities would enhance a secondary school's staff. In contrast, elementary schools are more likely to use mentoring and discuss instructional practices with teachers in conferences.

Looking at instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation method in secondary and elementary schools, differences in the overall use of the strategies were minor, but individual strategies were utilized differently. Elementary administrators were more likely than secondary administrators to be influenced by outside factors impacting supervision; collaborate with university faculty about professional development; use peer coaching, meet with teachers to discuss instructional practices; meet with teachers to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices; expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing; and use the number of grades in a teacher's grade book to judge effectiveness. Secondary administrators were more likely to give feedback on planning professional development, use standards to drive instruction, have teachers set their own professional development goals, encourage teachers to read and use current literature; involve teachers in curriculum design, use participation in professional development activities to determine effectiveness, and use diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods to judge teacher's effectiveness. Again, looking at the structures of a secondary versus an

elementary school, differences could be accounted for in size of the staff and the subjects taught at each level.

Degree Held by Principal

When comparing principals holding higher degrees with those who hold master's degree, it is telling that those principals with more education utilized fewer bureaucratic methods and slightly more professionalism. A difference was also noted in evaluation techniques being used less by principals with higher degrees. Differences could be due to several reasons. One hypothesis is that principals holding higher degrees could have learned, during their education, that bureaucratic approaches are not as effective as professional approaches. They could also have advanced understanding and deeper conceptualization of how professionalism impacts the larger organizational system. Principals holding a master's degree may be relying on bureaucratic means because traditionally bureaucratic methods are required.

The degree held by the principal is also a factor affecting the overall quotients of bureaucratic orientation and evaluation practices, with a 6% difference in evaluation methods and 5.4% difference in bureaucratic orientation with principals with only a master's degree using these more. Principals with a only master's degree were more likely to be influenced by outside agencies, collaborate with university faculty about professional development, have teachers set their own instructional goals, discuss professional development while conferencing with teachers, expect specific instructional practices to be used, expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom, use diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods, and judge a teacher's effectiveness based on adherence by the teacher to a

specific lesson design. Administrators with degrees above a master's were more likely to have teachers observe other teachers and provide feedback, involve teachers in curriculum design, mandate the use of specific instructional practices in the classroom, judge a teacher based on the number of grade in his or her grade book, and use student's meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas to determine a teacher's effectiveness.

Collaboration

Teacher collaboration is a method central to the improvement of teaching. Traditional methods of individual teachers working in isolation have not been successful, and it has become clear there is a need to work together to meet needs of students (Greenfield, 2005). Peer collaboration needs to increase so that teachers can discuss teaching methods with one another (Tucker, 2003). School-based professional learning communities include the collaboration and support of teachers to encourage student learning (Greenfield). Instances of teachers collaborating with university faculty, engaging in professional dialogues with other teachers, meeting to discuss current literature about their craft, observing other teachers and providing feedback all either had a larger than 10% difference in the extent of use reported by teachers versus administrators or had low overall reported use. These items can all be categorized as collaboration techniques. Outside collaboration or collaboration inside the school seems to not be a priority. Through questions about mentoring, this study showed that fifty-five percent of the administrators indicated that new teachers received mentoring and fifty-nine percent indicated that mentoring was generally used in their schools. These findings suggest that a bureaucratic organizational structure, rooted in the early twentieth

century continues to impact the use of collaborative practices. Teachers working in isolation in their classrooms is the traditional view most have of education; even though research indicates that groups need to work together to share ideas and develop new theories about what would improve the situations in schools (Zepeda, 2007a).

Clinical Supervision

The last area for which data were collected was the use of clinical supervision. These data were collected using open-ended questions because of the limitations of the Likert-scale questions. The responses to these open-ended questions indicated that clinical supervision was used in a limited manner. Most of the respondents (about 50%) indicated that the clinical supervision cycle was done once or twice yearly, while 80% of the teachers and administrators indicated that they discussed data collected during the observations. Of the teachers, 25% indicated that no pre-observation conferences were held; 11% of administrators indicated this. Seventy-seven percent of the administrators indicated that one or two pre-observation conferences were held yearly. It was unexpected that none of these processes occurred more often.

Apparently, the clinical supervision process has been pared down to save time. This researcher would call this the bureaucratization of clinical supervision. Where parts of the process are in place, they have been truncated. Classroom walk-throughs have become popular as a way to informally observe teachers and save the time it would take to formally observe and record data (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; David, 2008; Dyrli, 2008; Gewertz, 2008; Nolan & Hoover, 2008). Is this the educational equivalent to one-minute managing described by Blachard and Johnson (1981): one minute supervision?

Clinical supervision models are vehicles for improvements in instructional practices,

and they are considered part of instructional supervision (Zepeda, 2007a). Garman (1982) stressed personal empowerment in the clinical process, namely, how the process could affect teachers developing their own perceptions of good teaching. This lack of clinical supervision could be accounted for by the time commitment it entails. Many researchers have found supervision is not administrators' highest priority, even though it is perceived as one of the most important activities an administrator does, because of the time these tasks require, time that many administrators need for other obligations (Cooley & Shen, 2003; Goodwin, Cunningham, & Childress, 2003; Anderson, & Snyder, 1998). If administrators understand the benefits and are trained adequately, hopefully the use of the practice will increase. If time constraints are the major factor, then time management techniques and strategies for implementing supervision methods that work best would be required.

Limitations

As with any survey research, there are limitations to this study. The sample of convenience used to collect the data would be the first concern. Because the goal of this study was to develop a national picture of supervision trends in the United States, the sample must reflect the currently used models and methods used from each state. Generalization of the results is not affected by the limitation of the sample, which was made up of selected exemplary principals.

A problem with surveys of this kind is that the instrument is limited to the responses given and the time each respondent puts into his or her answers. Some respondents might have answered all the questions thoughtfully, and some might have answered

quickly and provided little information about the processes used in their school. To compensate for this, the survey was composed of Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions. Fatigue could have also affected some responses, owing to the length of the survey. The vernacular of the questions could have impacted the answers. If either group was unclear as to the meaning of the terminology or question, answers would not have been a representation of the current supervision processes used.

