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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER: AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICES OF SELECTED MICHIGAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Michigan State University PH.D. 1982

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by

Eugene Louis Golanda

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER: AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICES OF SELECTED MICHIGAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

By

Eugene Louis Golanda

The purpose of this study was to determine if elementary school principals perceive themselves to be skilled in and responsible for clinical supervisory activities in their schools. Concurrently, the study also investigated the relationships of these perceptions to various situational factors related to the principalship. Data was collected using an instrument prepared by the researcher. Of the 200 principals randomly selected to participate, 103 responded.

Thirty-one hypotheses were tested using Chi-Square at the .05 level of significance. In general, the findings of the hypotheses testing revealed that:

1. Perceived clinical supervisory expertise and perceived responsibility to perform clinical supervisory activities were relatively unrelated to the following aspects of the principalship: the age of principals; the number of schools a principal administers; school enrollment; teaching experience; the number of teachers supervised; district size; tenure as a principal; and formal education;
2. Principals wish to become more skilled at clinical supervisory functions;
3. Female principals perceived themselves as accepting more

responsibility to perform clinical supervisory activities and as being more skilled in performing these functions;

4. Principals did not separate the formative from the summative aspects of supervision; and
5. Professional development programs appeared to have a positive impact on both the perceived responsibility of principals to perform clinical supervisory activities and on their perceived expertise to perform these same functions.

As a result of the findings, it was concluded that;

1. Many principals do not appear to be actively involved in the improvement of instruction in a systematic manner;
2. Many principals do not appear to be knowledgeable about their role in the teaching-learning process;
3. Many principals appear to lack effective supervisory skills and attitudes designed to improve the instructional skills of teachers;
4. Most principals desire to improve thes instructional leadership skills;
5. Professional development programs appear to possess the ability to provide principals with improved attitudes and improved skills to perform clinical supervisory functions; and
6. Female principals may be more inclined than male principals to become effective clinical supervisors.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to all the important women in my life.

Acknowledgements

Sincere appreciation and gratitude are extended to many individuals and groups for their encouragement and contributions throughout this study. Among those acknowledged are:

My wife and children for their patience and nuturing assistance;

My committee chairman, Dr. Howard Hickey, for his friendship, guidance and invaluable assistance;

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The principals of Grand Ledge for their cooperation;

The members of MEMSPA who participated in this study, who gave of their time and were willing to reveal something of themselves, and to the leadership and staff of MEMSPA for their efforts and sponsorship of this study;

And finally, to the faculty and staff of Neff Elementary School for performing so well without benefit of a principal for much of the time it took to complete this study, and especially to Janice Barcy for her patience, typing and re-typing and optimism that success would ultimately prevail.

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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER: AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY SKILLS, ATTITUDES, AND PRACTICES OF SELECTED MICHIGAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.

Introduction

"One day, Pooh Bear visited his friend Rabbit and ate so much lunch that he stuck in the exit. Christopher Robin, unable to extricate him, told him he would have to stay stuck for at least a week until he had reduced enough to get out.

Pooh Bear was of course upset at the news and said tearfully: 'Then would you read to me from a Sustaining Book, such as would help and comfort a Wedged Bear in a Great Tightness.'"

This passage from A.A. Milne's story of Winnie the Pooh bears a considerable likeness to the problems confronted by today's elementary school principals who appear to be "in a Great Tightness." Unfortunately a "Sustaining Book" may not alleviate the problem for the uncomfortable principal.

If one were to ask the question, "Who is the instructional leader of this school?" to almost any individual, it seems reasonable to expect that the answer will almost assuredly be "The principal, of course." For whether it is written in the job description of a principal or not and often it is just implicitly understood and not written, the principal of a school is assumed by most informed citizens to be the instructional leader of a school.

This expectation that the principal is a person who possesses significant power, authority, and expertise to lead the instructional process is one which has deep historical roots and is one which most adults grew up with. Even though time and circumstances have changed dramatically, people are persistent in their expectations.

