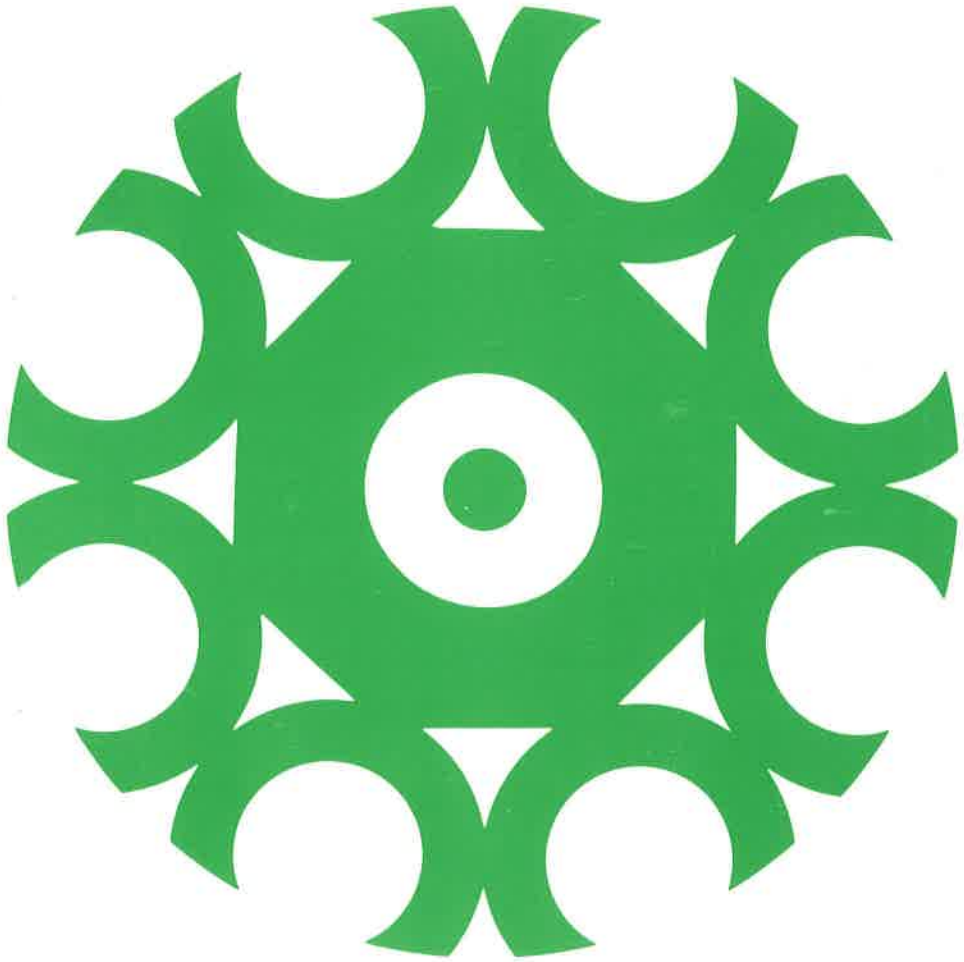
THRESHOLDS IN EDUCATION

May 1984, Vol. X No. 2



Supervision

THRESHOLDS IN EDUCATION

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SUPERVISION

Manuscripts. Submit manuscripts to Editor, *Thresholds in Education*, P.O. Box 771, DeKalb, Illinois 60115. Suggested length—900-5,000 words. Typed double spaced include auther's vita.

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Thresholds is entered as Third Class mail at the Post Office in DeKalb, Illinois under permit number 120.

Subcription Information. Subcription rates are as follows: one year $12.00, two years $23.00, three years $33.00. For foreign subscriptions other than Canadian add $3.50 more per year. Send to Editor, *Thresholds in Education*, P.O. Box 771, DeKalb, IL 60115.

Thresholds is a refereed journal published quarterly in February, May, August and November.

Overview

By the Editors

In a study on the definition of supervision, Krajewski found that existing definitions are ambiguous and confusing. He states that this might be a function of the personal values, educational philosophy and political orientation of those who are defining. However, he did find agreement on the ultimate goal of supervision, to bring about desirable teaching and learning situations for students.

Goldsberry, in his article, cautions us that there is no single 'real world' of the supervisor. He surveyed over 1,000 educators and found that three out of four teachers reported their building administrators as their supervisors. He also found that teachers and supervisors thought differently about the purposes of classroom observation and cautions us that this might have great import on the research of teachers; and supervisors' perceptions of supervision.

The following articles by Harris, Reyes and Alter, and Snyder all develop the concept of teacher performance while focusing on specific aspects. In Harris' article, a diagnostic model is presented which is developed from assumptions about teaching, the classification of teaching behaviors, and the identification of patterns of behavior. He proposes that mapping techniques be used in conceptualizing and visualizing teaching styles and perceptions for the overall purpose of more effective teaching. Reyes and Alter surveyed the history of research on teacher effectiveness and identified three major categories related to effectiveness: (1) instructional time, (2) classroom management, and (3) method of instruction. They concluded that if the goal of instructional supervision is the improvement of instruction, these three categories must be addressed in the supervisory process. Snyder maintains that the focal point for supervision is the development of effective teaching competencies. She identifies the characteristics of successful classrooms and from these proposes competencies for effective teaching. She concludes that the coaching of generic behaviors derived from the stated competencies should be a part of the supervisory function.

Gordon and Glickman contend that developmental supervision fulfills the dual function of improving the curriculum and stimulating the teacher to greater professional expertise. They caution that this approach is based upon the assumption that supervisors are to assist teachers to become more autonomous, reflective, and self-directive. The three traditional tools of supervisors: (1) direct assistance, (2) in-service education, and (3) curriculum development are addressed through both tactical and strategic planning. In their conclusion, they state that although the creation of a perfect tactical and strategic match between supervision and the supervised may not be realized, it is something towards which we should strive.

The next three articles deal with the broad topic of teacher evaluation. Grady and Tom report on an in-service training project for principals. They stated that an advantage of this approach was that it enabled mediation between theory and the daily routines of the principals. However, they ask the question whether principals are the ones to supervise. Tracey and MacNaughton answer this question by clearly stating that the administrator is responsible for carrying out the existing evaluation system; the administrator is viewed as the key to the success or failure of the system. Therefore, they conclude that it is imperative that administrators be trained to evaluate. In the Novick and Hyman article, the observation report is stated to be a critical document in any teacher evaluation system and, therefore, it's necessary for principals to be skilled in writing these reports. They report on the training project for principals they designed to develop skills in recording specific teacher behaviors and using objective language in their observation reports.

Pac-Urar and Vacca report on a program of peer visitation and consultation which failed, but was starting over with the first order of business ascertaining whether collegiality, a state of mind developed in a nurtured climate, was present. Their survey results indicated that some form of collegial, peer-delivered supervision might now be appropriate.

In the Sullivan article a strong case for the supervisor as communicator is developed. She states that communication runs through the roles and functions of a supervisor and that the communication activities of a supervisor involve processing information, handling resources, status-maintaining contacts, and resolving conflicts. In this article we are cautioned that there are philosophical and organizational questions raised when the supervisor is perceived as communicator.

The Farris article reminds us that not all persons involved in an instructional program are regularly employed teachers. More and more volunteers are being utilized in the schools; and it is important to understand their relationship to the program, the teachers and to the supervisors who are responsible for the instructional program.

The art work included in this issue was done by students at Boylan Central Catholic High School, 4000 St. Francis Drive, Rockford, Illinois 61103.

The art teacher is Lynn Haugen.

Caroline C. Allrutz and Charles J. Olson from the Department of Art, Northern Illinois University brought the art work to the attention of the editors. The editors wanted to share the work with their readers.

Supervision: Toward a Humanistic Definition

By Robert J. Krajewski

Introduction

When the term 'supervision' is used in education, what does it imply? Does it refer to a person or a process? And what are the types of activities in which supervisors engage? The department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (1931) attempted to address these questions by defining supervision as

> ...all activities by which educational officers may express leadership in the improvement of learning and teaching. Such activities as observation of classroom instruction, conduct of teachers' meetings and of group and individual conferences are clearly within the meaning of this term. The development and execution of plans looking toward increased effectiveness in reading, arithmetic, and some other area of the school program, and the organization or reorganization of curriculum and method are still further examples of what is meant by supervisory activities.

This statement, however, is somewhat ambiguous, and leaves many issues yet unanswered.

Regretably, over a half century later, supervision definitions are still plagued with ambiguity and confusion.

Regretably, over a half century later, supervision definitions are still plagued with ambiguity and confusion. Confusion occurs because of both the wide varity of responsibilities assigned, assumed, and performed by supervision personnel, and by the wide range of persons who, from time to time, perform supervisory functions. Further confusion occurs when the issue of authority is discussed. The authority dilemma is neither easily understood nor solved. Teachers may at times supervise their peers, supervisors work directly with teachers in the school, and principals are responsible for instructional leadership in the school, part of which involves supervising teachers.

Without definition and role clarity, supervision perceptions are directly influenced by the many personal values, educational philosophies, and political orientations operating in the school milieu. Those varied perceptions cause educators to accept or reject certain activites and responsibilities as part of the supervisor's role. Burton and Brueckner (1955) compared traditional and modern supervision practices:

Traditional	Modern
Inspection	Study and analysis
Teacher-focused	Environment, material, method, pupil, teacher-focused
Visitation and conference	Varied functions
Random, haphazard plan	Formalized plan
Imposed and authoritarian	Democratic and cooperative
One person usually	Team approach

In their analysis, traditional supervision was considered poorly planned, inspection oriented and authoritarian. In contrast, modern supervision features better organization of its many functions, employs a better research base and used more cooperative implementation of the varied foci. But supervision roles and practices still remain open to interpretation. Some perceive the supervisor's role as evaluating curricula and designing new courses of study, or effecting the quality of the school environment. Others envision the role as evaluating instruction and working with teachers to seek new and better ways of effecting instructional improvement, thereby releasing teachers' potential to discover avenues for self-improvement.

Evolution of Supervision

In the process of researching contemporary authors' supervision definitions, I examined the evolution of ideas pertinent to supervision. In my analysis, I found supervision to be built upon an interdisciplinary foundation and strongly influenced by the changes in the role of American education.

The evolution of supervision closely parallels historical change in American education. Early supervision was carried out by religious and lay 'volunteers' with limited inspection responsibilities. As education moved from a male oriented privilege with religious overtones, to a right of all citizens and a need of self-government, supervision's role changed from inspecting and overseeing to efficiency training and then to assisting and improving (Table 1). And as the scope and time constraints of emerging supervisory responsibilities became to demanding for 'volunteer' personnel, a superintendent was employed for this important role. When school systems became larger and the superintendent's role became more involved, supervisory responsibilities were delegated to assistant superintendents, other central office personnel and principals. Principals are both recognized as and expected to be instructional leaders fulfilling supervisory responsibilities.

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Table 1
Changes in the Role of American Education
1500-1980

EDUCATION AS A RIGHT

1800-present

EDUCATION AS A NEED

1600-1800

EDUCATION AS A PRIVILEGE

1500-1600

Evolution of Supervision Definition

Any literature examination will reveal that supervision means many things to many people. Education continues to be a dynamic human endeavor in which knowledge, learning strategies, and societal expectations of schools are constantly evolving. Throughout this evolution, however, remains one constant: schools are accountable for children's learning. And there is almost unanimous agreement that supervisors are responsible for creating an instructional milieu that will result in learning.

Though they disagree on methods supervisors should use, supervision authorities believe that instructional improvement is supervision's main goal.

Though they disagree on methods supervisors should use, supervision authorities believe that instructional improvement is supervision's main goal. Still, formulating a clear definition of supervision remains a difficult and demanding task. In their attempts to define 'supervision', educators develop assumptions and principles as guides. Harris (1975) for example, included 13 propositions, 10 tasks, 6 processes, and 32 competencies in his text; Eye and Netzer (1971) presented 19 assumptions; Brueckner (1955) incorporated principles for governing both the purposes and operation of supervision. A specific example might help. Lovel and Wiles (1983) presented a conceptual framework composed of

- Assumptions about: professional workers (6), educational organizations (8), instructional supervisory behavior (9)--with 4 process assumptions and 7 functions.
- Concepts: mental health, counseling (6), learning (5), group development (13), leadership (12), human relations (4), communication (15), community power structure (3).
- Inferred hypotheses: consisting of 5 major and 13 minor headings.

which they consider the basis for their theory and from which they build the ideas included in their text.

Nutt (1920) believed supervison's greatest weakness to be a lack of universally recognized principles. Supervision is prone to be largely a matter of devices and techniques yet principles are the very foundation of supervision procedures. Refining supervision activities and the techniques used in these activities requires developing, learning and using the principles.

Supervision definitions vary in content and specificity and give insight into the trends to which education and supervision are exposed. Many writers cite purposes and practices; some list functions; others describe roles; and still others cite what supervision is not. And though instructional improvement remains its core, supervision lacks a comprehensive and definitive description.

According to The Dictionary of Education (1945) supervision incorporates

> All efforts of designated school officials directed toward providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the imrpovement of instruction; involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of education objectives, materials of instruction, and methods of teaching, and the evaluation of instruction.

Burton and Brueckner (1955) stated that supervision is an expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and improving co-operatively all factors which affect child growth and development. They supported their position by noting that everything in a school system is designed to stimulate learning and growth. Supervision affords expert and specialized leadership to such growth factors as self-direction, self-guidance and self-supervision in promoting creative and dynamic teachers. Carlson (1965) and Whittier (1969) also emphasized the task of leading the teacher to improve teaching skills. Unruh and Turner (1970) stated that educational leadership is the most significant of all supervisory components and emphasized its significance in providing opportunities for teacher growth. Rather than defining supervision they choose to describe it in terms of:

a. a social, psychological, and education process which forms a foundation for good human relations,
b. a function designed to help teachers do a better job, improve curriculum, and help teachers with role definition, and
c. educational leadership, the tasks and skills of which provide for teacher development and positive growth.

Other authorities as Eye, Netzer and Krey (1971), Wilhelms (1973), Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975) also consider supervision an administrative function enhanced by leadership.

Sergiovanni (1982) in the ASCD Yearbook introduction, referred to supervision as

> a field broadly conceived, a general school activity that encompasses a number of school roles and that includes virtually all of the activities of administrators and supervisors involved in the improvement of instruction.

Sergiovannie's earlier (1966, 1971, 1979) descriptions of supervision all point to instructional improvement through leadership and human resources. He also expresses concern that supervision is too often considered a process rather than a concept or theory.

Lovell and Wiles (1983) perceived supervision as helping to improve learning opportunities for students, and supervisors as leaders who establish communication, stimulate staff members, and support the instructional improvement process. Throughout their discussion supervision is referred to as an instructional behavior system in a conceptual framework.

Together, the above definitions suggest that supervision in the American public schools evolved from four major conceptual foundations:

human concern
leadership
instructional improvement
administration.

The categorization (with respect to these conceptual foundations) of definitions and explanations from leading supervision authorities of the past 40 years is presented in Table 2 (at the end of the article). An analysis of these definitions, as reflected in Table 2, reveals that 15 of 17 authors perceive instructional improvement to be the cornerstone of supervision. This is not surprising, as most teachers and supervisors generally regard improvement as supervision's main goal. A majority of authors also express the necessity of leadership in supervision (12 of 17) and the relationship between supervision and administration (10 of 17).

It is surprising that only 8 of the 17 authors stressed the human concern 'foundation' in supervision. This lack of emphasis on human concern can be directly related to the advocation of an objective, scientific, and rational approach to supervision.

Viewing supervision only from an objective, scientific standpoint has serious negative implications not only for supervision but for all of schooling.

Rationale for Humanistic Concern

Viewing supervision only from an objective, scientific standpoint has serious negative implications not only for supervision but for all of schooling. I suggest that philosophically most of the authors cited herein would agree. In 'Beyond the Skills: The Person Within the Teacher,' Fred Wilhelms (1973) established a marvelous basis for including human concern as a foundation for supervision. His ratinoale begins with this premise:

> More and more, we perceive that the only teacher who can really do the job is one who somehow feels good about himself, the people he works with, and the world he works in. He has to see himself as a basically adequate person and a real professional, no matter how hard he still works to improve. As a person he has to feel himself wanted; and as a professional he has to feel himself respected... Above all, he has to be comfortable enough, inside himself, to be authentically what he is and to send out communications congruent with his real self.

Many of Wilhelm's supervisor and supervisor educator colleagues, including Anderson, Goldhammer, Krajewski, Lovell, Sergiovanni, Turner, Unruh And Wiles agree with his assessment that the first obligation of a school is to be 'healthful' for all who have to be there--teachers as well as learners, and that a teacher is more likely to grow in his work if he feels cared for and professionally respected.