One assumption of the study is that the questions will be answered honestly and accurately. This assumption is justified by having multiple sources of information from each school. Having data from three teachers and the principal counterbalances the amount of inaccurate information that might be given. This helps create a picture of the supervisory process in schools that is as accurate as possible.

Allowing the principal to select the teachers who would answer the surveys was also a limitation. It can be assumed that administrators would choose teachers with whom they have had positive supervisory interactions. This limitation could not be compensated for in the survey format. The multiple sources of data were needed to confirm the results and see if compatibility existed in the data received from administrators and teachers.

The last limitation was that questions varied. Because this research utilized preexisting data, survey questions might not have been as specifically targeted to the categories they were assigned as they would have been if a new survey had been written with these categories in mind. If the research was to be repeated and an instrument was developed specifically to look at research-based factors, the new results could vary.

Conclusions

One of the conclusions that can be drawn from the research done is that administrators and teachers currently believe that professionalism is, by a slight margin, the dominant approach to supervision; however, at the current time, bureaucratic methods are encroaching on the professionalism dominance. Differences do exist in the applications of methods employed by administrators from elementary schools versus secondary schools, as well as administrators with master's degrees versus those with higher degrees.

In determining administrators' perceptions of supervisory methods used in schools, the dominant processes appear to be instructional supervision and professional development activities. The least common practices were those associated with evaluation. This is confirmed by teachers' perceptions, though to a slightly lesser extent than administrators' views. The extent to which the supervision processes described in this research are used could be dependent on the prescribed tool the majority of the respondents indicated was in place, mandating the practices used.

In comparing elementary to secondary schools, professionalism and bureaucratic strategies were used almost to the same extent, as well as instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation strategies. The differences were evident in the specific methods used in the locations. The reasons for the differences can be accounted for in the needs of the teachers and subjects taught at elementary school and secondary schools.

Principals with higher degrees compared to those with only master's degree showed a difference in the use of evaluation and bureaucratic methods. This can be accounted for

in the education principals with higher degree have. They may have more knowledge and training in supervisory methods and practices.

Collaboration techniques are underused in schools. This research shows that collaboration, specifically in instructional supervision and professional development, are not utilized as much as other strategies. Researchers agree that collaboration needs to increase. The isolation of teachers does not work to improve teaching or learning. Educators need to rely on each other to improve practices and increase knowledge and skills.

Looking at the open-ended responses, it is clear that clinical supervision is used, but, on average, these activities take place only once or twice annually. Pre-observation conferences, formal observations, conferences to evaluate data, and post-observation conferences were reported to happen one to two times per year by a majority of the respondents. There is also differentiated supervision based mainly on a teacher's years of experience and his or her need of such strategies.

Recommendations for Further Studies

Further research is needed to more fully determine the current state of teacher supervision. *No Child Left Behind*, passed in 2002, is a bureaucratic law. The data used in this research was gathered in 2004 - 2005, at the start of the implementation of the law. This was a time when schools were just beginning to be listed as adequate or inadequate and, consequently, having to develop strategies to compensate for their shortfalls. As described in several components of *Educational Leadership in an Age of Accountability: The Virginia Experience* (2003), there have been major changes in schools and teacher

supervisory process as a reaction to *No Child Left Behind*. Whether the pendulum is now swinging toward bureaucracy or toward professionalism could be further determined if the research were repeated with data from several years after *No Child Left Behind* was enacted. This researcher would venture to guess that bureaucratic methods are becoming more dominant because of this and other mandates impacting teacher supervision. Professionalism has been proven to meet the needs of teachers and improve teacher efficacy. To serve the needs of the students and teachers, professionalism is clearly needed. To meet the needs of the federal, state, and district mandates, bureaucracy is needed. A balance between the two must be struck, but not at the expense of the effectiveness of either. Realistically, both approaches are needed to ensure that schools are balanced and all stakeholders' needs are met. In principal preparation programs, an emphasis needs to be placed on understanding how bureaucratic orientations (the organizational structure) and professional orientations (individual needs) are interrelated. In other words, leaders must be systems thinkers (Senge, 1990) who understand the balance of nomothetic and idiographic elements of the organization (Getzels & Guba, 1957).

Further disaggregation of the data to see if there are distinctions in responses to the questions based on the individual's demographic questions or district location and district size would further enlighten educational leaders as to the processes used in different areas and by different administrators. This study focused on the processes used to supervise teachers. A more in-depth look at teachers' perceptions of the effects of different supervision processes -- professionalism, bureaucracy, instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation -- could influence the future direction of

principal preparation programs. It is the responsibility of principals to ensure that a professional orientation is employed (Sergiovanni, 1995), even in times when highly bureaucratic measures are used to determine if a school is adequate. Understanding the basis of what teachers and administrators view as effective would be extremely valuable in these times, when educators find themselves with far more bureaucratic mandates and far less time and resources.

It would also be valuable to look at high-achieving schools and research what supervisory practices are used there. If future studies yield a significant difference in the supervision methods used in high-achieving schools, a correlation between those supervision methods and increased student achievement could be assumed.

Of course, it takes more time and effort for a principal to use strategies aimed at professionalization of teachers. Bureaucratic measures are usually mandated, so administrators have no choice. Research to determine the time devoted to each type of activity would be useful. Over 70% of the administrators in this study agree, to some or great extent, that teachers grow when they engage in dialogues with other teachers about their craft, teachers are part of planning that impacts teaching and learning, teachers receive assistance and coaching when they are struggling, administrators use data (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher-made tests) to plan professional development activities, teachers are part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning, teachers take responsibility for improving instruction, standards drive the instruction, and are mentored when they are new to the school. Over 70% of the teachers surveyed agrees, to some or great extent, that they feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms; are part of any planning that

impacts teaching and learning; feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms; and receive mentoring when they are new to the profession. Looking at these specific aspects of teacher supervision and determining their impact on student achievement would indicate whether the emphasis on these items was having the desired impact.