In these prefacing remarks, it is important to identify and understand those factors which have made it increasingly difficult for principals to meet the role expectations held for them. Clearly principals have been expected to lead and to actively play out the role of instructional leader. This expectation had its roots in earlier times and with earlier titles such as "headmaster"; the title literally implies power-authority and expertness. One might similarily attribute to the title of principal the expectation that the office holder is the main or first and best teacher available to lead the school as it seeks to accomplish its mission.

Numerous events have occurred historically which lay cause to question the seemingly obvious. Recent studies of the principalship, reveal mountainous obstacles to this "person in charge" including increasing sizes of schools, systems, and staffs, increased professionalism of the educator, program complexity demands, diversification of control, and bifurcation of the profession. No introduction to the problem confronting the principal of the 1980's would be complete without a brief synopsis of the historical changes which the principalship has experienced in just the past fifty years.

School Size

In 1931-32 the student population at the elementary school level stood at 21,278,000; by 1980 that population had burgeoned to 46,094,000. Over this same time the number of schools to serve the larger population had actually reduced. In 1931-32 the country had 232,750 elementary schools. By 1980 that number had been reduced to a net decrease of 69% and the reduction in the number of elementary schools is continuing rapidly. In 1931-32 the country had 127,531 school districts; in 1980 the corresponding number was 16,012 resulting in a net decrease of 87%.[1]

Professionalism of the Educator

One truism that could be expressed for all professionals is that they expect to exercise independent judgement based upon their acquired specialized knowledge.

The professionalism of education had occurred on a massive scale. In 1930-31 approximately 12% of all elementary teachers were college graduates. In the 1980's it is not uncommon to find states requiring the master degree as a minimum standard for permanent certification. In a relatively short period of time we have moved from the normal school to the graduate school.

One obvious effect of this increased professionalism on the part of teachers has been to erode the traditional basis for the principal's authority. In the 1930's the principal could be rightly

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[1] Digest of Educational Statistics, Washington D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, Division of Educational Statistics: 1980 L112 A35.

viewed as the person "who knows best" by those teachers he or she supervised who were less experienced and less well trained. In the community the principal could confidently speak out as a voice for the teachers. The principal of the 1980's is surrounded by faculty members who are as well or more experienced and educated as he or she. The propensity of teachers to view the principal as the one "who knows best" has largely dissipated.

In addition, the public is now better educated. By 1980, 23.1% of all adults between the ages of 25 and 29 were college graduates. Thus, having completed college does not mean as much to the parents.

Too, today's school principal is now being confronted with an increasingly experienced and stable staff. Teacher turnover has decreased sustantially resulting in a decrease in the difference between the teacher's and the principal's experience level. This too, further erodes the principal's ability to act from a "knowing best" stance.

Program Complexity

There has occurred a rapid movement from a time period when the school population was a relatively homegrown group to a time when the school population more fully reflects the complexity of the larger society which surrounds the school. In 1930, 28.8% of all students who were seventeen graduated from high school; by 1980, 74.8%. The student body has changed remarkably. Those who were previously dropping out of school for other pursuits now were staying in school. The 1980's student group is a much more heterogeneous group than

their counterparts of the 1980's.

One of the most obvious consequences of this increased diversity are those students classified as exceptional. Special education students in 1932 numbered 164,000. By 1980 this number had skyrocketed to 4.03 million! The past decade has also seen a significant increase in the demands to do something about those exceptional students on the other end of the spectrum too; programs for the gifted and the talented students are a byproduct of this demand from the citizency. The principal of the 1980's administers programs for youngsters who were not previously served effectively by schools.