Table 2
Conceptual Foundations of Supervision
1945-Present

		Human Concern	Leadership	Instructional Improvement	Administration
Dictionary of Education	1945		X	X	
Burton & Brueckner	1955	X		X	
Franseth	1961	X	X	X	
Carlson	1965			X	X
Whittier	1969		X		X
Unruh & Turner	1970	X	X	X	
Eye, Netzer & Krey	1971			X	X
Mosher & Purpel	1972		X	X	
Wilhelms	1973	X	X	X	X
Alfonso, Firth & Neville	1975		X	X	X
Harris	1975			X	
Marks, Stoops, King-Stoops	1978			X	X
Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski	1980	X	X	X	X
Wiles & Bondi	1980		X		X
Sergiovanni	1982	X	X	X	X
Lovell & Wiles	1983	X	X	X	
Krajewski & McGee	1985	X	X	X	X

In this explanation by Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1980):

> Often linked with educational administration and invariably connected with the concept of educational leadership, supervision is today seen as that dimension of the teaching profession which is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness. Nearly all definitions state or imply that supervision is the task assigned to certain school employees, whether in a line or staff relationship to classroom teachers (or counselors), to stimulate staff growth and development, to influence teacher behaviors in the classroom (or counseling center), and to foster the selection, development, use, and evaluation of good instructional approaches and materials. Some definitions place particular stress upon the role of communication skills in supervision, and in recent years there has emerged a strong emphasis upon helping teachers with problem-solving, with interpersonal relationships within the school, and with the creation of a more humane atmosphere to surround children and the adults who teach them. Nearly all discussions of supervision, in textbooks and periodicals over a half century, have wrestled with the difficult problem of separating helping behaviors from evaluating behaviors on the part of supervisors, since the helping functions have most often been assigned to the same persons (principals, department heads, directors) who are at times responsible for employment, promotions, and/or salary decisions.

Together with their view that nearly everything leaders do in the course of working with teachers is in some way a part of supervision the authors reinforce the idea that the human concern is a necessary foundation for supervision. Indeed I will go one step further and suggest that the human concern foundation must preclude all else.

Therefore I define supervision as follows. Supervision is concerned with the well being of the human element (teacher and student), and the process of developing and maintaining the best learning environment.

Toward a Definition

I believe the ultimate goal of supervision is to bring about desirable teaching and learning situations for students. To achieve that goal supervision activities must reach all aspects of school life. Therefore I define supervision as follows. Supervision is concerned with the well being of the human element (teacher and student), and the process of developing and maintaining the best learning environment. It is a total effort to stimulate, coordinate, and guide the continued growth of education through

better understanding of teaching ideals and purposes;

better understanding and communication between teacher and student;

better understanding, communication and cooperation between teacher, principal, and supervisor;

more effective performance of instruction;

better techniques to appraise, study, and critique both individual and group activities and practices;

better utilization of research.

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The Real World of Supervision

By Lee Goldsberry

What is educational supervision really? It is a 'cold war' between supervisors and teachers as Blumberg (1980) asserts? Is it a collaborative, rational improvement process as proponents of clinical supervision advocate? Or, is supervision really a misnomer for a functionless ritual performed for political rather than educational motives? Some more concrete information is needed before we can decide which image is most apt. What is supervision in the 'real world?' Who supervises teachers? How often is teaching observed? How long? For what purpose? How are instructional changes identified? How helpful do teachers find observations and related communication for refining their classroom practices?

To answer these questions the Survey of Supervisory Practices (SSP) was designed and administered to over a thousand teachers and their supervisors in central Pennsylvania. Because providing feedback on applied skills is a crucial component in both clinical supervision (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1980) and 'coaching' (Joyce & Showers, 1983), the SSP focuses upon direct supervision, classroom observation and related communication.

Responses on the SSP indicate that most teachers in central Pennsylvania are supervised by the building principal or assistant principal (see Figure 1). These building administrators were identified by 73% of the responding teachers as their supervisor. Central office personnel supervised 18% of the respondents, mostly in elementary schools.

Frequency and Duration of Classroom Observation

If observing teaching and providing related feedback is most often a function of a harried building administrator (and several of the elementary principals in our study were responsible for more than one building), how often can such observations occur? How long might they last? Regarding these qualitative aspects of direct supervision, the teachers and their supervisors agree (see Figures 2 and 3). Although both the number of classroom observations and their duration vary considerably, both groups of respondents report a similar range. While 30% of teachers reported they were observed just once, if at all, during the target school year (1981-1982), 30% of their supervisors reported that they observed each teacher an average of once a year. At the other end of the continuum, 29% of responding teachers and 36% of their supervisors report five or more observations each year. Just as some teachers are observed much more often than others, the duration of this classroom observation varies considerably. Thirty-eight percent of teachers in the study and 33% of their supervisors reported an average observation lasted twenty minutes or less, while 23% of teachers and 44% of their supervisors reported observations lasting forty one minutes or more. Given this wide range in the number of classroom observations and their duration, there appears to be no single 'real world' in educational supervision--rather supervision seems to have several 'real worlds', varying considerably from supervisor to supervisor. With such variety in the scheduling of classroom observations, how might perceptions of the purpose for and helpfulness of supervision vary?

Purpose for and Helpfulness of Observations

When teachers were asked what the primary purpose for classroom observation seemed to be, three-fourths of them responded either to determine a formal rating of their teaching or to comply with legal requirements that they be observed. Only 17% of teachers in the study reported the primary purpose for classroom observation was to assist in the improvement of

Figure 1: Titles of Supervisors by Level

TITLE OF SUPERVISOR	Elementary (N = 562) Number	(%)	Secondary (N = 516) Number	(%)	Total (N=1078) Number	(%)
Principal	313	(56%)	351	(68%)	664	(62%)
Assistant Principal	1	(<1%)	113	(22%)	114	(11%)
Central Office Supervisor	184	(33%)	5	(1%)	189	(18%)
Other or No Response	64	(11%)	47	(9%)	111	(10%)
TOTALS	562	(100%)	516	(100%)	1078	(101%)*

* Percentages do not sum to 100 due to the imprecision of rounding.

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Figure 2: Number* of Supervisory Observations of Classroom Teaching Reported by Teachers and Supervisors for School Year 1981-1982

	Teachers (N= 1078)		Supervisors (N=53)	
Numbers of Observations	frequency	% of total	frequency	% of total
0	24	(2%)	0	(--)
1	302	(28%)	16	(30%)
2	218	(20%)	9	(17%)
3-4	187	(17%)	9	(17%)
5-8	206	(19%)	13	(25%)
9 or more	104	(10%)	6	(11%)
No response	37	(3%)	0	(--)
TOTALS	**1078**	**(99%)****	**53**	**(100%)**

*The number of observations reported by each teacher was actual number of observations; those reported by each supervisor was average number for each tenured teacher.
**Percentages do not sum to 100 due to the imprecision of rounding.

Figure 3: Average Duration of Each Observation as Reported by Teachers and Their Supervisors

	Teachers (N= 1078)		Supervisors (N=53)	
Duration	frequency	% of total	frequency	% of total
1-10 minutes	131	(12%)	4	(8%)
11-20 minutes	284	(26%)	13	(25%)
21-30 minutes	232	(22%)	6	(11%)
31-40 minutes	134	(12%)	6	(11%)
41-50 minutes	206	(19%)	21	(40%)
51-60 minutes	33	(3%)	2	(4%)
61 minutes or more	5	(1%)	0	(--)
Zero or no response	53	(5%)	1	(2%)
TOTALS	**1078**	**(99%)***	**53**	**(101%)***

*Percentages do not sum to 100 due to the imprecision of rounding.

teaching (see Figure 4). Conversely, most of their supervisors indicated instructional improvement as the primary purpose for direct supervision. Apparently, either the responses from one group are misleading, or there is a breakdown in communicating the primary aim for observing in classrooms.

If the purpose is indeed to help improve performance, potential refinements of existing practice would have to be identified in some fashion. Respondents were asked who identified changes which might improve teaching (see Figure 5).

When some changes were identified, both teachers and their supervisors indicated it was usually a joint effort. More importantly, the largest single group of teachers (41%) indicated that no changes were identified. In contrast, every supervisor reported changes were identified in some fashion. How can teaching be improved through direct supervision if teachers perceive potential improvements are not identified by anyone?

The lack of a clear understanding as to how they might change their teaching for the better might contribute to the finding that 28% of teachers in the study said that observations and related conferences were not helpful for improving their teaching (see Figure 6). The vast majority (95%) of supervisors saw their direct supervision as either somewhat helpful or very helpful for improving teaching practice.

Conclusion

Further exploration of the discrepancies between perceptions reported by over a thousand teachers in central Pennsylvania and those of their supervisors is needed and is underway. One possible explanation, that supervisors' responses on the survey instrument were more glossy than candid, tentatively seems responsible for some of the discrepant reported perceptions. If more substantial evidence can be collected to support this explanation, shadows will be cast upon the large body of research into educational supervision which relies upon the validity of information collected solely through surveys of supervisors' perceptions.

Although the findings from this study of supervisory practice in central Pennsylvania certainly cannot be conscientiously generalized to other locations, it seems reasonable to conclude that the variation of practice in observing teachers' classrooms is not a localized phenomenon. To talk of a 'real world' in the sense of common practice seems ludicrous when discussing educational supervision. Even within the narrow confines of central Pennsylvania the quality and quantity of direct supervision teachers receive varies greatly.

Figure 4: Teachers' and Supervisors' Perceptions of The Purpose for Observation

Teachers' Item[1]	Supervisors' Item[1]
The primary purpose for observation conducted by my supervisor during the school year seemed to be:	The primary purpose for observations I conducted during the 1981-82 school year was:
1. to determine a formal rating of my teaching.	1. to determine a formal rating of each teacher.
2. to assist me to improve my teaching.	2. to assist teachers to improve their teaching.
3. to comply with legal requirements that I be observed.	3. to comply with legal requirements that teachers be observed.
4. other -- please specify.	4. other -- please specify.

Responses

Option	Teachers (N= 1078) frequency	(%)	Supervisors (N= 53) frequency	(%)
1. formal rating	392	(36%)	13	(25%)
2. improve teaching	180	(17%)	27	(51%)
3. comply with law	421	(39%)	9	(17%)
4. other	42	(4%)	4	(8%)
No response	43	(4%)	0	(--)
TOTALS	**1078**	**(100%)**	**53**	**(101%)***

*Percentages do not sum to 100 due to the imprecision of rounding.

[1]From Survey of Supervisory Practices, © 1984 by Lee Goldsberry, Paulette L. Harvey and Nancy E. Hoffman.

Figure 5: Teachers' and Supervisors' Perceptions of Source of Recommended Changes

Teachers' Item[1]	Supervisors' Item[1]
As a part of the observation and related correspondence or conferences:	As a part of the observation and related correspondence or conferences:
1. My supervisor independently recommended changes which might improve my teaching.	1. I independently recommended changes which might improve teaching.
2. My supervisor and I jointly identified changes which might improve my teaching.	2. The teacher and I jointly identified changes which might improve teaching.
3. I identified changes which might improve my teaching and discussed these changes with my supervisor.	3. The teacher identified changes which might improve teaching and discussed these changes with me.
4. I identified changes which might improve my teaching but did not discuss these changes with my supervisor.	4. I identified changes which might improve teaching and did not communicate changes to the teacher.
5. No changes were identified.	5. No changes were identified.

Responses

Option	Teachers (N= 1078) frequency	(%)	Supervisors (N= 53) frequency	(%)
1. Supervisor recommendation.	185	(17%)	15	(28%)
2. Joint identification.	316	(29%)	38	(72%)
3. Teacher identified.	55	(5%)	0	(--)
4. "I" identified; not discussed.	36	(3%)	0	(--)
5. No identified changes.	447	(41%)	0	(--)
No response	39	(4%)	0	(--)
TOTALS	**1078**	**(99%)***	**53**	**(100%)**

*Percentages do not sum to 100 due to the imprecision of rounding.

[1]From Survey of Supervisory Practices, © 1982 by Lee Goldsberry, Paulette L. Harvey and Nancy E. Hoffman.

Figure 6: Helpfulness of Observations And Related Conferences

Teachers' Item[1]	Supervisors' Item[1]
Overall, how helpful have these supervisory observations and related conferences been for improving your day-to-day teaching?	How helpful do you feel your supervisory observations and related conferences have been for improving teachers' day-to-day teaching?

Responses

Option	Teachers (N = 1078) Frequency	(%)	Supervisors (N = 53) Frequency	(%)
Very helpful	181	(17%)	12	(23%)
Somewhat helpful	526	(49%)	38	(72%)
Not helpful	302	(28%)	2	(4%)
No response	69	(6%)	1	(2%)
TOTALS	**1078**	**(100%)**	**53**	**(101%)***

*Percentages do not sum to 100 due to imprecision of rounding

[1]From Survey of Supervisory Practices, © 1984 by Lee Goldsberry, Paulette L. Harvey, and Nancy E. Hoffman.

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A Diagnostic Model of Teaching Performance

By Ben M. Harris

Introduction

The studies of teacher characteristics (Ryans, 1960), teacher effectiveness (Gage, 1972; Good, 1975; Medley, 1977; Rosenshine & Furst, 1970; and others) plus the more recent studies of 'school effectiveness' (Edmonds, 1975) have enormously expanded our knowledge about teaching, teachers, and learning. This new knowledge base provides administrators, supervisors, teachers, and teacher trainers with a new sense of direction in thinking about improving education in school settings. A simultaneous development of the past few decades is the refinement of observational techniques for describing classroom practices with considerable objectivity and validity (Harris, 1975; Campbell, 1974; Lutz & Ramsey, 1974).

Practitioners and scholars may find themselves more overwhelmed than enlightened by the 'new knowledge' on teaching. The 'new' insights are really not so new. In fact, a glance at any of the many listings of factors, dimensions, or criteria of teacher effectiveness bring no surprises (Berliner & Tikunoff, 1977; Medley, 1977). Differences in findings tend to reflect omissions rather than conflicting evidence.

What overwhelms the practitioner is the enormous array of specific teaching practices that clearly are associated with student learning. And the fact that researchers continue to produce new fragments of confirming evidence exacerbated the problem as they give little, if any, attention to synthesizing their findings. This paper is an effort to suggest a conceptual model for better handling of these many fragments of information about teaching. Our special concern is for making better use of teacher effectiveness fragments of information for diagnostic analysis purposes.

A Diagnostic Model of Teaching

Because of its enormous complexity, teaching behavior can be more clearly viewed using one or more simplified models which make the complexity manageable for analytical purposes. Such simplified models are widely used in nearly all fields of professional endeavor. The physical models of the structures of atoms and molecules that are utilized by chemists are crude and simple but useful. The architect's model of a proposed new building is neat and simple, helping to convey some limited understanding about the real structure as it might emerge. Of course, all maps are models of terrain in that they are extremely simplified but useful tools for geographers, pilots, and truckers, too.

A model of teaching to serve diagnostic analysis purposes is illustrated and discussed below. It is only one way of viewing teaching, of course. Its merits are in its usefulness in thinking about teaching in comprehensive yet diagnostic ways and its value in explaining conflicting perceptions of observers.

Given the current understanding we have based on research, theory and professional wisdom, the following assumptions about teaching can be proffered.

1. Teaching involves an enormous array of behaviors (thinking, acting, and feeling).
2. Teaching occurs in a variety of places over extended periods of time.
3. Teaching is not all behavior of the teacher, but only that which is related to instructional goals and hence, student learning.
4. The most crucial manifestations of teaching are those of the classroom when students are involved.
5. teaching behaviors are known well enough to be crudely classified as effective, not effective, and uncertain.

With these assumptions in mind, we can define and classify teaching behaviors in a variety of useful ways. Some of these include:

All known teaching behaviors...
- a. in common use and known to be effective
- b. not in common use but known to be effective
- c. effectiveness uncertain--still to be fully established
- d. known not to be effective

All other behavior (non-teaching).

Unknown teaching behaviors might also be added to this list of categories.

A Map of Known Teaching Behaviors

Exhibit 1 presents a view of these various kinds of behavior as a map. The total irregularly outlined area represents all known teaching behaviors, with non-teaching behaviors falling outside this area. Within the irregularly defined area is a square representing both known and uncertain areas of effective teaching behavior. Area (a) embraces behaviors in common use and known to be effective in promoting student learning. Area (b) embraces known effective behaviors not in common use. Area (c) embraces behaviors of uncertain effectiveness which may or may not be in common use. Area (d) lies outside the square area and embraces known teaching practices that are not effective. These may range from harmful to neutral in their effects on student learning (Berliner & Tikunoff, 1977).

This map is an overly simplified representation of the state of the science and art of teaching (Gage, 1978). It defines areas of practice, but does not specify the behaviors themselves. It addresses the 'field' of teaching practice, not the individual teacher. No special attention is directed by this model (map) to the distinctions between generic and specialized behaviors.

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Mapping Specific Teaching Behaviors

Exhibit 1 defines and classifies four arrays of behaviors which can presumably be explicated as specific practices. Without attempting such an explication, the map can be made more useful by designating a hypothetical array of such behaviors as shown in Exhibit 2. Small circles in various forms represent designated behaviors of each of the four types defined in the legend.

In studying Exhibit 2, it should be recognized that the designated behaviors are illustrative of a much larger array. Area (a) probably could embrace at least forty behaviors of the broadly specified kinds in common use. If explicated at more detailed levels, two hundred behaviors might be included in Area (a). A substantially larger number could be embraced in Areas (b) and (c) if we can judge by the enumerations in Dodl's 'catalog of teaching competencies' (1972) or those by Harris and Burks (1982). To my knowledge, there is no systematic effort to identify all of the behaviors included in Area (d)--not effective, although Berliner and Tikunoff have clearly identified a substantial number (1977).