Also finding reasons for the low percentages in implementation of strategies oriented toward professionalism and that have been proven to increase student achievement would be informative to principal preparation programs. Practices with apparently lower levels of implementation include collaboration with university faculty to develop professional development activities; peer coaching; teacher discussion of research; and, teachers' use of professional literature.

Research into the impact of different supervision models and methods and research linking these models to teacher effectiveness would, one hopes, greatly increase the use of proven high-yield strategies. Linking teacher supervision to student achievement would further the knowledge based and effect the implementation of proven approaches.

Blasé and Blasé (2004) reviewed the *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* and found eighty-two articles on supervision theory, conceptions of supervision, legal issues, supervisors in various roles, evaluation of supervision practices, conferences, reflective practice, and the history and research of supervision (inquiry and areas in need of research). They concluded that there is a need for further research on the effects of supervision on teacher behavior, how supervision relates to teaching, the characteristics of supervision, and conditions necessary for effective supervision. They found that few administration texts addressed supervision at all. Blasé & Blasé (2004) noted that, in looking at research on supervision and instructional leadership, there was a connection

between supervisory actions and professional growth of teachers, teacher commitment, involvement, innovativeness, and increased student learning.

APPENDIX A

Principal's Survey

Instructional Leadership Inventory Principals

Please complete the following survey. Circle/write the most appropriate answer.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:			
Please indicate your current position:			
Principal	Assistant Principal	Other Administration	Other
Please indicate how many years you have held your current position:			
Please indicate how many years you taught:			
1-3	4-6	7-10	10-15 16-25 26-30 30+
Please circle one:			
Male	Female		
Please circle the range that best describes your age:			
20-30	31-40	41-50	51+
Indicate the highest degree you have earned:			
Bachelors	Masters	Educational Specialist	Doctorate
Please circle the one that best describes your school:			
Elementary School	Junior High School/Middle School		High School
Please describe the location of your school:			
Urban Area	Suburban Area	Rural Area	
Indicate, approximately, how many students attend your school:			
_____			students
Indicate, approximately, the student population of your school's district:			
1,000 or less	1,001-2,500	2,501-5,000	5,001-10,000
10,001-25,000		25,001-50,000	50,001 and over

Choose the appropriate number and circle it for each of the questions. Thank you in advance for your time.

1-Not at All 2-Slight Extent 3-No Opinion 4-Some Extent 5-Great Extent

TO WHAT EXTENT...

1. do you make decisions regarding supervision based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
2. do you collaborate with university faculty for professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
3. do those at your site charged with planning professional development provide feedback to other faculty members?	1	2	3	4	5
4. is mentoring used in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
5. do your teachers set their own instructional goals?	1	2	3	4	5
6. do professional development activities include input from all disciplines and/or grade levels?	1	2	3	4	5
7. do you discuss individual professional development when conferencing with teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
8. are teachers in your school part of any planning that impacts teaching and learning?	1	2	3	4	5
9. do you assist and coach teachers who are struggling?	1	2	3	4	5
10. do you participate in planning professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
11. do you make decisions regarding instruction based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
12. is your school's professional development supported financially?	1	2	3	4	5
13. do your teachers grow professionally when they engage in dialogue with other teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
14. are your school's objectives and practices aligned with district objectives and practices?	1	2	3	4	5
15. do you mandate the use of specific instructional practices in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
16. do your teachers use peer coaching?	1	2	3	4	5
17. do standards drive instruction at your school?	1	2	3	4	5
18. do your teachers meet to discuss instructional practices in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
19. do you encourage parents and community members to participate in your professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
20. do your teachers meet to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
21. does your school use written objectives for professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
22. do teachers in your school feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
23. do you expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
24. do you use outside agencies to evaluate professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
25. do you plan leadership development for teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
26. are professional development activities related to your school goals?	1	2	3	4	5
27. do you utilize data (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) to plan your professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
28. are teachers in your school a part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
29. do teachers at your school take responsibility for improving instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
30. do you make decisions regarding professional development based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
31. is professional development emphasized in your teacher evaluation instrument?	1	2	3	4	5

32. are new teachers mentored each year?	1	2	3	4	5
33. do teachers in your school observe other teachers and provide feedback?	1	2	3	4	5
34. do professional development activities address your school's particular climate and culture?	1	2	3	4	5
35. do your teachers set their own professional development goals and activities?	1	2	3	4	5
36. do your teachers' professional skills in the classroom improve when they read and use current professional articles and practices?	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	Please continue...	

TO WHAT EXTENT...

37. are teachers in your school involved in curriculum design?	1	2	3	4	5
38. do you archive your school's major decisions and plans so there is continuity in your professional development?	1	2	3	4	5

DO YOU USE THE FOLLOWING RESOURCES WHEN MAKING DECISIONS REGARDING INSTRUCTION?

39. Reflect on your past teaching practices	1	2	3	4	5
40. Experiences from your past teaching practice	1	2	3	4	5
41. Information from your undergraduate education	1	2	3	4	5
42. Information from your graduate education	1	2	3	4	5
43. Information from your professional organization(s)	1	2	3	4	5
44. Information from current research on effective instruction	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	5-Great Extent	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU USE THE FOLLOWING TO JUDGE TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS?

45. Student performance on standardized tests	1	2	3	4	5
46. Teacher participation in professional development activities	1	2	3	4	5
47. Discussions with teachers about classroom activities	1	2	3	4	5
48. Diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods	1	2	3	4	5
49. Adherence by the teacher to a specific lesson design	1	2	3	4	5
50. Number of grades in a teacher's grade book	1	2	3	4	5
51. Teachers' analysis of other teachers' effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
52. Students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas	1	2	3	4	5
53. Teachers meeting predetermined goals (either self-imposed or directed by an administrator)	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	5-Great Extent	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU ENCOURAGE YOUR TEACHERS TO...