It can correctly be said that our school society has moved from a single, one-track curriculum attending to the needs of a rather homogeneous group of students, to a two-track system of the 1940's and 1950's which reflected the academic and vocational thrust of the comprehensive high school -- onward to an infinite number of tracks in the 1970's and the 1980's, represented by modular scheduling in high schools and open concepts at the elementary level and alternative schools at both levels. The awesome complexity of the curriculum and ancillary programs of the 1980's cannot be overemphasized when compared with the curriculum of earlier and simpler years.

The administrative demands for today's principal have, likewise, become increasingly complicated. A look at the staffing patterns of a 1970's elementary school emphasizes this complexity.[2] The typical

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[2]Blood, Ronald E. and James P. Miller Jr., The New Mexico Principalship Study, Part I Factors Affecting the Principalship Yesterday and Today, 31p Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, CA, April 8-12, 1979.

elementary school described here by Blood and Miller for illustrative purposes is staffed by:

1. 23.5 F.T.E. classroom teachers, grades K-6
2. 8.8 F.T.E. special teachers (library, art, P.E., music)
3. 7.5 F.T.E. instructional aides
4. 5.70 other staff including secretaries, custodians, student interns and other aides
5. 8 bus drivers
6. 3 part time cooks or kitchen helpers.

Thus, conceiving the school as being composed of only a principal and classroom teachers really is a gross oversimplification. It is not unusual in the 1980's for the regular classroom teachers of a school to be outnumbered by the ancillary staff and specialized teachers, especially if one adds those specialists provided to the schools by intermediate districts. It is in this much more complex organization setting that today's principal is called upon to administer.

Diversification of Control

The history of education in this country has been one which has honored local control. This reliance on the local, lay control of schools is unique in all the world. Most other countries place the regulatory function of education on the national government. Our history has been one of local control and lay responsibility; it was in this context in which principals traditionally operated. Initially, school superintendent were actually clerks of the local boards. Boards of education administered the schools directly. School districts were small and teachers and administrators were usually required to reside within the district. The selection process and the visability of the educators to the community tended

to insure a commonality of purpose and expectation about what was to be taught and how it was to be taught. Who was in control was clear to the educators and the citizenry. According to Ziegler, et.al.,[3] this condition prevailed until the turn of the century.

> "In Pittsburg, for example, the school system consisted of 33 sub-district boards. Each board possessed authority to levy taxes and to appoint administrators and teaching personnel. The central board, composed of one representative from each sub-district was relatively powerless. The socio-economic status of sub-district boards was roughly congruent with the status of sub-district populations."

Under the circumstances thus described it is relatively easy to understand why the control of the school was so clear and direct as viewed from the eyes of the principal. Ziegler, et.al.,[4] indicated that by the turn of the century, and clearly during the comparison period used to reflect upon today, the 1930's control of the schools had begun a giant shifting. Growing professionalism had led to an ever increased emphasis upon the use of educational experts.

> "By 1920 the norm of school board non-participation in administration had become so pervasive that superintendents would protect as encroachment lay influence which would have been customary before the turn of the century."

The rapid shift of control by experts combined with the growth of the school systems and schools led to the natural bureaucratic practice of the appointment of more experts and the increase in the number of central office personnel. The clarity of just who was in control and in charge was beginning to become blurred.

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[3] L.H.Ziegler, H.J. Tucker, and L.A. Wilson, "How School Control was Wrestled from the People" Phi Delta Kappan, March 1977, p. 535-536.

[4] ibid.

By the 1950's, changes of an equally significant nature were underway. The Brown decision of 1954 was historically symbolic of the changes still to come which would cause a further erosion in the ability of even local educators to control school practices. Covert decisions which followed magnified this fact, followed closely by the promulgation of various rules and regulations of federal agencies, all of which created their impact upon local control. The Department of HEW, later to become the seperate Department of Education, the Office of Civil Rights, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration, Public Act 94-142, and Title IX all exert direct influence on the daily operation of today's schools.