A Map of Six Performance Areas

Exhibit 3 uses our map of teaching practices to focus on categories of behaviors. It would be less than helpful if our model (map) of teaching practices gave the impression that hundreds, even thousands, of known behaviors are exhibited by teachers as isolated events. Obviously, there are patterns of behavior exhibited in the work of all except the most disorganized. In this exhibit, the terrain of known and promising behaviors is divided into six performance areas based on the DeTEK system of specifying teaching behaviors (Harris & Hill, 1982). Obviously, any set of categories could be superimposed on our map, so long as they are behavioral and related to teaching.

Exhibit 1

A Map of Teaching

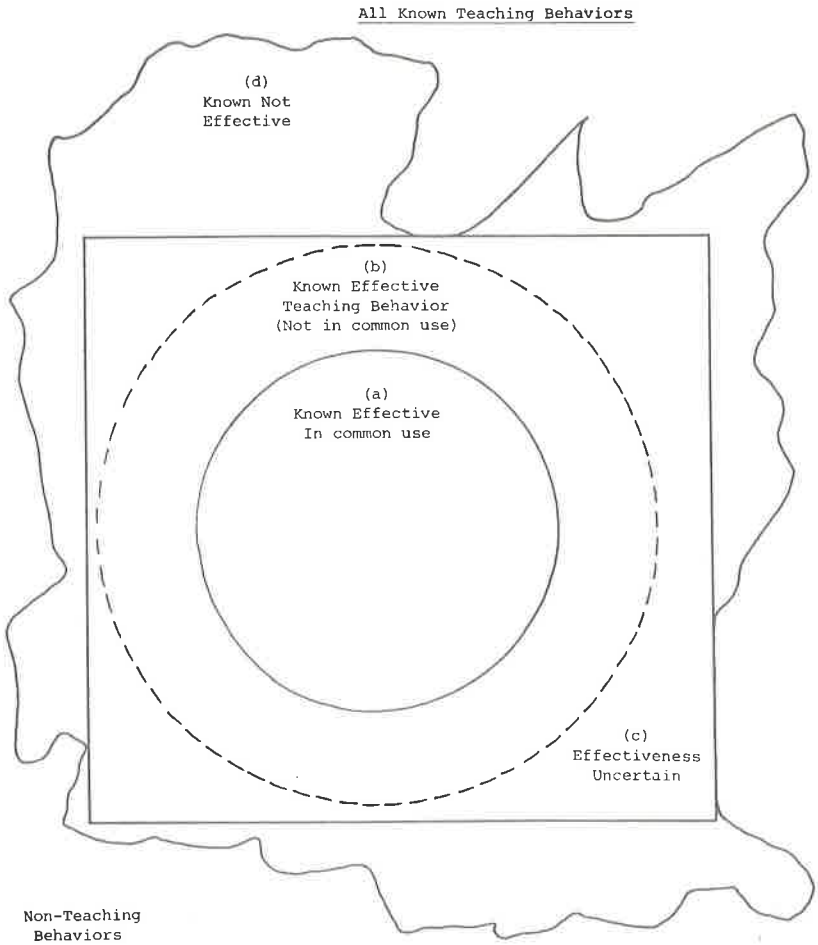
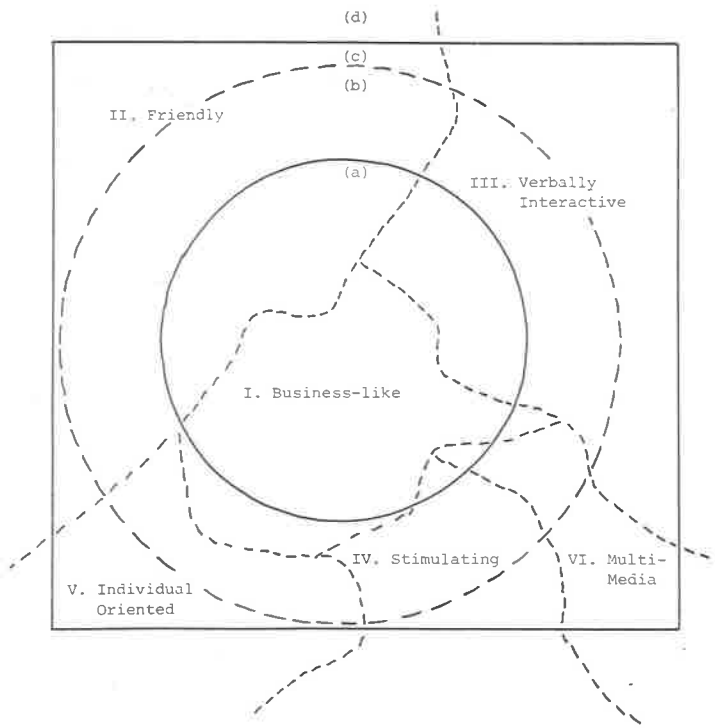


Exhibit 3

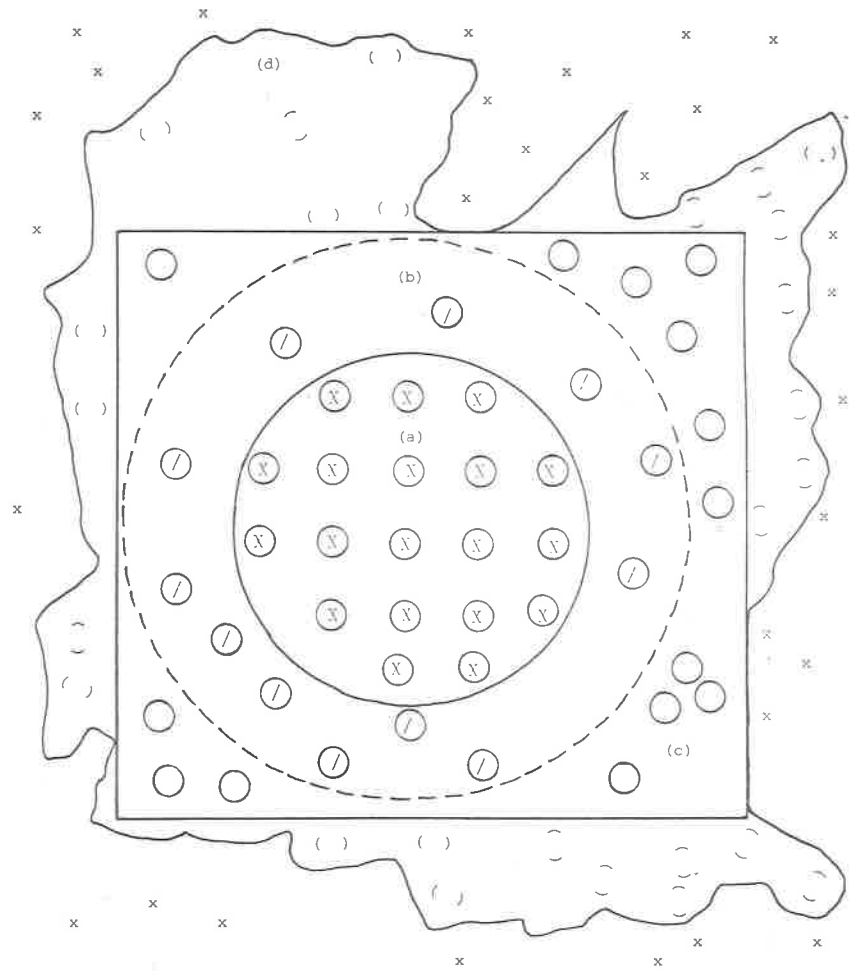
A Map of Teaching:
Six Performance Areas*



* This representation of a map of teaching was first presented in a televised lecture by Ben M. Harris, entitled, "Improving Teaching Thru Diagnostic Assessment", Region IV Education Service Center, Instructional Television Network, Project InterAct, Houston, Texas, November 1, 1983.

Exhibit 2

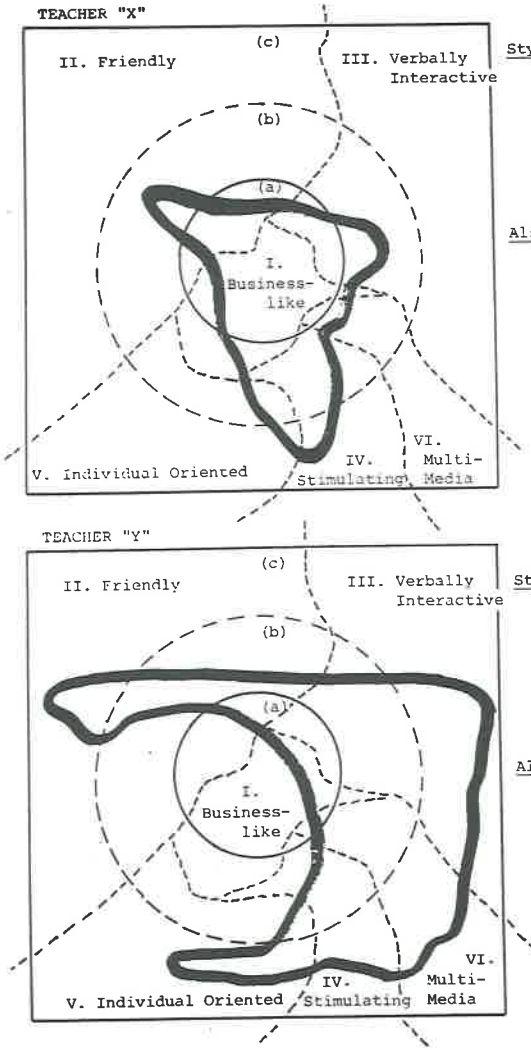
A Map of Teaching with Behaviors Designated



Legend: x = Non-teaching behaviors
⌒ = Not effective
⌣
/ = Known, effective, not in common use
(X) = Known, effective, common use
◯ = Effectiveness uncertain

Exhibit 4

Illustrations of Plotted Teaching "Styles" for Two Teachers



Style:

- -Highly business-like
- -Quite stimulating
- -Somewhat friendly and verbally interactive
- -Not individual oriented nor multi-media integrative

Also:

- -Small repertoire
- -Of nearly all known effective behavior

Style:

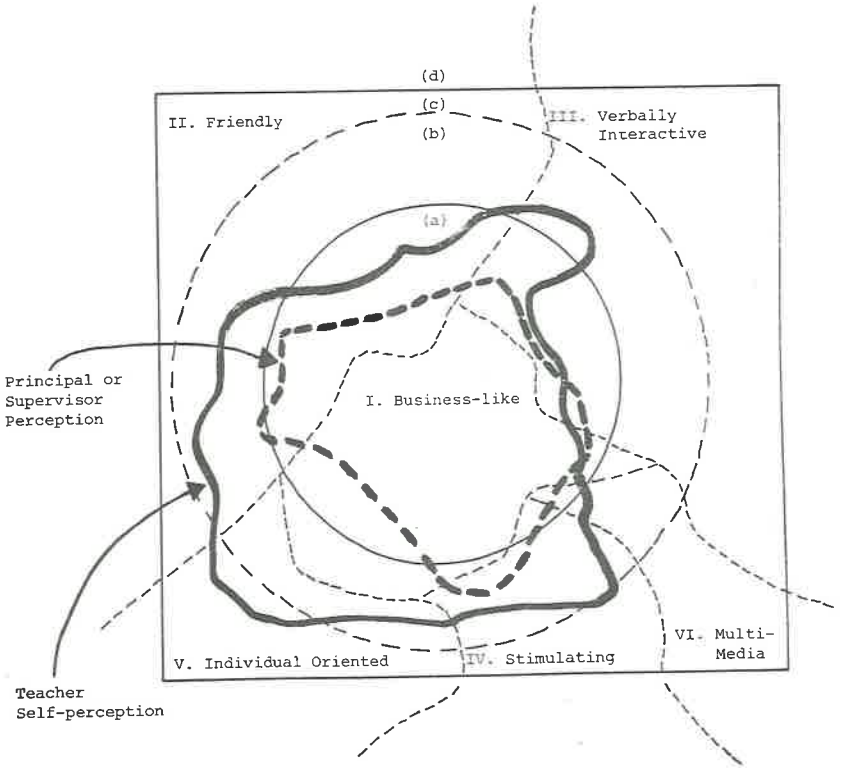
- -Highly verbal, stimulating and multi-media
- -Quite friendly
- -Somewhat individual oriented
- -Not very business-like

Also:

- -Larger repertoire
- -Uses less common behaviors
- -Uses uncertain behaviors

Exhibit 5

A Map of Teaching Behavior: Two Contrasting Perceptions



Plotting Individual Teaching Styles

The utility of the map as a model of teaching practices for survey purposes with individual teachers is explored now, in Exhibit 4. If our map reflects a full array of behaviors that are known and have some potential value in helping students learn, then by surveying the demonstrated behaviors of any individual teacher, a pattern of practices or the 'teaching style' of the individual teacher can be plotted.

Exhibit 4 illustrates the plotted teaching style for hypothetical teachers 'x and y.' The styles are characterized by a unique pattern of use of an array of specified behaviors in each of the six performance areas. The styles are further characterized by the extent of coverage of behaviors in area (a) as distinguished from area (b) or (c). In these two illustrations, the plotted 'styles' do not extend into area (d), reflecting the use of non-effective behaviors. Such plots as well as many others are possible, of course.

As crude as these plotted styles may be, they may still be more realistic and useful ways of viewing a teacher's performance than those in current use. Certainly, such ways of thinking about and analyzing teaching behavior are distinctly more promising than continued global classifications of teachers as 'excellent,' 'poor,' 'average,' or 'very talented and conscientious.'

The maps presented so far in this article have been models of teaching, not actual descriptions and analyses of real teaching. Hence, we are proposing ways of thinking about teaching, its patterns and differing styles. The maps can serve as analytical techniques as well as models, but much more precise procedures would be required for this. Again, an analogy may be useful. A simple physical-political world globe is an excellent model for use in thinking about the land and sea areas of the earth and recognizing important relationships, distances, directions, elevations, etc. Much more precise maps and tools will be needed nonetheless by navigators.

Comparing Contrasting Perceptions of Teaching

One of the perplexing concerns about teaching practices is that of differing perceptions. Teachers, students, principals, supervisors, and fellow teachers all have somewhat divergent ways of perceiving the same teacher. This is hardly surprising, since teaching is very complex and no source of data is truly comprehensive nor representative. What is promising is the fact that there is some substantial agreement among trained observers on many teaching behaviors.

What is truly exciting, however, from a developmental supervision perspective, is the ease with which simple survey techniques produce strong agreements on behaviors not clearly in evidence.

What is truly exciting, however, from a developmental supervision perspective, is the ease with which simple survey techniques produce strong agreements on behaviors not clearly in evidence.

A map of teaching behaviors is useful in thinking about the differences in perceptions of teaching and the use of such recognized differences in selecting foci for diagnostic analyses of teaching. Figure 5 illustrates a map of teaching behaviors with only two perceptions plotted for a single teacher. In this instance, the self-perception of the teacher is plotted with a solid line, while the perceptions of a principal, supervisor, or other knowledgeable observer are plotted as a broken line.

Even at first glance, both similarities and differences are apparent. Both 'plottings' embrace much common area, especially as related to I. Businesslike behaviors. Individual-oriented behaviors are not included in the plotted perceptions of the observer, as they are in the teacher's self-perceptions. There is close agreement in perceptions of multi-media behaviors. There are differences in the total area plotted, indicating that teacher self-perceptions embrace more behaviors in five of the six performance categories of practice.

If we concentrate on differences in perceptions graphically represented in Exhibit 5, they are numerous and might cause great concern. Obviously, both views cannot be completely valid. The differences in many instances are so discrepant that serious challenges might emerge, promoting confrontations and conflicts that could frustrate collaboration for improving teaching.

However, if we concentrate on agreements rather than disagreements, they too are numerous, interesting, and useful. Based on Exhibit 5, the following can be agreed upon.

The teacher is perceived as:

1. more highly businesslike than anything else.
2. not eliciting multi-media behaviors.
3. exhibiting friendly behaviors of limited kinds.
4. eliciting friendly behaviors of both common and not-in-common-user varieties.
5. exhibiting rather limited verbally interactive behaviors, largely of commonly used kinds.

It is such agreements in perceptions, both positive and negative, that can serve as the basis for selecting one or more foci for further diagnostic analysis and improvement efforts.

Summary

The existence of well defined, research supported teaching practices that promote learning for students represents both an opportunity and a problem for practitioners concerned with supervision of instruction. The enormous array of behaviors clearly related to effective teaching produces a problem in information management. In this article, a mapping technique is proposed for use in conceptualizing and visualizing teaching styles and perceptions. When combined with congruence analysis techniques, such 'maps' seem to offer really powerful diagnostic findings for individual teacher development. But as a way of thinking about the complexities of teaching, the map of teaching practices may have value with or without diagnostic applications.