54. teach students to reflect on learning?	1	2	3	4	5
55. teach students to look for patterns?	1	2	3	4	5
56. allow students to demonstrate knowledge in a variety of ways?	1	2	3	4	5
57. teach students how to generalize information?	1	2	3	4	5
58. teach students to work on interdependence?	1	2	3	4	5
59. teach practice to mastery?	1	2	3	4	5
60. focus on competition in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
61. link student emotions to learning?	1	2	3	4	5
62. deliver instruction through lecture?	1	2	3	4	5
63. have students participate in peer teaching?	1	2	3	4	5
64. group students by ability?	1	2	3	4	5
65. teach using heterogeneous grouping?	1	2	3	4	5
66. begin instruction where students' abilities indicate?	1	2	3	4	5
67. be flexible with instructional time?	1	2	3	4	5
68. show empathy to students' frustration by clarifying instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
69. teach the designated grade-level curriculum to all students?	1	2	3	4	5
70. diagnose students' needs prior to developing a lesson plan?	1	2	3	4	5
71. be flexible in their grouping strategies?	1	2	3	4	5

72. teach using homogeneous grouping?	1	2	3	4	5
73. link past knowledge to present learning?	1	2	3	4	5
74. teach students according to their interests?	1	2	3	4	5
75. have students generate their own questions?	1	2	3	4	5
76. consider product, content, and environment in lesson planning?	1	2	3	4	5
77. use clear and consistent language when delivering instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
78. try new approaches in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
79. pace instruction based on students' needs?	1	2	3	4	5
80. have students use a variety of problem-solving techniques?	1	2	3	4	5
81. address multiple intelligences of students?	1	2	3	4	5
82. drill on specific test objectives?	1	2	3	4	5
83. have students practice taking standardized tests?	1	2	3	4	5
84. have teachers reflect on their teaching practices?	1	2	3	4	5

Please provide a short answer to the following questions.

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS:		
85. How many times do you and teachers evaluate together data from observations each year?		
86. How many pre-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher during a school year?		
87. How much time is allotted for professional development activities in a school year (i.e., hours per week, hours per month, or number of times in a year)?		
88. How many formal observations in the classroom do you do for each teacher every year?		
89. What weaknesses would you identify in your own principal preparation program?		
90. Do you differentiate supervision for different teachers?	Yes	No
91. If yes, how?		
92. What strengths would you identify in your own principal preparation program?		
93. Does a prescribed evaluation tool determine your supervision method?	Yes	No

94. Please describe the evaluation tool.
95. What, if anything, would you like to see changed in principal preparation programs?
96. How is professional development rewarded in your school?
97. How many post-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher every year?

Thank you for your time and participation in our research. Please return this survey in the addressed and stamped envelope provided by February 1, 2005.

If you would like to participate in a brief follow-up interview, please write your first name, phone number, and best time to contact you on the space provided:

APPENDIX B

Teacher's Survey

Instructional Leadership Inventory Principals

Please complete the following survey. Circle/write the most appropriate answer.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:			
Please indicate your current position:			
Principal	Assistant Principal	Other Administration	Other
Please indicate how many years you have held your current position:			
Please indicate how many years you taught:			
1-3	4-6	7-10	10-15 16-25 26-30 30+
Please circle one:			
Male	Female		
Please circle the range that best describes your age:			
20-30	31-40	41-50	51+
Indicate the highest degree you have earned:			
Bachelors	Masters	Educational Specialist	Doctorate
Please circle the one that best describes your school:			
Elementary School	Junior High School/Middle School		High School
Please describe the location of your school:			
Urban Area	Suburban Area	Rural Area	
Indicate, approximately, how many students attend your school:			
_____ students			
Indicate, approximately, the student population of your school's district:			
1,000 or less	1,001-2,500	2,501-5,000	5,001-10,000
10,001-25,000	25,001-50,000	50,001 and over	

Choose the appropriate number and circle it for each of the questions. Thank you in advance for your time.

1-Not at All 2-Slight Extent 3-No Opinion 4-Some Extent 5-Great Extent

TO WHAT EXTENT...

1. do you make decisions regarding supervision based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
2. do you collaborate with university faculty for professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
3. do those at your site charged with planning professional development provide feedback to other faculty members?	1	2	3	4	5
4. is mentoring used in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
5. do your teachers set their own instructional goals?	1	2	3	4	5
6. do professional development activities include input from all disciplines and/or grade levels?	1	2	3	4	5
7. do you discuss individual professional development when conferencing with teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
8. are teachers in your school part of any planning that impacts teaching and learning?	1	2	3	4	5
9. do you assist and coach teachers who are struggling?	1	2	3	4	5
10. do you participate in planning professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
11. do you make decisions regarding instruction based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
12. is your school's professional development supported financially?	1	2	3	4	5
13. do your teachers grow professionally when they engage in dialogue with other teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
14. are your school's objectives and practices aligned with district objectives and practices?	1	2	3	4	5
15. do you mandate the use of specific instructional practices in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
16. do your teachers use peer coaching?	1	2	3	4	5
17. do standards drive instruction at your school?	1	2	3	4	5
18. do your teachers meet to discuss instructional practices in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
19. do you encourage parents and community members to participate in your professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
20. do your teachers meet to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
21. does your school use written objectives for professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
22. do teachers in your school feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms?	1	2	3	4	5
23. do you expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
24. do you use outside agencies to evaluate professional development?	1	2	3	4	5
25. do you plan leadership development for teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
26. are professional development activities related to your school goals?	1	2	3	4	5
27. do you utilize data (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) to plan your professional development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
28. are teachers in your school a part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
29. do teachers at your school take responsibility for improving instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
30. do you make decisions regarding professional development based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
31. is professional development emphasized in your teacher evaluation instrument?	1	2	3	4	5

32. are new teachers mentored each year?	1	2	3	4	5
33. do teachers in your school observe other teachers and provide feedback?	1	2	3	4	5
34. do professional development activities address your school's particular climate and culture?	1	2	3	4	5
35. do your teachers set their own professional development goals and activities?	1	2	3	4	5
36. do your teachers' professional skills in the classroom improve when they read and use current professional articles and practices?	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	Please continue...	