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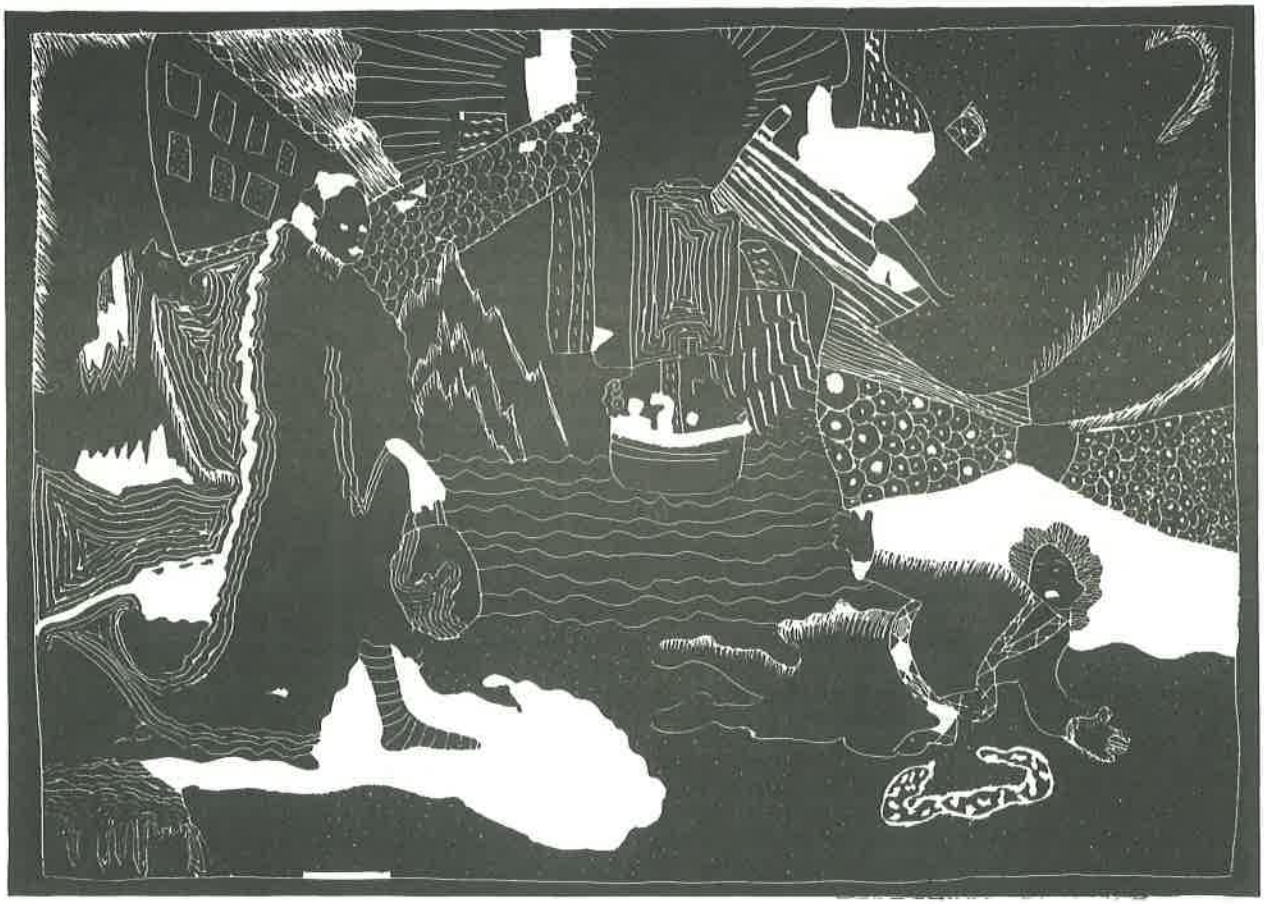

Jennifer Leonard - Art I

Research on Learning and Teacher Effectiveness: Implications for Instructional Supervision

By Donald J. Reyes and Gloria T. Alter

Teacher effectiveness is defined as the contribution of the teacher to pupil achievement (Medley & Crook, 198). While many variables affect pupil achievement, the best effectiveness research has focused on what Bloom (1978) calls 'alterable variables,' that is, on those teacher behaviors, strategies or activities which can be adjusted to increase probabilities that learning will take place. In most cases, student growth is the dependent variable with various acts of the teacher being made problematic.

In this paper, an attempt will be made to summarize and evaluate some of this research with implications being drawn for the instructional supervisor.

Teacher effectiveness studies Early studies focused on traits and characteristics of the teacher. These studies tried to link personality and character descriptions of the teacher with various subjective measures of effective teaching, such as the administrator's evaluation. Not only were these studies non-scientific, but because they focused on factors which were generally beyond the ability of the instructional supervisor to influence or change, they were of limited value.

Another form of research examined the effectiveness of differing methods of instruction. Here researchers attempted to discern those methods of instruction most effective for pupil learning. This research also had limited applicability for instructional supervisors because of what Medley (1979) calls technical difficulties inherent in their design.

> Almost every methods experiment uses the pupil (rather than the teacher) as the unit of analysis. As a result, on valid generalization to teachers other than those who actually took part in the experiment could be made.

Process-product studies. A more promising line of teacher effectiveness research attempts to associate classroom variables under the control or influence of the teacher with the academic achievement of students. One aspect of this research is concerned with measurable patterns of the teachers' performance. That is, this research looked for continuing patterns of teaching present in effective teachers' classrooms that were not present in the performance of less effective teachers.

This research was spurred by the development of instruments such as the Observation Schedule and Record (OScAR) and Flander's Interaction Analysis Categories System. Rosenshine's review of such studies (1971) gave evidence that certain teaching styles and classroom climates were related to student achievement. Some of the commonly cited variables in these studies include clarity, variety and enthusiasm.

A more promising line of teacher effectiveness research attempts to associate classroom variables under the control or influence of the teacher with the academic achievement of students.

This aspect of process-product research also has some serious limitations which restricts its applicability for supervisors. For example, Rosenshine (1979) notes that only 10-15% of the elementary student's time is devoted to teacher-led discussion. Hence, variables such as clarity and enthusiasm can account for only a small part of the variability in achievement differences for elementary students. Doyle (1979) notes that,

> a correlation between teacher enthusiasm and student achievement...is usually interpreted as evidence that enthusiasm causes learning, presumably because this teacher characteristic is somehow contagious. In view of the correlational nature of the studies, however, it is equally legitimate to argue that teachers tend to be more enthusiastic when working with groups of high achieving students. Given the relatively weak strength of the correlations -.40 to .60 in most studies--there are likely to be instances in which enthusiasm is unrelated or even negatively related to student achievement.

Medley also observes (1979) that this research does not relate the independent variable to purpose therefore making it impossible to discern whether, say, enthusiasm is more appropriate to this task or to that.

A second line of process-product research, described below, when combined with certain findings from basic research seem to hold the most value for instructional supervision.

Some useful results. Recent research reviews indicate that most significant teacher effectiveness variables have to do with the three areas of 1) pupil time use, 2) maintenance of the learning environment (classroom management), and 3) method of instruction (direct instruction).

Brophy's 1979 and Medley's 1977 reviews of the research find (Taylor, 1981) that in effective teaching (where pupils achieve): 1) more time is spent on and allocated for teaching (Brophy) and there is greater pupil engagement in lesson-related activity (Medley); 2) classroom management results in more productive time and less distraction from learning; and 3) the method of instruction could be characterized as direct instruction where there is more structured

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teacher-directed, whole class interaction (Brophy) and more low level questions, a low level of complexity, less pupil initiative and more active supervision of independent work (Medley).

Both Brophy and Medley find that effective behaviors differ according to the learning context (grade level, student ability, etc.) and that few if any specific behaviors are appropriate for all situations. So it is important to note that Brophy's findings are based on elementary school teacher behaviors related to standardized achievement tests. Medley's on the other hand are gleaned from 14 carefully selected studies (from 289 total process-product studies) that follow a stringent criteria (see discussion of this in Research on Teaching, 1979). These studies mostly involved primary level low socioeconomic level students.

The two variables of content covered and academically engaged minutes have yielded the highest and most consistent correlations with gain in achievement of any of the classroom variables studies to date. The message is clear: what is not taught and attended to in academic areas is not learned.

Rosenshine (1979) summarizes teacher effectiveness findings, specifically delineating the before-mentioned categories of 1) content covered or opportunity to learn as assessed in time-on-task, 2) learning environment, and 3) method of instruction. He states

> the two variables of content covered and academically engaged minutes have yielded the highest and most consistent correlations with gain in achievement of any of the classroom variables studies to date. The message is clear: what is not taught and attended to in academic areas is not learned.

Thus, Rosenshine agrees with other major research reviewers on the importance of academic use of time for achievement. This finding is well-documented and Rosenshine (1979) refers to studies by Stallings and Kaskowitz and Brophy and Evertson which found significant results. He found no nonacademic activity to be related to achievement.

In addition, the six year Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES), begun in 1972 by Fisher and others in California, utilized the concept of 'academic learning time'; time a student is engaged in a task they can handle that is directly related to achievement/academic outcomes. Academic Learning Time was found more than anything else to predict achievement.

Berliner (1982) likewise recognizes this consistent relationship between time spent or content-covered and achievement. From observing teachers, he comments that 50% could improve in their allocation of time and 70% could improve their use of time. Time use is critical in reading achievement. Guthrie (1982) reports that a one minute increase in silent reading a day, led to a 1/5 month gain on a grade equivalent reading scale. Use of time must be in activities which relate to achievement test items. In addition, engaged academic time implies activity at the appropriate learning level.

These three major categories (instructional time, classroom management, and method of instruction) interact to provide most of what is known to date about teacher effectiveness.

Basic research. These composite findings can be improved by adding to them what we know from basic research. Specifically, the direct instruction model can be revised by varying instructional variables according to the particular purpose or objective under consideration. The direct instruction model was developed through raw correlation studies without regard to purpose. Basic research provides a more explicit description of what should be done during instructional time. Thus, the effects of increasing instructional time or academic engaged time and time provided by more effective classroom practices can be magnified by applying research principles to instruction.

For example, Gagne (1977) has organized learning research into a practical and useful form. He has correlated research results to classes of learning objectives. It is now possible to identify both internal and external conditions of learning which will increase the probability that students will attain various classes of objectives. Many of these conditions are under the influence of the teacher.

For example, when students are expected to attain verbal learning objectives, such as memorizing the letters of the alphabet, the multiplication tables, formulas of all sorts and so on, the teacher is expected to make provisions for the students to have massed and spaced practice on the material with feedback, and to provide for overlearning, all within the framework of increased academic engaged time. Certain conditions within the learner can also be influenced by the teacher. For example, the ability to pronounce the material to be memorized can be reviewed and, where necessary, taught.

In like manner, provisions can be made for students to attain other objectives such as learning to apply concepts and generalizations and to learn and use certain cognitive strategies. Thus, by using what is already known from teacher effectiveness research and basic research, instructional supervisions can be well equipped to execute their principal functions. Some suggestions are described below.

Improvement of instruction. Such a combination of research provides the instructional supervisor with a conceptual framework with which to generate intervention hypotheses. Using some form of clinical approach, the supervision helps teachers to utilize those behaviors and activities most appropriate for the objectives at hand. In all cases, the supervisor focuses on increasing time-on-task as well as more effective methods of class control.

Such a qualitative approach will help the supervisor to fill in the blank spots which exist in such popular improvement of instruction models as the Madeline Hunter and Tyler models. For example, in both models, teachers are expected to demonstrate a congruence between the several steps in the model. The conditions of learning research provides the knowledge to do so. Thus, given the establishment of objectives, which is the first step in the Tyler model, learning research will provide the guidelines to establish an appropriate

learning environment, steps two and three, and to evaluate learning, the last step.

Staff development. Within the existing structure of staff development patterns, topics can be drawn from teacher effectiveness research and basic research. For example, methods of class control and approaches to increasing academic engaged time seem to be appropriate starting points. Applying basic research in the classroom will also be expected to pay dividends in higher pupil achievement.

Staff evaluation. Current evaluation criteria generally suffer from an overreliance on administrative items, general items too difficult to interpret and an atheoretical definition of effective instruction (Reyes, 1982). For example, in Illinois, the most commonly found criterion on teacher evaluation checklists is knowledge of subject matter. There is, however, little if any research evidence which indicates that a teachers' high marks on this criterion will result in higher pupil achievement. In this respect, the criterion is atheoretical.

Typically, teachers who promote high achievement may get low evaluation marks because of the nature of the criteria used. Similarly, poor teachers may get high evaluations because of their friendliness, responsibility, ability to communicate with parents and so forth.

Using research data, however, supervisors can meld teacher evaluations with improvement of instruction. Items on teacher evaluation forms can conform to the best in research. They can provide a consistent reinforcement to teachers for becoming more effective in their instruction and avoid the dysfunctional results which accrue from evaluating teachers for performance and behaviors only indirectly related to achievement.

A final word. A farmer was once asked by an agricultural agent why he didn't want to spend more time learning how to improve his farming. He tersely replied that he already knew a lot more about farming than he was putting into practice. And so it is in instructional supervision.

While there is much more to know about learning, the instructional supervisor has already enough data on-hand to significantly help teachers improve instruction. Looking to teacher effectiveness and basic research is a good step towards applying what we already know.

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Barry Badzynski - Art I

Developing Effective Teaching Competencies: The Focus of Supervision

By Karolyn J. Snyder

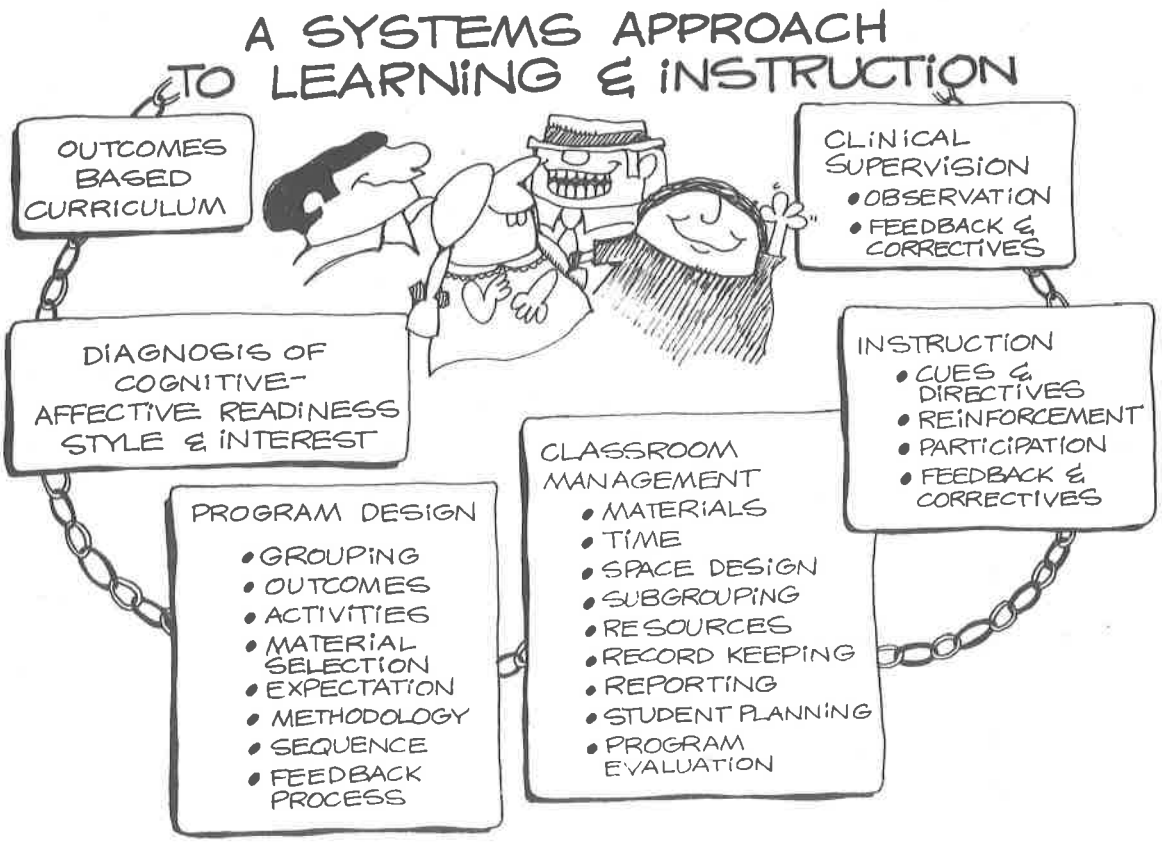
The research on effective teaching behaviors has caught the attention of principals, supervisors and teachers alike. Identified teaching characteristics also have become a focus in workshops for principals and supervisors; and, have influenced clinical supervision practice as well as new teacher evaluation systems.

It appears that segments of the research have been selected for translation into new practice. However, synthesis of research findings in useful categories will enable practitioners more effectively to coach for generic behaviors, rather than specific. For example, direct instruction is one kind of effective behavior especially useful in skill areas for low achievers. Peer learning, small group instruction and individual forms of learning are more effective teaching strategies in other situations.

The model of teacher decision categories, shown in the figure, functions as a useful lens for examining the research on effective teaching. The themes which emerge in each category provide clear direction for coaching teaching. My purpose is to summarize 46 studies of effective teaching, using the model as a lens. Each summary is then translated into teaching competency statements which provide specific direction for the supervision of teaching.

Research on Effective Teaching

Selecting curriculum outcomes. In successful schools, specific learning objectives provide the foundation for achieving and measuring student achievement. Objectives direct instructional program planning and implementation.



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Student diagnosis and evaluation. In effective instructional programs, diagnosis of student cognitive readiness and affective characteristics accounts for a significant amount of the variance in mastery. Diagnosis of learning styles, and planning programs according to test data enhances achievement. Diagnosis and evaluation are used for student placement and subsequently guide instructional planning and teaching.

Program planning. The primary characteristic of teacher involvement in program planning is that it occurs with other teachers and results from decisions made with the principal regarding the instructional program. Teachers have control over actual teaching decisions.

Classroom management. In effective classrooms teachers plan, manage and monitor an orderly student learning activity system. Effective classroom management includes guidelines for student behavior, record keeping systems and adequate learning materials.

Teaching. Teaching in successful classrooms is characterized by high learning expectations for all students and task orientation to instruction. Teaching is adaptive, structured, filled with variety, and based on specific learning goals. Teachers structure both low-order and high-order cognitive activities; instruct in both small and large groups; are interactive with students; and in general, intervene in the learning process providing reinforcements and correctives as appropriate.

Learning. In successful classrooms learning occurs within a supportive atmosphere, where students work in both small and large groups in individualized learning activities, as well as in cooperative learning and peer tutoring arrangements. Interactive learning is a primary characteristic of successful classroom environments. Students have ample time and opportunity to master skills; in addition, students assume high degrees of responsibility for the learning by participation in setting their own learning goals, actively applying program principles and concepts, and monitoring their own progress.

To summarize, successful classrooms are characterized by:

- identified learning objectives;
- diagnosis of learner readiness and style, preceding and throughout the program;
- instructional programs that are designed cooperatively by teachers;
- an activity system that specifies parameters for student behavior, focuses on learning goals and is controlled by the teacher;
- interactive instruction that provides appropriate expectations, reinforcement and corrective feedback; and that organizes students into various types of groups for work;
- learning activities that engage the students actively with peers and teacher, and that require degrees of student responsibility for success.

Effective teaching occurs within a context that expects, nurtures and supports instructional improvement efforts. Two dimensions of the schooling context relate directly to the facilitating variables for improvement. (Numerous other dimensions secondarily influence instructional improvement, and are not the topic of discussion in this article.) Instructional Management and Clinical Supervision are the direct transforming variables in altering instruction norms.

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Research on Instructional Management

Next, 53 research reports were examined to identify practices that are known to facilitate teacher mastery of more effective teaching behaviors. Findings of those studies are summarized in the next three paragraphs:

In effective schools, principals communicate a system of instructional standards to teachers, coordinating schoolwide curriculum and instruction. Ninety-five percent of all students can master expected skills and knowledge if the appropriate diagnosis is made for placement and if instruction facilitates mastery.

Teachers are able to alter outdated methods of instruction and to adopt new practices when the expectations for such changes exists, and where teachers frequently exchange ideas and support each other in the instructional improvement process.

Principals in successful schools conduct frequent formal and informal classroom observations to coach teachers in their development of effective instructional skillls.

Principals in successful schools conduct frequent formal and informal classroom observations to coach teachers in their development of effective instructional skillls. Teachers are able to transfer new skills to classroom use when peers, supervisors and principals are trained in coaching skills and use them. Teachers prefer, and are positively influenced by, peer coaching and continuous self confrontation.

Competencies of Effective Teaching

If certain teaching behaviors facilitate student growth and if instructional mangement and clinical supervision have the power to help teachers develop more effective behaviors, then what are the expected competencies toward which teachers and principals ought to strive? Listed below is a synthesis of the research on effective teaching into eleven competency statements. Each competency communicates a clear direction and purpose for improving teaching practice.

1. Demonstrate an up-to-date working knowledge of the subject to be taught.
2. Diagnose the cognitive readiness and rate,

and affective characteristics, of each student.

3. Diagnose the cognitive styles and learning style preferences of each student.
4. Design learning programs that are based on the diagnosed readiness levels and learning style preferences of students, through cooperative planning with other teachers.
5. Design a student task system, based on learning goals, which is supervised and monitored to facilitate student mastery.
6. Design a system for individual student or small task group goal setting and planning regarding learning results, tasks and responsibilities.
7. Organize students into various-size groups to facilitate various types of cooperative learning.
8. Provide instruction that is interactive in nature and that provides appropriate motivation, expectations, reinforcement, correctives and feedback.
9. Provide adequate time for each student to master specific skills and knowledge.
10. Design a program evaluation system which analyses feedback from students, peers, teachers, supervisors, and which stimulates personal reflections, and directs decisions for new program development.
11. Participate productively in dialogue about teaching, and in peer teacher coaching, in order to improve continuously the instruction process.

Neither preservice education nor the usual inservice programs have addressed many of these competencies adequately. For example, teachers have had only primitive training in how to select and use diagnostic instruments; how to collaborate with fellow professionals in developing programs; and how to engage students in collaborative learning activities. Perhaps the above list of competencies can provide direction to inservice activities and also become the focus for supervisory interactions with teachers. These competencies also provide guidance to college and university professors who seek to equip future teachers with necessary instructional competence.

Note

The many research reports that were reviewed include the works of S.C. Purkey and M.S. Smith; R. Edmonds; G. Austin; W.B. Brookover and L.Lezotte; L. Goldsberry; B. Joyce and B. Showers; W. Doyle; B. Bloom; D. Levine and J. Stark; M. Rutter; D. Berliner; R. Lysakowski and H. Walberg; J. Stallings; D. Johnson; J. Withall and F. Wood.

Heather Weir - Art I

Applying Developmental Supervision: Tactical and Strategic Dimensions

By Stephen P. Gordon & Carl D. Glickman

Since the monograph Developmental supervision (Glickman, 1981) was published, there have been many school leaders who have made applications of the theory to their school systems. This article is in part an exhortation for supervisors to continue (or to begin) such application, as well as a caution as to how developmental supervision should be used. The purpose of this article is to help clarify two critical dimensions of the theory, which is aimed at supervising teachers in an individualized and developmental manner.

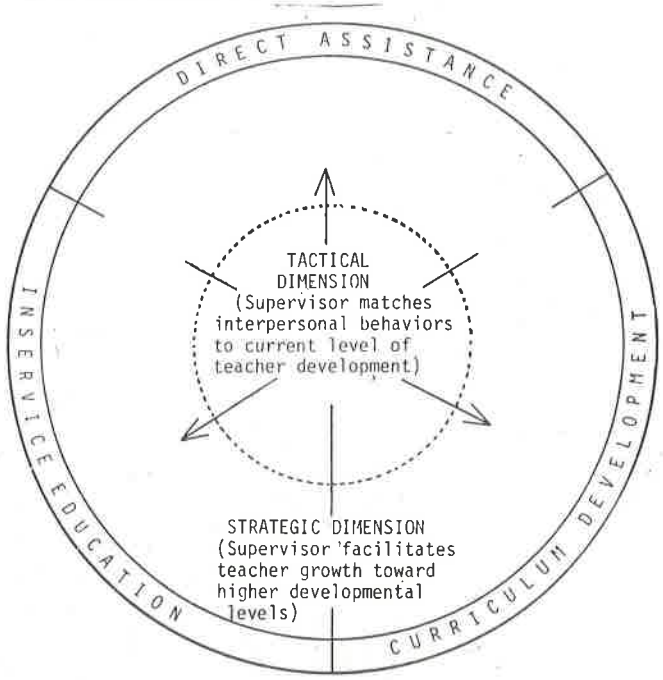
The theory of developmental supervision is postulated on a value assumption that the role of supervision should be to assist teachers to become more autonomous, reflective, and self directed. Furthermore, in order for teachers to become more autonomous, supervisors need to view the process of working with teachers as incremental, i.e., a highly dependent teacher will not respond productively to a highly unstructured environment. Instead, the supervisor must first look at the current functioning level of the teacher, determine an appropriate supervisory environment for that level, and then increase the degree of teacher choice and involvement with each subsequent supervisory encounter.

The theory of developmental supervision is postulated on a value assumption that the role of supervision should be to assist teachers to become more autonomous, reflective, and self directed.

The two dimensions for a supervisor to consider when planning encounters are referred to as tactical and strategic. The tactical dimension is defined as the diagnosis of current level of teacher functioning and making a match of supervisory procedures, skills, and approaches. The strategic dimension is defined as incremental directionality of planning supervisory encounters that stimulate teachers to take greater control over their professional lives. Please refer to Figure 1 which illustrates the relationship of tactical and strategic dimensions to each of the three traditional tasks of supervision, which include, 1) direct assistance, 2) in-service education and 3) curriculum development.

The supervisor is asked to first diagnose teacher(s) developmental levels, using the teachers' level of commitment (the amount of time and energy a teacher devotes to students and the profession) and level of abstraction (the degree of fluency and flexibility in problem solving exhibited by the teacher) as developmental criteria. A teacher with low commitment and low abstraction can be referred to as being in Stage 1 of professional development. A teacher with mixed levels of commitment and abstraction (i.e., high commitment, low abstraction, or vice-versa), or with moderate levels of both can be referred to as being in Stage 2. Finally, a teacher with high levels of commitment and abstraction can be considered to be in Stage 3. (Of course, there are numerous transitional stages of development, but to focus on the dimensions of tactical and strategical, please allow us to simplify). Once a preliminary diagnosis has been made, the supervisor can make applications to the three tasks of supervision.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TACTICAL & STRATEGIC DIMENSIONS OF DEVELOPMENTAL SUPERVISION & THREE TASK AREAS



Direct Assistance

The task of direct assistance often consists of the supervisor working directly with a teacher to improve that teacher's classroom performance. Such supervision is often done within the clinical structure (preobservation conference, classroom observation, postobservation conference). The tactical dimension can best be illustrated by discussing the postobservation conference (Glickman, 1981).

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In the case of a teacher at a low level of professional development (Stage 1), the supervisor would use a directive approach. He/she might demonstrate correct instructional behavior to the teacher or arrange for the teacher to visit the classroom of a more effective and successful teacher. The supervisor would direct the teacher in what needs to be done to improve his/her classroom performance, determine baseline data and set standards for improvement, and use material or social incentives to procure the teacher's continued cooperation in carrying out the action plan.

A collaborative approach would be used with a teacher of moderate professional development (Stage 2). The supervisor would listen to the teacher in order to fully understand the teacher's perception of the instructional problem, then present his/her own perception. Next would come a problem solving phase, with the supervisor and teacher proposing alternative actions for solving the problem. Finally, through negotiation, the supervisor and teacher would agree on an action plan.

With a teacher at a high level of professional development (Stage 3), the developmental supervisor would use nondirective interpersonal behaviors during the postobservation conference. The supervisor would listen attentively to the teacher, ask questions or rephrase teacher statements to clarify teacher perceptions, and encourage the teacher to prepare his/her own action plan for instructional improvement.

This tactical aspect is, however, only the entering phase of developmental supervision. The strategic dimension also must become operational. Those teachers who initially need a great deal of direction would gradually be asked to assume some responsibility for classroom change. This could be done by asking the teacher to select from choices provided by the supervisor. Still later, the teacher could begin the initial stages of a collaborative relationship, with the supervisor asking the teacher to suggest actions for his/her own instructional improvement. Teachers initially in a collaborative relationship could, in turn, be encouraged to gradually assume more responsibility for planning classroom change. The ultimate aim of developmental supervision is for teachers to assume full responsibility for improving their classroom performance while seeking support and feedback from peers and supervisors.

In-Service Education

The principles introduced in the discussion of direct assistance can be applied to other traditional tasks of instructional supervision. When planning for in-service education on the tactical level, the developmental supervisor's first objective is again to determine the individual needs of teachers. The developmental supervisor would consider individual and group concerns, individual teaching situations, and developmental levels of teachers. While one-to-one in-service programs are neither always possible nor desirable, by its nature developmental in-service education would consist of more frequent activities with smaller groups than is typically associated with in-service programs (Hall, Loucks, Rutherford, & Newlove, 1975).

One primary focus of in-service education is the introduction and dissemination of program and instructional innovations. Teachers of low development levels (Stage 1) would initially be matched with in-service emphasis on orientation to an innovation, in which skills would be demonstrated, workshop practice would take place, and teachers would become aware of the personal benefits of the innovation. For teachers of moderate professional development (Stage 2), integration would be the goal of in-service, consisting of trying out the innovation in the classroom, supervisor feedback, and coaching of appropriate skills. The supervisor would be present to provide feedback aimed at facilitating skills acquisition. Teachers of high professional development (Stage 3) would engage in refinement and innovation. They would be the first to try an innovation at the classroom level (often within an action research format). They would next modify the innovation to make it appropriate for introduction to and integration by other teachers. The developmental supervisor would invite these teachers to be on the growing edge of program innovation. They would be encouraged to conceive, propose and test potential innovations 'from within.'

In-service education must also be viewed from a strategic level. By introducting fewer innovations to teachers of lower levels of abstraction and concern, those teachers can gradually move through the orientation-integration-refinement cycle. Providing for structured interaction between high stage professionals with teachers one stage below is another strategy aimed at fostering development. Here, modeling can take place, and ideas and skills can be shared. The ultimate goal of a developmental in-service program is to allow highly skilled and thoughtful teachers to assume responsibility for in-service education with the supervisor serving as a consultant and facilitator.

Curriculum Development

A development approach to curriculum would involve teachers at various stages with different activities. Systematically working with teachers at all three levels represents the tactical dimension of supervising curriculum development (Tanner & Tanner, 1980).

Teachers at Stage 1 would be asked to make minor revisions to an externally developed and prescribed curriculum after they have implemented the curriculum. This is referred to as an imitative level. Teachers would be shown how to implement curriculum activities by supervisors and those involved in the original construction of the curriculum.

Teachers of moderate development (Stage 2) would operate at the mediative level. Their function would include interpreting, adapting and refining a pre-existing curriculum for their subjects and/or grade levels. They would be further charged with designing activities aimed at reaching specified curriculum goals. These teachers would operate in a collaborative relationship with the supervisor and curriculum

specialists in modifying the existent curriculum.

Those teachers at the highest levels of professional development (Stage 3) would be involved at a level which Tanner and Tanner refer to as generative-creative. Teachers at the generative-creative level can be charged with generating broad curriculum concepts and establishing a 'macrocurriculum' (Tanner & Tanner, 1980). These teachers would gather information about students, disciplines, and school/community goals from a wide variety of sources and interpret data for the purposes of analyzing, improving, or even creating a new curriculum. At this level, curriculum problems are diagnosed, and hypotheses for solutions are formulated and tested. Stage 3 teachers can be given responsibility for providing curriculum goals, scope, and sequence, and assuring curriculum continuity and balance. The supervisor and curriculum specialists would serve as resource persons to these professionals as they engaged in curriculum development.

The strategic dimension is concerned with enabling professionals to move into higher stages of curriculum development. While implementing the curriculum for their classrooms, teachers at Stage 1 can be encouraged to examine relationships between the parts of the curriculum which they are installing and other aspects of their teaching. They can be asked to report on progress with curriculum implementation and the intended and unintended effects of the curriculum on students and teachers. Teachers operating at the mediative level can discuss refinements with teachers at the imitative level to stimulate new possibilities and consequences. Imitative teachers can gradually become active in revisions and move to the mediative level. Similar interactions between teachers of Stage 2 and 3 can help teachers move from mediating to creating curriculum. In short, the developmental supervisor fulfills a dual function of improving the curriculum as well as stimulating teachers to acquire greater expertise, thought, and commitment to curriculum development.

Conclusion

While tactical and strategic planning are vital dimensions, other factors must be considered before attempting to initiate a program of developmental supervision at the school or district level (Glickman, Note 1). The philosophy of the district must value development of teachers towards greater reflection and autonomy. Without such a philosophical commitment, it is doubtful that developmental supervision will succeed.

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The system's supervisors must be relatively high in abstraction and commitment. Supervisors who have low commitment and abstraction are likely to be confused by the complexity of and/or lack of a technical formula for encouraging professional growth. Developmental supervision in the hands of unthinking supervisors can be abused and become an excuse for the mistreatment of teachers. It may be that supervisor development will have to be given first priority by a system adopting the developmental model.

No system, school, or supervisor will ever be able to create a perfect tactical and strategic match between supervision and individual or group developmental levels. We, as members of the human race, will never reach our fullest professional potential. However, to reach for such ideals is certainly a worthy goal not only for teachers and students but for all of us.

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Note #1

A detailed explanation of applying developmental supervision to direct assistance, in-service education, curriculum development, group development, and action research can be found in Glickman, C. D., Supervision for school success: A developmental approach. Newton, MA: Allyn and Bacon, in press for spring of 1985.

Clinical Supervision Training: A Personalized On-site Approach for Principals

By Michael P. Grady and Alan R. Tom

While clinical supervision has been widely discussed in the professional literature for at least ten years (e.g., Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969; Mosher & Purpel, 1972), only in recent years have school personnel shown much interest in clinical supervision (Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1980). We suspect that the slow rate of adoption of clinical supervision is related in part to its nebulous nature and in part to reliance on simplistic approaches to staff training. In this article, we describe our consultant experience with an on-site and personalized training approach for preparing administrators to be clinical supervisors. First, however, we need to briefly examine clinical supervision, especially since the ambiguity of this supervisory 'model' apparently is one of the impediments to its widespread use.

The Concept of Clinical Supervision

One of the clearest definitions of clinical supervision is proposed by Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1980):

> Clinical supervision...is: that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face (and other associated) interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors and activities for instructional improvement.

This definition, as its authors note, is consistent with other commonly cited definitions, definitions which stress such characteristics of clinical supervision as its focus on classroom instruction, its appeal to data obtained through direct observation, and its emphasis on face-to-face interaction between supervisor and teacher.