TO WHAT EXTENT...

37. are teachers in your school involved in curriculum design?	1	2	3	4	5
38. do you archive your school's major decisions and plans so there is continuity in your professional development?	1	2	3	4	5

DO YOU USE THE FOLLOWING RESOURCES WHEN MAKING DECISIONS REGARDING INSTRUCTION?

39. Reflect on your past teaching practices	1	2	3	4	5
40. Experiences from your past teaching practice	1	2	3	4	5
41. Information from your undergraduate education	1	2	3	4	5
42. Information from your graduate education	1	2	3	4	5
43. Information from your professional organization(s)	1	2	3	4	5
44. Information from current research on effective instruction	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	5-Great Extent	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU USE THE FOLLOWING TO JUDGE TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS?

45. Student performance on standardized tests	1	2	3	4	5
46. Teacher participation in professional development activities	1	2	3	4	5
47. Discussions with teachers about classroom activities	1	2	3	4	5
48. Diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods	1	2	3	4	5
49. Adherence by the teacher to a specific lesson design	1	2	3	4	5
50. Number of grades in a teacher's grade book	1	2	3	4	5
51. Teachers' analysis of other teachers' effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
52. Students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas	1	2	3	4	5
53. Teachers meeting predetermined goals (either self-imposed or directed by an administrator)	1	2	3	4	5
1-Not at All	2-Slight Extent	3-No Opinion	4-Some Extent	5-Great Extent	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU ENCOURAGE YOUR TEACHERS TO...

54. teach students to reflect on learning?	1	2	3	4	5
55. teach students to look for patterns?	1	2	3	4	5
56. allow students to demonstrate knowledge in a variety of ways?	1	2	3	4	5
57. teach students how to generalize information?	1	2	3	4	5
58. teach students to work on interdependence?	1	2	3	4	5
59. teach practice to mastery?	1	2	3	4	5
60. focus on competition in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
61. link student emotions to learning?	1	2	3	4	5
62. deliver instruction through lecture?	1	2	3	4	5
63. have students participate in peer teaching?	1	2	3	4	5
64. group students by ability?	1	2	3	4	5
65. teach using heterogeneous grouping?	1	2	3	4	5
66. begin instruction where students' abilities indicate?	1	2	3	4	5
67. be flexible with instructional time?	1	2	3	4	5
68. show empathy to students' frustration by clarifying instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
69. teach the designated grade-level curriculum to all students?	1	2	3	4	5
70. diagnose students' needs prior to developing a lesson plan?	1	2	3	4	5
71. be flexible in their grouping strategies?	1	2	3	4	5

72. teach using homogeneous grouping?	1	2	3	4	5
73. link past knowledge to present learning?	1	2	3	4	5
74. teach students according to their interests?	1	2	3	4	5
75. have students generate their own questions?	1	2	3	4	5
76. consider product, content, and environment in lesson planning?	1	2	3	4	5
77. use clear and consistent language when delivering instruction?	1	2	3	4	5
78. try new approaches in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
79. pace instruction based on students' needs?	1	2	3	4	5
80. have students use a variety of problem-solving techniques?	1	2	3	4	5
81. address multiple intelligences of students?	1	2	3	4	5
82. drill on specific test objectives?	1	2	3	4	5
83. have students practice taking standardized tests?	1	2	3	4	5
84. have teachers reflect on their teaching practices?	1	2	3	4	5

Please provide a short answer to the following questions.

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS:		
85. How many times do you and teachers evaluate together data from observations each year?		
86. How many pre-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher during a school year?		
87. How much time is allotted for professional development activities in a school year (i.e., hours per week, hours per month, or number of times in a year)?		
88. How many formal observations in the classroom do you do for each teacher every year?		
89. What weaknesses would you identify in your own principal preparation program?		
90. Do you differentiate supervision for different teachers?	Yes	No
91. If yes, how?		
92. What strengths would you identify in your own principal preparation program?		
93. Does a prescribed evaluation tool determine your supervision method?	Yes	No
94. Please describe the evaluation tool.		

95. What, if anything, would you like to see changed in principal preparation programs?
96. How is professional development rewarded in your school?
97. How many post-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher every year?

Thank you for your time and participation in our research. Please return this survey in the addressed and stamped envelope provided by February 1, 2005.

If you would like to participate in a brief follow-up interview, please write your first name, phone number, and best time to contact you on the space provided:

APPENDIX C

Cover Letter to Principals

November 29, 2004

Dear Principal,

We are doctoral students in the Educational Leadership Department of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, conducting a survey of the 2004 NAESP and the NASSP Principals of the Year. We are seeking the responses of this year's award recipients to answer questions on a comprehensive survey that will research three areas of principal leadership: instructional leadership practices, supervisory practices, and professional development practices. As a dedicated educator, your responses will assist us in our research of effective instructional, supervisory, and professional development practices, and will help us to make recommendations that might improve the training of principals in these three aforementioned areas.

We will greatly appreciate it if you will complete the questionnaire. We also ask that you select three teachers from your staff and have them complete the teacher questionnaires that are included in this packet. Then, please return your questionnaire in the enclosed, stamped, pre-addressed envelope by December 20th. If you have any questions while taking this survey, you may contact Carmen Benedict at 702-837-9612.

We realize your schedule is a busy one and that your time is valuable, but we are sure that you want to improve the quality of principal leadership as much as we do. Your responses will be kept confidential; we ask for no identifying information on the questionnaire form. The study has been approved by the University's Research and Human Subjects Review Committee. The completion and return of this questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in the study, and completing it will be the extent of your participation in this study. Should you wish to participate in a telephone interview as a follow-up to this survey, you may indicate so at the end of the questionnaire.