Knowing that clinical supervision is classroom oriented, data based, and interactive does not instruct someone on how to act as a clinical supervisor. Perhaps the greatest guidance comes from the stages of clinical supervision, a structure which has virtually become synonymous with the concept of clinical supervision. Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1980) specify five stages: (1) preobservation conference; (2) observation; (3) analysis and strategy; (4) supervision conference; (5) postconference analysis. Other authors identify as few as three stages (e.g., Mosher & Purpel, 1972) or as many as eight stages (e.g., Cogan, 1973), but all authors see clinical supervision as involving cycles of face-to-face activity.

Even after we have described such characteristics of clinical supervision as its appeal to classroom data and its emphasis on face-to-face contact, and have structured these characteristics into cyclical stages, we still have not identified the specific activities of a clinical supervisor. neither have we touched upon one of the most nebulous charactersitics of clinical supervision: the rapport between teacher and supervisor (Krajewski, 1982), a rapport which can ultimately lead to a colleagial relationship between supervisor and teacher. In the next section, we will describe our on-site and personalized training approach, an approach we believe is appropriate to the complexities of clinical supervision.

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Project Design and Implementation

While an introductory group meeting was conducted by the consultants, the core of our effort was work in the schools with individual principals. As consultants, we felt that 'one-on-one' assistance at the school in 'real life' situations would be key to refining and implementing the skills and perspectives introduced in the initial large group meeting.

The project design was simple and straightforward. We conducted a two hour introductory meeting with all the principals. At this meeting the following activities occurred:

1. The consultants met the principals.
2. The training design was explained.
3. The consultants reviewed the clinical supervision process.
4. Concerns of the principals were discussed.
5. Arrangements were made to meet the principals on-site.

After this large group meeting, the consultants met with the principals three or four times on site for approximately two hours each. The consultants, who had considerable experience with clinical supervision and had used it extensively with student teachers, were paired with six to ten principals. The pattern of working with each principal was similar.

The first on-site visit by the consultant involved getting to know the principal, the school, and teachers. Clinical supervision was also discussed, and the ground work was laid for the next meeting. That is, the principal should explain clinical supervision to his or her staff

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and ask for two volunteers to participate in the training. The consultants suggested that these volunteers should be experienced and effective teachers.

The second on-site visit involved instruction in the preobservation conference. The basic format of the preobservation conference was presented, emphasizing how the conference can be used to develop a focus for subsequent observation. The consultant then modeled a preobservation conference with one of the teacher volunteers. After a discussion of the process, the principal conducted a preobservation conference with the other teacher. The consultant critiqued the principal's performance and then all the participants discussed the process.

The third on-site visit by the consultant focused on data collection. The consultant led a discussion on data collection, instrumentation for that data collection, and the need to relate data collection to the focus arrived at through the preobservation conference. Then a preobservation conference was held with one of the teachers, and the principal and consultant went into the teacher's classroom to observe and record a lesson for 15-25 minutes. At the conclusion of the observation, the consultant and principal discussed data analysis. A quick report was usually given to the teacher in order that he or she not be kept in suspense until the next meeting.

The fourth meeting started with a discussion of the postobservation conference, stressing the presentation of data gathered during the observation. A postobservation conference was conducted first by the consultant and then by the principal, with a critique by the consultant. Questions about clinical supervision were then discussed by the group.

After the four meetings, the principal and two teachers had been through the entire clinical supervision cycle. This process provided on-site training and modeling for the principal and a knowledge of clinical supervision for two teachers. Thus, clinical supervision was on its way to becoming part of the individual school's supervisory practice.

Personalization of the Training

The previous section presents the basic instructional plan, but as the consultants worked with the principals, each experience evolved in a different way. Since the principals had varying concerns and questions about supervision, the consultant individualized the training in order to respond to these variations.

The modeling of supervisory skills caused both the principal and the consultant to be held accountable, and thus a mutual helping relationship was established.

Differences in training could be handled because a common thread in the training was the development of rapport between consultant and principal. The consultants were generally seen as non-threatening, since we were not associated with the school district and no report was given on the performance of individual principals. Consequently, throughout the process, the principal and consultant could talk and explore honestly what each was doing and why. The modeling of supervisory skills caused both the principal and the consultant to be held accountable, and thus a mutual helping relationship was established. This relationship was much different from that in a didatic large group situation and was a key element in making the training effective.

Working in a one-to-one training situation gave the consultant the opportunity to respond immediately and individually to the principal's needs. For example, one of the more difficult lessons to learn in clinical supervision is to select a specific focus for observation. If a consultant believed that a principal's identification of class discipline was not a concrete enough focus for clinical supervision, the consultant could step in and guide the principal to specify a particular aspect of classroom discipline.

A similar need for guidance could occur when selecting an instrument for data collection, since a principal sometimes chose an innappropriate instrument for recording the data of interest to the teacher. For example, a simple suggestion by the consultant to use a seating chart to note which students were asked questions made recording the data more efficient and accurate than attempting to write down names of all students. Such a suggestion turned the situation into an immediate and concrete learning experience.

The personalized and on-site method of providing inservice training was not without problems of implementation. Since we were working in schools, there were frequent interruptions during the training process, and scheduled meetings had to be adjusted due to changes in the school calendar. Also, the training time had to be worked around the teachers' schedules. Moreover, issues raised by the principals had to be dealt with in order for training to commence. For example, a principal might be reluctant to make classroom supervision a priority; teachers may not see a principal as an instructional leader, only as an evaluator; or a principal may not have time to do clinical supervision. These issues had to be clarified or resolved before meaningful training could begin. The problem of being on-site and of working 'one on one' were insignificant, however, when compared to the advantages of this approach for training supervisors in the complex skills of clinical supervision.

Assessment of the On-site Personalized Training Model

We have already suggested that the advantages of the training model outweigh its drawbacks, but we have not been very specific about its positive points. Here we will stress two of its advantages: the ability of the model to mediate between the theoretical conception of clinical supervision and the daily realities of school practice and its similarity to a relatively new orientation to staff training, i.e., the concept of coaching.

Most complex educational ideas never get translated into practice; they are discussed and then either abandoned or implemented as simplistic formulae. An on-site personalized training model

brings the consultant and his or her theoretical conceptions into a creative tension with the ongoing flow of school practice. We further magnified this tension by modeling elements of clinical supervision, observing attempts by principals to conduct the same operations, and then analyzing what had happened. Our challenge was to make sure that there was fidelity to the concept of clinical supervision, yet to also take into account the constraints and possibilities of particular school and classroom settings. While educators frequently talk of melding theory and practice or of establishing school-university collaboration, we believe the personalized on-site training model is a way to operationalize these goals.

Most complex educational ideas never get translated into practice; they are discussed and then either abandoned or implemented as simplistic formulae.

The personalized on-site training model is also a way to operationalize coaching, a training approach in which there has been considerable recent interest. According to Joyce and Showers (1982), coaching involves the provision of companionship, the giving of technical feedback, the analysis of application efforts, adaptation to the students (teachers, in the case of clinical supervision), and facilitation. We believe that the on-site personalized training model provides a structure within which these five coaching activities can occur. The initial large group meeting with the principals introduced them to the skills of clinical supervision while the subsequent four sessions at each school site enabled us to coach the principals as they tried to master the theory and practice of clinical supervision.

We believe that there is promise in the on-site personalized model for training clinical supervisors, but we are unsure that principals, already burdened with teacher evaluation and many other tasks, are the right clientele for this training.

The on-site personalized training model, of course, is not without its problems. First, and perhaps foremost in this day of declining resources for education, this model is expensive; the one-on-one instruction which is at the heart of this model was made possible because the project was supported with foundation funds. Second, there is a shortage of consultants who are both intimately familiar with the theory and assumptions underlying clinical supervision and capable of skillfully practicing clinical supervision as well as analyzing the efforts of novice clinical supervisors. Third, on-site training efforts for principals continually confront a variety of implementation problems, as we noted at the end of the previous section.

We believe that there is promise in the on-site personalized model for training clinical supervisors, but we are unsure that principals, already burdened with teacher evaluation and many other tasks, are the right clientele for this training. Perhaps clinical supervision ought to be a peer effort, with teachers clinically supervising colleagues (Smyth, 1983). Such peer clinical supervision, however, would require a rethinking of teachers' responsibilities to one another and of the way their work day is organized, but this reconstruction of the teachers' role could be quite profitable. The model of on-site personalized training should be a useful structure for learning peer clinical supervision.

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New Wine for Old Bottles: Refurbishing an Existing Teacher Evaluation System

By Saundra J. Tracy and Robert MacNaughton

The numerous reports on the state of American education have recently placed teacher evaluation in the spotlight. As a result, increased attention is necessarily focused on staff development and evaluation systems. While the intended purpose of these systems has been the improvement of instruction, frequently teachers perceive the process as simply a vehicle for contract renewal (McIntyre & Morris, 1982). Since few teachers are dismissed from teaching, those outside of education perceive schools to be failing even this one area. A rather common response by school systems to such critical assessments of teacher evaluation systems has been to form a committee and/or hire a consultant to change the system. However, changing the system may be addressing only a small part of the problem. McGreal (1983) points out that it is unlikely that there now exists or will exist in the near future a totally reliable teacher evaluation system. Thus, changing the system may be a costly, time-consuming process that will not answer the criticisms being leveled. The contention of this article is that the first stop in improving teacher evaluation systems is to train administrators in the skills necessary to effectively carry out the evaluation system that currently exists. Once this has been done, an evaluation can be made as to the effectiveness of the overall system and a comparison can be made with alternative systems of assisting and assessing educational personnel.

Several reasons are suggested both in the literature and by practitioners for taking the 'training' rather than 'changing' approaches to evaluation systems. Numerous pre-packaged evaluation systems are available for adoption by a school district. Many of these systems are well developed with the potential to be effective but are adopted without consideration of the particular characteristics and needs of an individual school district (Iwanicki, 1981). Thus, having a good evaluation system simply is not enough; it must be a good match with the goals and needs of the school district.

A second reason for the training approach comes from the difficulty that frequently occurs in changing a systemwide evaluation process. In many school systems, the process for teacher evaluation is very clearly spelled out in the negotiated agreement between teachers and the system. Changes in the process must be agreed upon by the bargaining unit adding a time dimension beyond that of merely selecting a new system. In addition, the evaluation system may be altered somewhat by the negotiation process.

The most compelling reason to train administrators to effectively carry out the existing evaluation process rather than change the system is the acknowledgement by many writers and practitioners that this is indeed where the source of ineffectiveness lies. The administrator responsible for teacher evaluation is viewed as the key to the success or failure of the evaluation system. Hunter (1983) emphasizes this key role by noting that the building administrator is generally formally charged with the responsibility for teacher evaluation, controlling the reward system of a particular school, and is continuously the 'on site' person. Thus, no one else has such potential to either effectively or ineffectively carry out the evaluation process. McGreal (1983) also identifies a chief source of problems with teacher evaluation systems in the way that evaluation is carried out rather than with the concept or purposes. He cites the lack of training of individuals involved in the evaluation process as one of the major difficulties (1980).

The most compelling reason to train administrators to effectively carry out the existing evaluation process rather than change the system is the acknowledgement by many writers and practitioners that this is indeed where the source of ineffectiveness lies.

Training administrators in the skills necessary for carrying out teacher evaluation rather than changing the system has one additional, often unrecognized, side benefit. While it is obvious that increasing supervisory skills increases competence in teacher evaluation, it also can increase confidence in the ability to evaluate teachers. With increased confidence comes less avoidance of the process. Many times administrators admit they are uncomfortable evaluating teachers due to a sense of inability to actually assist the teacher to improve instruction. When this lack of confidence is present, the frequent result is to only observe the teacher the minimum number of times required by the school. Unless there are problems, teacher evaluation may be called unnecessary. The philosophy becomes one used by Manatt (1979), namely, "If it isn't broken, don't fix it." However, such a hands-off approach to teacher evaluation may result in the lack of assistance which prevents a good teacher from becoming an excellent one. Increased confidence in the ability to evaluate teachers can result in a greater willingness to move out of the office and into the classroom.

If training administrators in teacher evaluation is to be the first step in improving the evaluation process, how can this training be

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carried out in an efficient and effective method that is not cost prohibitive? The approach to training which is suggested here is a generic approach in that it can be utilized in any individual system or by a group of administrators from various school districts with differing teacher evaluation systems. The generic nature of the training process would make it possible for a local university or outside consultant to serve as the source of training for several districts at any one time.

Traditionally, administrator training programs have included only one or two courses on instructional supervision including both theoretical background and very limited skills training. The training approach in supervisory skills outlined here suggests the possibility of an institutional responsiveness to supporting professional educators beyond their degree programs, and assisting them in applying previous knowledge to the real world setting of the school in order to improve the quality of instruction.

To make the administrator's training as beneficial as possible, the school district implements the first step in the process. A district holds meetings with building level administrators and teachers to obtain their perceptions as to the operation of the evaluation system in relation to its written form. This perception checking can alert the school system to discrepancies that may exist. These can be further analyzed to determine if they are caused either by lack of communication of the evaluation process or more fundamental skill deficiencies in implementation. The results of this perception checking, as well as the actual existing written descriptions of the process, are shared with the trainers prior to the training process.

The second stage begins the actual trainer-trainee interaction. Participants in the training process need to identify the skills necessary to carry out their district's evaluation system, a task which can only be completed by recognizing how one's own evaluation system compares to the various models of evaluation. By thus being able to place one's own system in relation to more theoretical models, the skills inherent in the focus of each model surface and provide a basis for specific training as well as a framework from which to begin.

For example, three such models (Figure 1) have been identified by Bohnert, MacNaughton and Rogus (1978). These include the means oriented, ends oriented, and teacher concern approaches. In the means oriented traditional approach, the focus is on the process of teaching. The evaluation assesses the presence or absence of certain characteristics assumed to be related to effective teaching and develops a profile of the teacher based on these characteristics. More recent versions of this approach are seen in the utilization of the effective teaching research to establish elements in lesson design which, if present, are equated with effective teaching. If a school system uses any of the variations of the means approach, certain skills are necessary on the part of the administrator. Specifically, administrators must be able to clearly define and articulate to teachers the characteristics or traits being observed, be able to recognize these characteristics when they occur, provide feedback in relation to the observations, and to give

Figure 1

TEACHER EVALUATION APPROACHES		
A. Means Oriented	B. Ends Oriented	C. Teacher Concern Oriented
1. Traditional trait or techniques approach	Instructional objectives approach	Self-directed approach
2. Neo-traditional approach	Performance outcome approach	

assistance in the designated elements of effective teaching. Additional skills may be useful, but these four are basic for an even adequate functioning of the system.

The ends oriented approach focuses on outcomes--either student learning outcomes or professional effectiveness outcomes. Its purposes can include improving student performance, clarifying responsibilities, and assessing teacher effectiveness. Operationally, the teacher is assisted in setting either lesson objectives or personal performance objectives. Where the operational focus is on setting instructional objectives, the administrator must have a knowledge of systematic instruction as well as skill in data gathering and conferencing. When job targets are set, knowledge of systematic evaluation, data gathering beyond the classroom, and conferencing skills are essential. In both cases, the ability to develop measurable and observable objectives is perhaps the primary skill.

The third model, the teacher concern model, is essentially for the purpose of assisting. However, it is sometimes combined with the other two approaches. Since this approach focuses on the concerns of the teacher, the administrator's role becomes that of clarifier and facilitator. Skills associated with this approach are human relations, observational, and conferencing ones.

By providing models and comparing them with existing systems, administrators can identify skill needs. The list of skills which can be developed through the training process is fairly lengthy.

The major ones identified in relation to the models are identifying teaching characteristics, writing objectives, conferencing skills, and data collection skills. Additional skills might include communication skills, such as clarifying and probing, descriptive writing skills, developing action plans, analyzing recorded data, and analyzing the content of instruction.

The most crucial skill(s) for the effective implementation of a school district's teacher evaluation system is selected first for the training process. By breaking the various evaluation systems down into specific skill areas, administrators from various districts can be trained together in small groups on a given skill. Skill training involves the characteristics of effectively teaching adults, such as presenting a rationale, direct teaching with demonstration, skill practice in a simulated setting, feedback, and transfer of the skill to the actual school setting (Wilsey & Killion, 1982). The actual time involved in training is largely determined by the time available on the part of the administrators and trainees as well as the financial constraints. However, a necessary part of the training is feedback by trained observers on the effectiveness of skill implementation in the actual classroom setting away from the training site. This feedback may be provided by trained local school district personnel and peers or the original trainees. The observers must, however, be trained in observing the supervisory process including such specific skills as data collection, conferencing, etc. Follow-up over at least a twelve month period is probably necessary for the continuance of the learned skills at the desired level.

The goal of the training process for school administrators as outlined here is the increased effectiveness of the teacher evaluation system. Even if some major flaws exist in the overall system, increasing the skills of the evaluators will lead to an improved teacher evaluation process.

The goal of the training process for school administrators as outlined here is the increased effectiveness of the teacher evaluation system. Even if some major flaws exist in the overall system, increasing the skills of the evaluators will lead to an improved teacher evaluation process. Furthermore, as has been pointed out, many of the skills are transferable between evaluation systems. If a total revision of the evaluation system does subsequently occur, the schools are already one step ahead by having administrators prepared with the skills to implement the new system as well. The logical sequence of events is to train administrators in evaluation skills then assess the overall evaluation process. A new evaluation system may initially curb the voice of criticism, but it will only be as effective as the skills of those who are charged with its implementation.

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Writing Observation Reports: Multiple Functions and Needed Skills

By Bernard Novick and Ronald T. Hyman

The written report of a classroom observation, prepared by a supervisor, is a critical document in all school systems. The report serves several purposes simultaneously and is therefore of concern to different groups. Board of Education members, superintendents, and assistant superintendents all read observation reports in order to follow the progress of teacher development in their schools. Teachers have great concern too, although they generally read only the reports they personally receive since there is little sharing of observation reports among teachers.

The observation report performs at least the following functions: (1) gives feedback to the teacher to be used towards teacher improvement, (2) serves as the basis of the post observation conference, (3) fulfills the legal requirement established by the board of education or state legislature, (4) allows other school personnel to learn about the supervisory efforts being carried on with a particular staff member, (5) serves as evidence in disputes between a teacher and a school district, (6) enhances the significance of classroom observation, (7) facilitates reconsideration by the teacher of the supervisor's points when reflecting about the observed lesson, (8) serves as an historical record of how the teacher and the observer performed at a given point in time, (9) provides the basis for evaluating the teacher at the end of the year, and (10) provides an implicit report on the supervisor in terms of the nature and quality of the supervisory work being done (Hyman, in press). These ten functions, and others, make the written report worthy of concern.

Most local school districts and some states mandate that principals prepare reports on observation visits and give them to the staff member to review before filing them as official documents. In some districts the report is read prior to or during the postobservation conference while in others it is prepared and read after the conference is held. In either case, one purpose of this mandate requiring teacher review is to further the discussion between the staff member and the observer aimed at the improvement of classroom teaching or other professional behavior.

Despite this mandate and despite the recognition of the multiple and important functions served by the written report, research (Blumberg, 1980) indicates that many principals do not have the skills needed to write the kind of report which can best serve the several functions for which they are intended. In particular, most reports fail to provide the solid foundations needed for a productive supervisory conference which can lead to staff insight and development. As such, they are poor reports and constitute a serious problem because of the multifaceted functions they serve and the currently increased public concern with high quality instruction.

One major explanation for the poor reports is the lack of general writing skill on the part of the principals. Those who accept this explanation see current principles as just one other group of people which suffers from improper training in writing during their own school days (Elbow, 1973). The cure or response this group recommends is to put emphasis on improving basic writing skills which are then to be transferred to all written documents.

A second major explanation is that principals do not know what to look for during a classroom visit. This position holds that principals fail to record objective data because they cannot specify the observable dimensions of teaching behavior which serve as the basis for the written report. They only know in general what they need to and want to observe, not the specifics of what to observe. Those who hold this explanation claim that with training in observation--giving observers aid in conceptual focus, use of observational instruments, and practical techniques--principals will acquire the foundation to write adequate reports (Cogan, 1973; Anderson & Krajewski, 1980).

There are, no doubt, other explanations which some people accept as reasons why observation reports are often of poor quality. (See Sergiovani, 1982, for alternative explanations flowing from the 'many faces of supervision'.) However, to accept any single explanation about the quality of a complex document such as the observation report is simplistic. To approach a complex problem in human behavior by assuming that all manifestations of it have the same cause is to deny what is known about human behavior. Rather, it is reasonable to believe that there are multiple causes for poor supervisory reports. Furthermore, it is a sound principle of training that an effective approach to staff improvement must deal with various learning styles as the various skills are being learned.

To deal with our problem of poor reports and to investigate the theoretical and practical issues related to written observation reports we implemented a training project with attention to several dimensions simultaneously. We hypothesized that with coordinated training in observation, conference, and writing skills the quality of observation reports would improve. That is to say, we believed that principals could learn to write reports that actually lead to beneficial supervisory conferences while fulfilling the legal requirement set for them.

We began by having the project director develop a basic statement about observations and how they differ from an end-of-year evaluation.

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The statement was reviewed by the superintendent ob schools and other key central office staff members of the sponsoring school system (Woodbridge Township in central New Jersey) to be sure that they could and would support it. Based on that accepted foundation, the project coordinator prepared a manual for principals and supervisors with detailed, specific steps to be followed when observing and conferring with teachers. The manual also listed specific behaviors to look for, offered standards to compare the behaviors with, provided sample forms, and suggested a model script for postobservation conferences. The same format and process was implemented for observation of supervisory personnel.

All principals and other supervisory personnel then participated in a ten-hour training program. The content of the mini-course was contained in the supervisory manual. The techniques used for conducting the course were based on adult learning theory which suggests that when teaching new skills to adults, the trainer should build on the strengths and experiences in the background of the trainees. Using small group theory and techniques, the trainer guided the participants in a review of observation skills, conference skills, and writing skills. A major component of the training was the observation of a live, simulated class. The observation was followed by having small groups collectively write the observation report and conduct a postobservation conference based on the report.

Individual practice in writing and peer review of draft reports were included as a second approach to teaching and strengthening writing skills. Related to the training, but announced as a separate requirement of the district superintendent, principals were given a new quota of observation reports (based on classroom visits and postobservation conferences) to be completed. The quota was an increase over the previous year's required number. In order to emphasize the need for objectivity in language, the trainer advised the principals and supervisors to focus on one aspect of teaching behavior in each observation. The assumption was that narrowing the focus would make it easier for the observer to record specific data.

Observation reports were reviewed as the district's office copies were sent to the personnel office for filing. A comparison of the new reports with reports written by the same principals the previous year show that the current reports contain major increases in use of objective language. Whereas in previous years no more than 25% of the principals included objective non-judgmental data, now over 85% do so. Current reports give more frequent descriptions of teacher behavior rather than previous year's reports wnich emphasized descriptions of the subject matter content covered in the lesson. Specifically, a review of reports from previous years show that over 75% of the content dealt only with the topics and subjects covered by the teacher. This year's reports so far show almost a complete reverse, with over 75% of the content dealing with teacher performance.

Even though the principals were advised to limit their data collection to a single focus, they did not do so. On the average, the observation reports include data on two to four different (yet often related) aspects of teacher behavior. Generally, only when an observation identifies a behavior pattern seen by a principal as a weakness has the principal been willing to limit the data gathering to that one focus.

Anecdotal reports by staff members and principals show that the use of descriptive data and non-judgmental feedback has a positive effect. Furthermore, principals and teachers alike claim that allowing and encouraging the staff member, during postobservation conferences, to participate in analyzing the implications of the data has resulted in changed and improved teaching performance.

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There is also objective, external evidence supporting these data and anecdotal reports. The evidence comes from the number of grievances filed with the central office. Based on prior experience when there were fewer observation reports required, the expected number of grievances for the district of over 850 teaching staff members is 12 per half year. However, even with the almost triple increase in number of observation reports filed, there were no grievances filed in the first five months of the current year. In prior years, approximately 50 of the staff members wrote rebuttals or added data to the reports. In contrast, in the first half of this year, only one rebuttal was filed. Moreover, the five comments written by staff members in reviewing their supervisor's reports prior to official filing, thanked the observers for their professional approach. It is important to note that this district has over 95% tenured faculty with the majority having worked in the district for more than ten years.

There is still concern on the part of the trainer with the resistance of the principals to limit data gathering to one focus. The rationale for the request was that such a limit would make objectivity easier to achieve. Furthermore, a limited focus would lead the appropriate teachers to deal with one aspect of their behavior at a time. Indeed, the purpose of the observation/conference/report cycle as advocated by today's supervision theories is to improve teacher performance, and such improvement should deal with manageable units of behavior at any given time. Nevertheless, the principals who participated in this training project were able to achieve objectivity and to improve teacher performance while not limiting their focus except in relation to what they observed and judged to be serious weaknesses.

Interviews with principals indicate that they view teaching as a complex act and that they are unwilling to deal with only a small part of it. They believe that veteran teachers prefer seeing the large picture of their classroom performance, especially when there is a no major problem. (Preliminary feedback from the staff indicate that they will accept a broad picture provided it is based on objective data and provided there is an opportunity to discuss the data presented to them).

Perhaps the principals will move to a limited focus as they become more comfortable in the implementation of the skills taught in the mini-course. That is to say, the training dealt with several skills at the same time, and the trainees were all at different levels of need. Perhaps it was not reasonable to expect them to modify several dimensions of their behavior at the same time. What applies to teachers as they change behavior probably also applies to principals. On the other hand, perhaps the principals are right that experienced teachers should be dealing with large units of behavior. Perhaps the experience of the principals has led them to the realization that this is the best way to work with veteran staff members.

Positive participation by the principals in turn led them to strengthen underused skills and to learn new ones. The subsequent written observation reports showed significant improvement in terms of objectivity, specificity, and usefulness in providing the kind of feedback teachers will accept in their efforts to improve classroom performance.

In any case, the outcomes of the project to date are clear. Implementing a training program that (1) hypothesized multiple causes of the targeted problem and (2) recognized the validity of the participant's prior experience results in acceptance of the approach by the principals. The acceptance then led to positive and active participation. This outcome is in contrast to passive and sometimes active hostility which is often present during inservice sessions. Positive participation by the principals in turn led them to strengthen underused skills and to learn new ones. The subsequent written observation reports showed significant improvement in terms of objectivity, specificity, and usefulness in providing the kind of feedback teachers will accept in their efforts to improve classroom performance.

These outcomes lead to several significant conclusions: principals can learn to observe teachers specifically, confer meaningfully, and report objectively; it is possible to help veteran teachers to accept non-judgmental descriptions of their classroom behavior so that they can take steps to improve their performance; it is possible, just as the theory of sound supervision claims, to use data-based observations and participatory postobservation conferences to guide the teaching behavior of an experienced faculty; and it certainly is possible for written observation reports to go beyond only fulfilling their legal function and become documents that help teachers develop as professionals.

The project is not over. Ongoing reviews of written observation reports along with interviews with supervisory personnel are generating new data that will serve as the basis for planning future research and training. As of now, it appears that the next round of training will emphasize group observation of simulations and films to be followed by collective report writing and public postobservation conferences. Future research will examine the impact of multiple foci, as compared to a single focus, in conferences and written reports. We also plan to begin introducing peer observations among teachers. Since observation reports serve so many valuable functions and since our experience to date indicates that principals and supervisors can acquire the necessary skills to write good reports, we believe that this dimension of supervision deserves the further attention of researchers and trainers for achieving the ultimate objective of improving the quality of the education of our students.

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Working toward Collegiality: If at First You Don't Succeed . . .

By Ian G. Pac-Urar and JoAnne L. Vacca

Collegiality is a term which refers to the state of mind of persons involved in supervision (Garman, 1982). This results in the kind of collaboration which is mutually respecting; it leads eventually to instructional improvement. In order for one to develop this state of mind, it is necessary that a nurturant climate be created and maintained (Alfonso & Goldsberry, 1982).

Four years ago in a small independent school in the Great Lakes region, the atmosphere wasn't nurturing and the states of mind were anything but collegial. During the 1980-1981 school year, as part of the school's routine process of self-evaluation, the faculty had attempted to institute a program of peer visitation and consultation. Each teacher was to visit and observe three other teachers of choice. The observing and observed teachers were then to confer, with an eye to determining whether or not the stated philosophy and goals of the school were being practiced and met in classrooms on a day-to-day basis. The plan soon failed, however, and a number of contributing factors became evident in subsequent conversations with faculty members.

Reasons Behind the Failure

First, the teachers had received no training in the techniques of classroom observation, and many felt unequal to the task. Second, it was extremely difficult to translate philosophical statements in a school handbook into observed classroom behaviors, and the teachers had little or no idea as to how this problem might be handled. Third, the fact that the observations were to serve primarily an evaluative purpose contributed to a general uneasiness with the whole project.

This uneasiness manifested itself in some of the typical supervisor/supervisee interactions described by Garman (1982). Teachers who were being observed often showed 'non-working involvement' (Garman, 1982), by engaging in self-deprecation, or by simply 'hearing out' the observers. Those who were observing typically took great pains to show 'working-acceptance involvement' (Garman, 1982), by reassuring the observed teacher that everything was fine, that the philosophy and goals were indeed being met, and that there was really no need to discuss the matter any further. In fact, the project was studiously avoided as a topic of conversation in the faculty lounge.

Despite these problems, there appeared to be enough teachers who thought the experience worthwhile to warrant exploring the process further. Given proper preparation and attitudes, it seemed that peer observation would have value for routine supervision of teachers. While the subject of peer-delivered supervision is relatively unexplored, there have been indications of its effectiveness in improving teacher performance (Goldsberry, 1980; Roper, Deal & Dornbush, 1976; Withall & Wood, 1979; Paynter, 1983).

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Since the underlying intent in 1980-81 had been basically sound, a survey was designed to obtain a preliminary idea as to whether or not the faculty members might be predisposed to accept the notion of peer-delivered supervision, despite the earlier failure.

Starting Over

The first order of business was to determine whether teachers perceived their colleagues as sources of help and advice in instructional matters, and as desirable deliverers of supervision. A simplified, working definition of 'supervision' was included to ensure that all would respond to the questions intended. The teachers were also asked to relate from their experiences an instance of supervision which had resulted in improved instruction and an instance which had not. The intent here was to see whether there was any existing perception that collaboration or collegiality were factors of effective supervision (Garman, 1982; Alfonso & Goldsberry, 1982).

The survey was distributed during Fall of 1983 to the school's fifteen faculty members, and is reproduced here with the results. Numerals in parenthesis beside or above a response indicate the number of teachers who chose that response.

Directions

This is part of a project which is attempting to identify some characteristics of desirable, effective approaches to supervision. For each item below, please circle the answer that most applies to you. For any question, feel free to add comments or clarifications if you wish.

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'Supervision' is used here to mean the process of observing and counseling teachers in order to improve classroom instruction. It does not necessarily include evaluation for promotion, tenure or termination purposes.

1. I would most prefer to be supervised by:

the headmaster or his appointee	6
a school-wide committee of teachers	2
my fellow team members as a group	2
another teacher of my choice	4
another teacher assigned to me	1

2. I would like to supervise others

as part of a school-wide committee	3
as part of my team	3
on a one-to-one basis (mutual choice of teachers)	6
on a one-to-one bases (assigned)	3
under no circumstances	0

3. I can think of at least one other teacher at this school by whom I would like to be supervised.

true	12
false	3

4. When I have a problem involving classroom instruction, I seek help from:

	almost always	often	sometimes	never
the headmaster	0	1	8	5
my fellow team members as a group	2	4	8	0
another member of my team	5	4	5	0
another teacher in the school	4	2	8	0

Please answer the following questions below as completely as you can, given the short time available.

5. Describe as fully as you can a situation from your experience in which ineffective supervision (supervision that did not result in improved instruction) was delivered.

6. Describe as fully as you can a situation for your experience in which effective supervision (supervision which resulted in improved instruction) was delivered.

Survey Results

There was no strong consensus about the most desirable person to deliver supervision. Of those who favored some configuration of peer delivery (item #1), nearly half preferred a situation where supervisor and supervised would choose each other. Neither were the teachers so respectful of the headmaster's supervisory role that they would refuse to take on such a role. In fact, all respondents indicated they would like to supervise others.

Responses to items #3 and #4 indicate that the wide majority of faculty have at least one peer whose advice, they consider, would be beneficial to their teaching performance. Nine teachers responded to item #5 that they 'almost always' or 'often' sought help and advice from peers on their department teams. Of the nine who said they 'sometimes' or 'often' go to the headmaster, four also indicated that the 'often' or 'almost always' consult with team members.

Responses to item #6 recounted incidents or patterns of ineffective supervision from the respondents' experiences. Failure to use instructional criteria when observing and evaluating teachers, failure to suggest ways to remedy observed weaknesses, failure to spend enough time in the classroom to obtain an accurate picture of the instructional situation, failure to provide direct help to the teacher, and failure to follow up adequately either during or after the post-observation conference were the major complaints voiced. Some teachers indicated that they had never been observed by the person charged with supervisory duties. The following is a sample incident of ineffective supervision:

> I was told by a supervisor to use material only as it had been intended to be used. I was using a listening exercise for note taking purposes. I resented the supervisor's statement and continued to use the same material. Had she given suggestions as to other materials that are available for note taking purposes or where I might find such materials, I am sure I would have pursued them.

Item 6 asked the teachers for example for effective supervision. Three related receiving suggestions concerning such instruction-related factors as timing, pace, lesson variety, voice modulation and enunciation. Four others pointed out the importance of discussion with the supervisor, and of having him observe on several different occasions. Five of the respondents related having had opportunities to observe, work with, consult with, and plan with other teachers. They seemed to view these experiences as more valuable and effective in improving their teaching performance than anything that any supervisor had ever done for them. As one respondent indicated:

> Situations which, in general, have resulted in improved instruction for me occurred when I was involved with one other teacher in the preparation and/or execution of classroom instructional activities. I believe that the give and take, the shared responsibilities, and the mutual evaluation which takes place, more than doubles the effectiveness of each teacher involved.

Recommendations

The views of these teachers, their laments of infrequency, superficiality, and 'out-of-touch'-ness on the part of supervisors are consistent with the findings of researchers in the field

(Ness, 1980; Krajewski & Anderson, 1980). Traditional supervisory practice, in short, has not been effective in its rightful purpose, the improvement of instruction (McGreal, 1982).