We thank you in advance for your cooperation and your assistance.

Yours truly,

Carmen Benedict

Rebecca Minnear-Peplinski

Barbara Presler

APPENDIX D

Cover Letter to Teachers

November 29, 2004

Dear Teacher,

We are doctoral students in the Educational Leadership Department of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, conducting a survey of the 2004 NAESP and the NASSP Principals of the Year and three teachers from each of their staffs. We are seeking the responses of this year's award recipients and teachers from their schools to answer questions on a comprehensive survey that will research three areas of principal leadership: instructional leadership practices, supervisory practices, and professional development practices. As a dedicated educator, your responses will assist us in our research of effective instructional, supervisory, and professional development practices, and will help us to make recommendations that might improve the training of principals in these three aforementioned areas.

We will greatly appreciate it if you will complete the questionnaire. We then ask that you return the completed questionnaire in the attached stamped self-addressed envelope by December 20th. If you have any questions while taking the survey, you may contact Carmen Benedict at 702-837-9612.

We realize your schedule is a busy one and that your time is valuable, but we are sure that you want to improve the quality of principal leadership as much as we do. Your responses will be kept confidential; we ask for no identifying information on the questionnaire form. The study has been approved by the University's Research and Human Subjects Review Committee. The completion and return of this questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in the study, and completing it will be the extent of your participation in this study. Should you wish to participate in a telephone interview as a follow-up to this survey, you may indicate so at the end of the questionnaire.

We thank you in advance for your cooperation and your assistance.

Yours truly,

Carmen Benedict

Rebecca Minnear-Peplinski

Barbara Presler

APPENDIX E

Survey Matrix

<i>Question:</i>	<i>Instructional Supervision</i>	<i>Professional Development</i>	<i>Evaluation</i>	<i>Professionalism</i>	<i>Bureaucracy</i>
TO WHAT EXTENT...					
1. do you make decisions regarding supervision based on the influences of outside entities (i.e., <i>No Child Left Behind Act</i> , state mandates, district regulations, immediate supervisor directives, etc.)?			✓		✓
2. do you collaborate with university faculty for professional development activities?		✓			
3. do those at your site charged with planning professional development provide feedback to other faculty members?		✓		✓	
4. is mentoring used in your school?		✓		✓	
5. do your teachers set their own instructional goals?	✓			✓	
7. do you discuss individual professional development when conferencing with teachers?		✓			
8. are teachers in your school part of any planning that impacts teaching and learning?	✓			✓	
9. do you assist and coach teachers who are struggling?	✓			✓	
13. do your teachers grow professionally when they engage in dialogue with other teachers?		✓		✓	
15. do you mandate the use of specific instructional practices in the classroom?			✓		✓
16. do your teachers use peer coaching?	✓				
17. do standards drive instruction at your school?			✓		✓
18. do your teachers meet to discuss instructional practices in their classrooms?		✓		✓	
		✓			

<i>Question:</i>	<i>Instructional Supervision</i>	<i>Professional Development</i>	<i>Evaluation</i>	<i>Professionalism</i>	<i>Bureaucracy</i>
20. do your teachers meet to discuss research articles in order to improve instructional practices in their classrooms?					
22. do teachers in your school feel safe to try new approaches in their classrooms?	✓			✓	
23. do you expect to see a specific sequence of instructional activities when observing in the classroom?			✓		✓
26. are professional development activities related to your school goals?		✓			✓
27. do you utilize data (such as standardized test scores, portfolios, and teacher made tests) to plan your professional development activities?		✓			✓
28. are teachers in your school a part of the implementation of new strategies/techniques that affect teaching and learning in your school?	✓			✓	
29. do teachers at your school take responsibility for improving instruction?	✓				
32. are new teachers mentored each year?				✓	
33. do teachers in your school observe other teachers and provide feedback?	✓			✓	
35. do your teachers set their own professional development goals and activities?		✓		✓	
36. do your teachers' professional skills in the classroom improve when they read and use current professional articles and practices?	✓			✓	
37. are teachers in your school involved in curriculum design?	✓				
<i>TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU USE THE FOLLOWING TO JUDGE TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS?</i>					
45. Student performance on standardized tests			✓		✓
46. Teacher participation in professional development activities			✓		✓
48. Diagnostic or standardized tools that assess teaching methods			✓		✓
49. Adherence by the teacher to a specific lesson design			✓		✓
50. Number of grades in a teacher's grade book			✓		✓

	<i>Instructional Supervision</i>	<i>Professional Development</i>	<i>Evaluation</i>	<i>Professionalism</i>	<i>Bureaucracy</i>
<i>Question:</i>					
52. Students meeting predetermined proficiencies in core subject areas			✓		✓
Totals:	10	10	10	13	12

	<i>Instructional Supervision</i>	<i>Professional Development</i>	<i>Evaluation</i>	<i>Professionalism</i>	<i>Bureaucracy</i>
<i>Question:</i>					
<i>Open-Ended Questions</i>					
85. How many times do you and teachers evaluate together data from observations each year?	✓			✓	
86. How many pre-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher during a school year?	✓			✓	
88. How many formal observations in the classroom do you do for each teacher every year?	✓			✓	
90. Do you differentiate supervision for different teachers? Yes No	✓			✓	
91. If yes, how?					
93. Does a prescribed evaluation tool determine your supervision method? Yes No			✓		✓
94. Please describe the evaluation tool.					
97. How many post-observation conferences do you hold with each teacher every year?	✓			✓	
Totals:	5	0	1	5	1

APPENDIX F

Frequencies of professionalism questions answered “to some or great extent.”

Questions	Category	Administrators n - 56	Teachers n - 137	Elementary n - 23	Secondary n - 32	Master's n - 33	Above Master's n - 24
3	Professional development feedback	92.5%	90.3%	57.1%	90.0%	84.4%	100.0%
4	Mentoring	94.4%	92.5%	100.0%	90.3%	96.8%	95.6%
5	Teachers set instructional goals	86.8%	86.0%	89.4%	86.7%	90.3%	82.6%
8	Teachers part of any planning	98.2%	96.1%	100.0%	96.8%	100.0%	95.8%
9	Assistance and coaching	100.0%	86.2%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
13	Professional dialogue	98.2%	96.2%	100.0%	96.9%	100.0%	95.8%
18	Teachers discuss instructional practices	92.5%	91.0%	100.0%	86.7%	90.3%	87.0%
22	New approaches	100.0%	95.5%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
28	Implementation of new strategies/techniques	100.0%	97.7%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
32	New teachers mentored	91.0%	90.0%	95.7%	87.1%	90.6%	91.7%
33	Teachers observe and provide feedback	61.5%	60.8%	71.4%	76.2%	50.0%	74.0%
35	Teachers set professional development	87.3%	85.3%	82.6%	90.3%	87.5%	87.5%
36	Read and use current professional articles and practices	96.2%	90.5%	91.3%	100.0%	96.8%	100.0%

APPENDIX G

Frequencies of bureaucracy questions answered “to some or great extent.”

Questions	Category	Administrators n - 56	Teachers n - 137	Elementary n - 23	Secondary n - 32	Master's n - 33	Above Master's n - 24
1	Outside Influences	81.8%	98.5%	87.5%	79.2%	87.5%	79.2%
15	Specific instructional practices	85.1%	77.4%	82.6%	86.7%	84.4%	74.0%
17	Standards drive instruction	100.0%	97.8%	78.3%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
23	Specific sequence of instructional activities	87.0%	78.1%	85.5%	83.9%	93.9%	72.7%
26	Professional development related to school goals	100.0%	94.7%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
27	Utilize data to plan professional development	96.4%	94.7%	95.5%	96.9%	96.9%	91.7%
45	Standardized tests	69.8%	76.4%	68.2%	73.3%	74.2%	69.6%
46	Participation in professional development activities	86.5%	74.2%	81.0%	90.0%	77.1%	76.9%
48	Diagnostic or standardized tools	61.5%	66.4%	57.1%	95.2%	65.6%	57.1%
49	Specific lesson design	57.0%	52.7%	55.0%	60.0%	61.3%	36.7%
50	Number of grades	23.5%	18.2%	55.0%	24.1%	19.4%	28.6%
52	Predetermined proficiencies	73.1%	70.2%	23.8%	35.0%	19.4%	28.6%

APPENDIX H

Frequencies of instructional supervision questions answered “to some or great extent.”

Questions	Category	Administrators n - 56	Teachers n - 137	Elementary n - 23	Secondary n - 32	Master's n - 33	Above Master's n - 24
5	Teachers set instructional goals	86.8%	86.0%	86.4%	86.7%	90.3%	82.6%
8	Teachers part of any planning	98.2%	96.1%	100.0%	96.8%	100.0%	95.8%
9	Assistance and coaching	100.0%	86.2%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
16	Peer coaching	75.4%	73.2%	78.3%	72.4%	76.7%	73.9%
22	New approaches	100.0%	95.5%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
28	Implementation of new strategies/techniques	100.0%	97.7%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
29	Teachers take responsibility for improving instruction	100.0%	98.5%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
33	Teachers observe and provide feedback	61.5%	60.8%	71.4%	76.2%	50.0%	74.0%
36	Read and use current professional articles and practices	96.2%	90.5%	91.3%	100.0%	96.8%	100.0%
37	Curriculum design	89.3%	85.6%	78.3%	96.9%	87.9%	95.8%

APPENDIX I

Frequencies of professional development questions answered “to some or great extent.”

Questions	Category	Administrators n - 56	Teachers n - 137	Elementary n - 23	Secondary n - 32	Master's n - 33	Above Master's n - 24
2	Collaboration with university faculty	48.0%	54.7%	57.1%	50.0%	48.3%	41.9%
3	Professional development feedback	92.5%	90.3%	57.1%	90.0%	84.4%	100.0%
4	Mentoring	94.4%	92.5%	100.0%	90.3%	96.8%	95.6%
7	Individual professional development when conferencing	90.9%	88.6%	95.7%	87.1%	93.8%	83.3%
13	Professional dialogue	98.2%	96.2%	100.0%	96.9%	100.0%	95.8%
18	Teachers discuss instructional practices	92.5%	91.0%	100.0%	86.7%	90.3%	87.0%
20	Discuss research articles	66.7%	59.5%	73.9%	59.3%	62.1%	65.2%
26	Professional development related to school goals	100.0%	94.7%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
27	Utilize data to plan professional development	96.4%	94.7%	95.5%	96.9%	96.9%	91.7%
35	Teachers set professional development	87.3%	85.3%	82.6%	90.3%	87.5%	87.5%

APPENDIX J

Frequencies of evaluation questions answered “to some or great extent.”

Questions	Category	Administrators n - 56	Teachers n - 137	Elementary n - 23	Secondary n - 32	Master's n - 33	Above Master's n - 24
1	Outside Influences	81.8%	98.5%	87.5%	79.2%	87.5%	79.2%
15	Specific instructional practices	85.1%	77.4%	82.6%	86.7%	84.4%	74.0%
17	Standards drive instruction	100.0%	97.8%	78.3%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
23	Specific sequence of instructional activities	87.0%	78.1%	95.5%	83.9%	93.9%	72.7%
45	Standardized tests	69.8%	76.4%	68.2%	73.3%	74.2%	69.6%
46	Participation in professional development activities	86.5%	74.2%	81.0%	90.0%	77.1%	76.9%
48	Diagnostic or standardized tools	61.5%	66.4%	87.1%	95.2%	61.3%	36.7%
49	Specific lesson design	57.0%	52.7%	55.0%	60.0%	19.4%	28.6%
50	Number of grades	23.5%	18.2%	55.0%	24.1%	19.4%	28.6%
52	Predetermined proficiencies	73.1%	70.2%	23.8%	35.0%	87.5%	79.2%

APPENDIX K

Principal Data

This table shows the basic statistics for principals' responses.