From the results of this survey, it appears that some form of collegial, peer-delivered supervision might be appropriate. The feature most frequently cited by the teachers as linked to effectiveness in improving instruction is the delivery of help and advice by colleagues.

While the case for colleagueship seems relatively clear here, it may be wise to move slowly. There seems to exist an identifiable group within the faculty for whom peer consultation is the best route to improved instruction. Rather than attempt to bring in a school-wide program of peer-delivered clinical supervision, it may be better to begin with a few of those teachers who respond most positively, and allow the practice to spread as more teachers come to recognize its seriousness and effectiveness (Smyth, 1982).

While the case for colleagueship seems relatively clear here, it may be wise to move slowly. There seems to exist an identifiable group within the faculty for whom peer consultation is the best route to improved instruction. Rather than attempt to bring in a school-wide program of peer-delivered clinical supervision, it may be better to begin with a few of those teachers who respond most positively, and allow the practice to spread as more teachers come to recognize its seriousness and effectiveness (Smyth, 1982). Perhaps the 'second time around' even those teachers who initially opposed the idea will eventually come to re-think their approaches to teaching and supervision, working toward collegiality.

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TO OUR READERS:

Dr. John H. Johansen, Dean of the College of Education, Northern Illinois University, will retire August 31, 1984. We express our appreciation for his contributions to the educational community and his moral and material support of Thresholds in Education.

THE EXECUTIVE EDITORS

The Supervisor as Communicator: Observations and Perceptions

By Cheryl Granade Sullivan

What do supervisors do? What do supervisors say they do? What should supervisors do? Recent studies indicate that a common thread runs through the answers to these questions--communicate.

A host of writers (e.g., Harris, 1975; Cogan, 1973; Alfonso, Firth & Neville, 1975; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979) have defined the tasks and skill areas of supervision. Yet, questions about the work actually done by the supervisor have remained unanswered. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) indicate:

> Confusion in role definition still plagues the field, and uncertainty exists in determining...what are the key components of their (supervisors') jobs...and what their relationship to administrators and teachers should be.

Observations of Supervisors at Work

In order to determine the nature of supervisory work as it is done, Sullivan (1980) obtained extensive time samples of the work of system-level supervisors in a metropolitan area. Functional, chronological-content, and comparative analyses indicated that supervision differs greatly from descriptions in the educational literature.

The chief function of the supervisor within the school system was day-to-day maintenance of the system. Because this work appeared managerial in nature, it was analyzed using Mintzberg's (1973, 1975) functional categories of managerial work. Ninety-eight percent of the observed activity could be accounted for in terms of management. Most frequently, the way of accomplishing these managerial tasks was through communication.

The major portion (61%) of the supervisor's time was spent in verbal communication. Data showed that the supervisor acts as an information broker and is literally a hub of communication. It is through controlling and filtering information that the supervisor maintains the day-to-day operation of the school system.

Verbal communication was accounted for by two specific categories, formal and informal contracts, which differed in structure. The formal category consisted of meetings which were prearranged gatherings of individuals for a specified purpose. Informal contacts referred to all other incidents of oral communication.

Two-thirds of the time spent in verbal communication involved informal verbal contacts which were generally brief (69% lasted five minutes or less), face-to-face contacts with one or two individuals. Most of the contacts involved persons within the school system and were spent on internal matters.

Surprisingly, when compared to verbal communication, there was little written communication. During six weeks of observation, there were 763 verbal contacts but only 189 pieces of written communication.

If communication for the supervisor is purposeful, what patterns emerged from the data? The direction and control of communication and the quantity of time spent in communication point to the fact that the supervisor, as information broker, is a 'nerve center' as described by Mintzberg (1979). While engaging in informal verbal contacts, most of the supervisor's communication was directed to people in lateral positions within the organization. There was little communication with superordinates (9%), and only 14% of the communication was with teachers. Supervisors controlled communication by initiating 62% of all contacts and by channeling information in a way that conforms to a communication linkage model known as the wheel, which leaves the supervisor in a position of centrality.

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There are four major purposes served in this communication activity which directly related to the functions a supervisor serves: processing information, handling of resources, engaging in status-maintaining contact, and resolving conflicts.

Perceptions about Supervisory Work

These observations of the supervisor's work as communicator were supported by Fowler's (1983) study of teachers' and supervisors' perceptions of the work of supervisors as it is and as it should be done.

Fowler used Q-methdology to determine intra-individual differences among supervisors' and among teachers' perceptions of the supervisory role. Eight different unstructured Q-sorts were employed to determine how a number of traits and behaviors may be distributed by selected individuals. Forty-eight supervisors and teacher respondents from the same school population as the Sullivan (1980) study sorted 68 items related to prescriptive and descriptive work role expectations for instructional supervisors and teachers.

Fowler's primary finding was ambiguity in roles. However, she did note that 'communicate' was clearly defined as an identifying behavior across three factors for supervisors, both prescriptively and descriptively. In other words, teachers and supervisors agreed that 'communicate'

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was one of the things a supervisor should do. Further, supervisors agreed strongly among themselves that communicating was one of the things that they actually did in their work.

The Challenge for Educators

Observations and perceptions indicate that supervisors are hubs of communication. The old arguments about whether supervisors have line or staff authority appear to be mute. The power of the position comes not in the hierarchical standing within the organization, but rather through the control of information.

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As one recognizes the supervisor as communicator, philosophical and organizational questions emerge.

1. What should be the nature of the communication?
2. Will the system recognize, encourage, and reward this as desirable supervisory behavior even tough traditional supervision models do not stress it?
3. Is the ability to communicate a measurable attribute of good (or potentially good) supervisors?
4. How can the supervisors' time be used for the kind of communication that promotes effective supervision and lead to educational effectiveness?

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TO OUR READERS:

Dr. Dennis D. Gooler, Dean of the College of Education, San Diego State University, will become dean of the College of Education, Northern Illinois University, on August 1, 1984. We congratulate him on this new appointment and look forward to the opportunity of developing with him a close relationship with Thresholds in Education.

THE EXECUTIVE EDITORS

Paradise or Paradox? Supervising Volunteers in a School Setting

By Pamela J. Farris

To paraphrase Charles Dickens, "This is the best of times, this is the worst of times" for education. The public's interest in education is at its highest level in recent years. Concomitantly, massive federal and state budget cuts have forced school districts to reduce spending while trying to maintain programs and services.

Is it possible to capitalize on the public's concern and, in so doing, improve the quality of education during a period of fiscal belt tightening? Volunteerism may provide a partial solution.

An effective voluneer program can improve students' achievement and, at the same time, expand community loyalty and support for local schools.

An effective voluneer program can improve students' achievement and, at the same time, expand community loyalty and support for local schools. In a study by Mize (1977) which involved parents as tutors, children made significant gains in reading. Mize stated that,

> ...parents often remarked during post-treatment parent interviews...that their children not only liked to read and were reading more, but were also reading better.

Stearns and Peterson's (1973) study of parent involvement in compensatory education programs found positive effects of parent participation both on parents' attitudes about themselves and on children's performance. Examination of volunteer perceptions before and after participation in a school tutorial program found 78% with a more favorable opinion about the schools after being a volunteer (Cohen, 1982).

Clearly, volunteers can be a positive addition both in terms of student achievement and in their own personal development. Initiating a program staffed by volunteers requies consideration of characteristics of those who volunteer and potential implementation problems. These topics are outlined in the following paragraphs.

Characteristics of Volunteers

Traditionally volunteer-staffed organization rarely rely on financial or promotional inducements, rather instead to offer opportunities for self-fulfillments. Or as Pearce (1982) wrote,

> organizations staffed and managed by volunteers accomplish much work in our society without the 'carrots and sticks' that have ... characterized employment.

People volunteer their services for various reasons. Parents may offer their assistance because of concerns for their children, for the sense of self-fulfillment volunteering can provide, as a feeling of civic duty, or to obtain employment experience for future work. In regards to the latter, the continued reduction in employment opportunities in education as federal programs or media aids, or as teachers, finds many parents foregoing volunteerism at schools and seeking employment which provides financial reimbursement for their talents.

Senior citizens are participating in greater numbers as volunteers in schools. Like parent volunteers, senior citizens can serve as math and reading tutors, help handicapped children, or relieve teachers from such mundane tasks as collecting lunch money or supervising recess periods. Senior citizens offer a valuable source of assistance especially when considering the wide range of experiences they possess as a group.

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The majority of volunteers in schools today are women. Economic conditions in recent years have led to an increase of mothers of school age children in the labor force. In 1970, 52% of mothers of children between the ages of 6 and 17 worked outside of the home. By 1982, the percentage has risen to 66%, a 14% increase (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1982-83).

While the economic climate may reduce the pool of potential volunteers, it must be noted that volunteers are drawn disproportionately from higher social-economic statuses (Pearce, 1982). Recruits from such a level tend to be well educated as compared with those from middle and lower socio-economic statuses.

Potential Implementation Problems

"If only I had someone to help me for a little while" is heard more frequently and with increased urgency as teachers bear the brunt of limited spending. Larger class sizes with no relief in sight is enough to make even the most dedicated teachers reconsider their career choice. Enter the volunteers to rescue overworked and underpaid faculty. But how does a school initiate a volunteer program?

Implementation of any change which may affect the curriculum requires substantial preplanning to avoid unforeseen pitfalls which may exist. Common

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problems encountered in volunteer programs include 1) faculty resistance to volunteers; 2) recruitment problems; 3) high absenteeism by volunteers; 4) high dropout rates among volunteers; and 5) poor communication between volunteers and staff. Each one of these problems can potentially decimate any volunteer program. A closer examination of each follows.

Faculty resistance to volunteers. Being a conservative group, teachers as a whole do not relish changes. Despite the need for assistance, many teachers are skeptical of volunteerism. First appraisal of such a plan may be negative. In essence, the volunteers must prove both themselves and the program.

A well conceived plan which clearly outlines the goals for a volunteer program is essential for its success. A needs assessment questioning both teachers and administrators provides information as to where volunteers can best assist. Such an assessment lets staff members give input from the beginning, a reassuring approach for any curricular modifications.

A decision making committee comprised of teachers, administrators, parents, community leaders and volunteers creates a linkage which strengthens the bond to the community and conveys information from school personnel to volunteers to parents. The committee may report either directly to the Board of Education or to the school superintendent, who in turn reports to the Board of Education. All major decisions of the committee need to be approved by the Board of Education.

A program coordinator is needed to supervise the volunteers, obtain materials, and make certain things run smoothly. The program coordinator should hold discussions with teachers to set up inservice workshops for the volunteers.

Program goals established by the committee should be measurable, making evaluation possible. This provides objective criteria to substantiate the need to continue the work of the volunteers, to modify it, or to eliminate it completely. Training sessions should stress program goals plus 'paraprofessional' behavior. Each volunteer needs to learn how to specifically aid students, develop positive reinforcement techniques, and act in a manner that is expected of any member of a school staff. Upon successfully completing a training program, the award of a certificate to signify their competence to assist trained, professional educators in helping children adds credibility and dignity to the program.

Visibility in the community is crucial to the recruitment process.

Recruitment. Visibility in the community is crucial to the recruitment process. Flyers can be sent home with the students, thus informing parents. Radio public service ads offer another communicative channel for announcing the call for volunteers. Posters in local grocery stores, beauty shops, etc., also spread the word.

After names, addresses, and phone numbers have been collected, personal invitations should be sent to each prospective volunteer to announce the organizational meeting and training session. Three or four days before the orientation occurs, telephone each potential volunteer. This serves as a reminder and shows that the school values their willingness to help.

Orientation is a vital part of any volunteer program. A tour of the building, an overview of the program, expectations of the program committee, and introduction of the program coordinator are essential ingredients of a good orientation session.

High absenteeism. High absenteeism is a problem business and industry must constantly combat even with paid employees. A volunteer program is apt to have its own difficulties. Substitutes, those volunteers who live nearby and are willing to fill in on short notice, can provide some relief in case of illness or emergencies.

Failure to appear at school as scheduled for other reasons need other solutions. People volunteer in an enthusiastic spirit; the school must maintain that spirit if volunteers are to be relied on. Teachers and students must be reminded that an expression of appreciation is the only reward the volunteers receive. The tasks should be varied from time to time to avoid boredom. Identification tags for the volunteers to wear while they are in the building give a positive touch. Free coffee and snacks during breaks are welcoming signs of appreciation.

Other causes of absenteeism may include a need for babysitting services. Such services may be provided as a project of a Future Homemakers of America Club at the high school. Transportation problems can be overcome by a van donated by a local business or service organization. The program coordinator's responsibility is to minimize, if not eliminate, such problems.

High dropout rates. The song "United We Stand, Divided We Fall" could have been written about volunteer programs. The suggestions offered above to help alleviate absenteeism will also encourage individuals to continue their involvement with the program. Regularly scheduled inservice meetings every six or eight weeks help develop unity among the volunteers as well as provide an opportunity for them to further develop skills.

A recognition luncheon sponsored by the PTA or Board of Education shows appreciation on behalf of the school. Awards given in recognition of the many hours so freely donated indicate a commitment on the school's part to maintain the volunteer program. Some states, such as Florida, assist in the recognition effort by providing awards for exemplary volunteer programs (Carter & Greisforf, 1983).

Poor communication between volunteers and staff. Simple mimeographed communiques which can be quickly marked and include a space for comments can serve as a link between the classroom teacher and the volunteer. Teaching time should not greatly suffer in order for a teacher to explain the tasks which the volunteer is to complete. This is not to say that conversation should not take place. A short discussion can point out potential problems much faster than by writing notes to each other.

A volunteer program can benefit schools in terms of assisting students and teachers in

addition to improving community perceptions. Until the pendulum swings and it is once again the best of times for education, volunteers can help us survive the worst of times.

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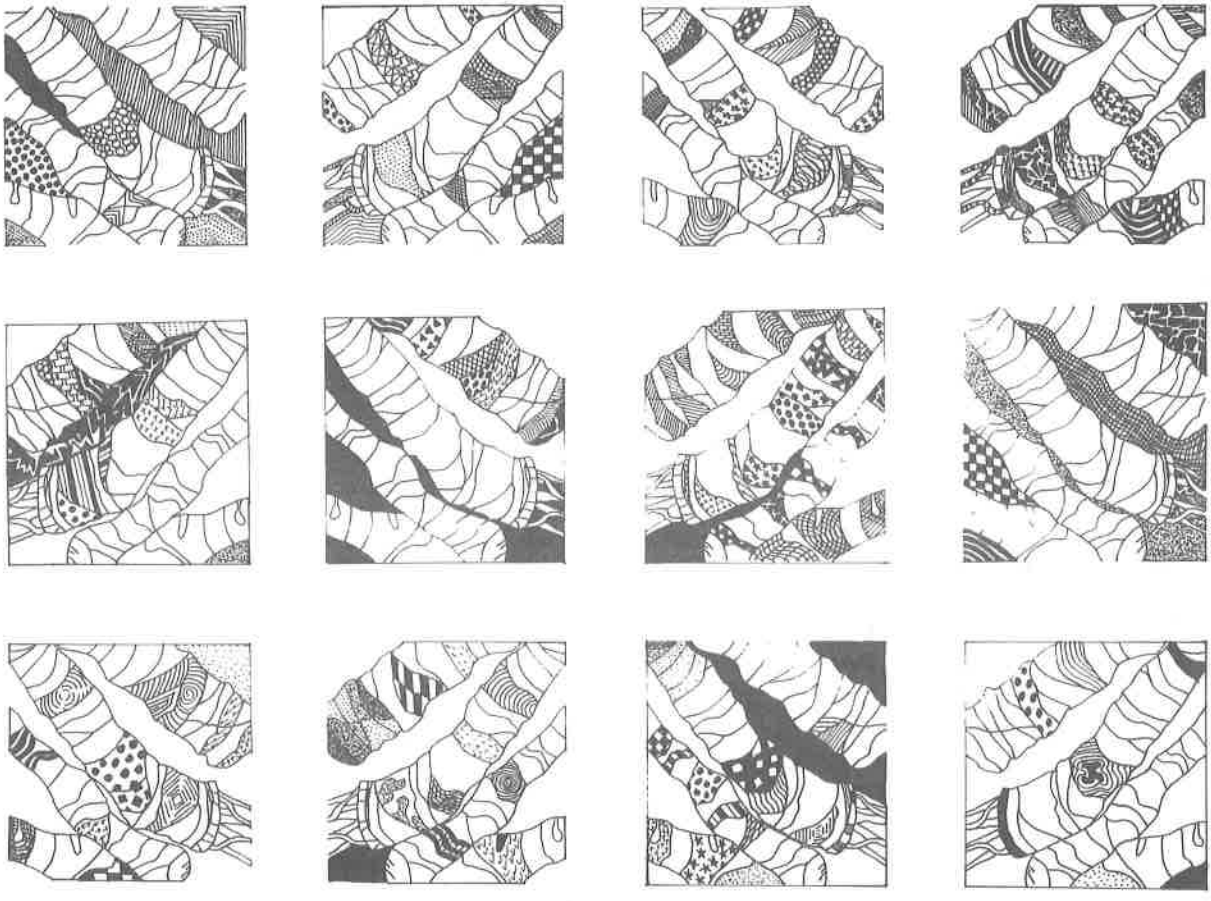

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