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q01	56	3.12	0.916	0.122
q02	55	2.25	1.022	0.138
q03	56	3.2	0.98	0.131
q04	54	3.54	0.605	0.082
q05	55	3.13	0.904	0.122
q07	56	3.38	0.799	0.107
q08	55	3.71	0.497	0.067
q09	55	3.73	0.449	0.061
q13	56	3.8	0.444	0.059
q15	56	3.02	0.904	0.121
q16	56	2.77	0.991	0.132
q17	56	3.8	0.401	0.054
q18	54	3.43	0.792	0.108
q20	55	2.69	1.052	0.142
q22	55	3.67	0.474	0.064
q23	56	3.12	0.896	0.12
q26	55	3.85	0.356	0.048
q27	55	3.78	0.686	0.092
q28	55	3.76	0.429	0.058
q29	55	3.65	0.673	0.091
q32	55	3.76	0.607	0.082
q33	56	2.61	1.216	0.163
q35	56	3.16	0.826	0.11
q36	55	3.29	0.854	0.115
q37	56	3.43	0.735	0.098
q45	55	2.67	0.818	0.11
q46	56	2.88	0.992	0.133
q48	56	2.46	1.19	0.159
q49	54	2.39	0.979	0.133
q50	56	1.62	0.926	0.124
q52	55	2.76	1.018	0.137

Teacher Data

This table shows the basic statistics for teachers' responses.

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q01	136	3.49	0.852	0.073
q02	136	2.33	1.168	0.1
q03	137	3.09	1.209	0.103
q04	136	3.37	0.824	0.071
q05	133	3.17	0.947	0.082
q07	136	3.09	1.297	0.111
q08	135	3.44	1.034	0.089
q09	137	2.8	1.41	0.12
q13	135	3.54	0.826	0.071
q15	136	2.73	1.177	0.101
q16	135	2.69	1.194	0.103
q17	135	3.64	0.604	0.052
q18	136	3.37	0.787	0.067
q20	136	2.53	1.061	0.091
q22	135	3.69	0.796	0.069
q23	136	2.91	1.25	0.107
q26	135	3.49	0.845	0.073
q27	137	3.48	0.924	0.079
q28	137	3.52	0.858	0.073
q29	136	3.52	0.74	0.063
q32	135	3.46	0.96	0.083
q33	137	2.55	1.181	0.101
q35	135	3.04	1.006	0.087
q36	135	3.1	1.053	0.091
q37	136	3.23	0.935	0.08
q45	137	2.7	1.19	0.102
q46	137	2.61	1.093	0.093
q48	137	2.28	1.444	0.123
q49	137	2.03	1.35	0.115
q50	136	1.29	1.06	0.091
q52	137	2.35	1.386	0.118

APPENDIX L

Independent Samples T-Test Results – All Questions

This table shows the results of the t-tests that were run, comparing principal responses to teacher responses by question.

Item	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
q01	-2.659	190	.009	-.368	.138	-.640	-.095
q02	-.448	113.400	.655	-.076	.170	-.414	.261
q03	.598	191	.551	.109	.182	-.250	.468
q04	1.370	188	.172	.169	.124	-.074	.413
q05	-.255	186	.799	-.038	.150	-.334	.257
q07	1.860	161.528	.065	.287	.154	-.018	.591
q08	2.375	183.018	.019	.265	.111	.045	.485
q09	6.910	183.898	.000	.932	.135	.666	1.198
q13	2.838	176.818	.005	.263	.093	.080	.446
q15	1.841	132.234	.068	.290	.157	-.022	.601
q16	.471	122.895	.638	.079	.168	-.253	.411
q17	2.131	152.085	.035	.159	.075	.012	.307
q18	.460	188	.646	.058	.127	-.192	.308
q20	.955	189	.341	.161	.169	-.172	.495
q22	-.141	188	.888	-.016	.115	-.243	.211
q23	1.327	141.510	.187	.213	.161	-.104	.531
q26	4.196	187.769	.000	.366	.087	.194	.538
q27	2.468	133.373	.015	.300	.122	.060	.541
q28	2.628	181.254	.009	.245	.093	.061	.430
q29	1.149	189	.252	.132	.115	-.095	.360
q32	2.616	155.105	.010	.304	.116	.075	.534
q33	.277	191	.782	.052	.189	-.320	.425
q35	.764	189	.446	.116	.152	-.184	.416
q36	1.171	188	.243	.187	.160	-.128	.503
q37	1.433	190	.153	.201	.140	-.075	.477

q45	-.187	143.680	.852	-.028	.150	-.325	.269
q46	1.550	191	.123	.262	.169	-.071	.595
q48	.929	123.038	.355	.187	.201	-.212	.585
q49	2.041	133.045	.043	.360	.176	.011	.708
q50	2.082	190	.039	.338	.162	.018	.659
q52	2.280	134.686	.024	.413	.181	.055	.772

APPENDIX M

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

Item	F	Sig.
q01	0.433	0.511
q02	4.502	.035*
q03	1.942	0.165
q04	2.045	0.154
q05	0.450	0.503
q07	5.574	.019*
q08	10.186	.002*
q09	37.834	.000*
q13	13.669	.000*
q15	9.279	.003*
q16	3.974	.048*
q17	11.467	.001*
q18	0.003	0.959
q20	0.614	0.434
q22	0.458	0.499
q23	9.467	.002*
q26	26.509	.000*
q27	6.307	.013*
q28	10.618	.001*
q29	1.382	0.241
q32	12.372	.001*
q33	0.012	0.915
q35	0.527	0.469
q36	0.727	0.395
q37	1.246	0.266
q45	7.334	.007*
q46	3.473	0.064
q48	5.130	.025*
q49	9.867	.002*
q50	0.018	0.894
q52	15.773	.000*

*Significant at .05

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