Rather than being able to look to one or two sources for guidance and direction as the principal of the early 1900's was able to do, the principal of the 1980's must now turn in all directions of the compass. According to Ziegler, et. al.,[5] school bureaucracies grew in size primarily to deal with the other bureaucracies which our society had spawned, which in turn created more "officials" who to some degree or another confiscated a thin slice of the control of the individual school.

The principal of the 1980's is faced with numerous and diverse demands from federal, state and local sources. The other personnel at the local school level are increasingly looking past the principal for direction. School custodians may look to a director of maintenance for direction; cafeteria helpers may look to a food service director; special education teachers may accept only the word of the special

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[5] ibid.

education coordinator to answer their questions; and bi-lingual teachers may shun the principal to look for their direction from their counterpart at the intermediate district or even the state level. Certified and non-certified personnel alike all pay some homage to authority from sources other than the school principal, who is expected to be "in charge."

The principal of the 1980's in comparison with the principal of the 1930's is confronted with a kaleidoscope of demands for control. Not only is his or her behavior directed by state and federal courts and an army of governmental agencies, but now he or she is also confronted with a strikingly diverse community whose formal and informal advising groups direct the principal in somewhat incompatible directions. The old and well established notion that the principal is the "person in charge" becomes less viable as actual control over the affairs of the school become ever more diverse.

Bifurcation of the Principal

In the more uncomplicated times of the 1930's,1940's and even 1950's, educators shared the same professional umbrella. This is all changed today. In 1973 school administrators left the National Educational Association. School superintendents are now viewed contemptously by many as "board men" and as a result of this occurance, principals become the men or women in the middle of the hourglass.

Numerous articles in the 1970's have focused on whether or not the place of the principal should be on the "management team." These arguments are clear evidence of the precarious no mans land of today's principal. Court case results have only served to further the severance of ties with either teachers or superintendents.

The stress of the battle for control has added still another chapter in the story of survival for the principal; increasingly principals are turning to formal organized unions themselves. As Blood and Miller[6] have point out.

> "As principals have sought to defend their status, they have attempted to form independent bargaining groups. Principals perceive that issues affecting the daily operation of their schools are being decided through negotiated contracts with teachers bargaining directly with boards or their appointed professional negotiators. Working hours, class size, grievance procedures, in-service training, and more are decided in these negotiations, while the principals stand anxiously on the sidelines usually not privy to the proceedings until they are complete. In an attempt to ameliorate this situation, the principals are attempting to organize themselves - - -."

The public and some vestiges of the profession are calling for the principal to again "take charge." It is interesting to note that in spite of all the adverse circumstances which exist, according to recent studies of the principalship[7] the position is still a final ambition for most. Could it be, however, that the "administravia" with which today's principal must cope, and the circumstances that have caused this demise from control, have resulted in a stripped down version of the once proud headmaster, who today has never

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[6] op.cit.

[7] Palaris, William and Sally Zakareija, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study: Arlington, Virginia, National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979. p.11.

acquired the necessary art, skills and knowledge of teaching let alone the ability to teach teachers? Could it be that the principal too, has become and administrator first and foremost and has forgotten his or her origin?

Limiting the Scope of the Investigation

Instructional leadership is an ideal that appears to be one of the first mentioned, most discussed, and least accomplished roles of the elementary principal. Mazzarella reported that, "No part of the principal's role is debated with morefervor than the role he or she must play in the instructional program."[8] She continues by saying, "One reason the principal's role in the instructional program is written about with so much fervor is that most principals today have almost nothing at all to do with instruction."[9]

Instructional leadership skills are those tools which the principal or supervisor uses to become involved in the improvement of instruction. They include, according to Cawelti[10]:

Curriculum development - doing needs assessments, setting goals, selecting learning activities(methods) and curriculum evaluation.

Clinical supervision - engaging in no threat planning sessions with the teachers, developing observation strategies, observing instruction, and a post-observation analysis of the teaching-learning

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[8]Mazzarella, JoAnn, "The Principal's Role in Instructional Planning" NAESP, School Leadership Digest, No. 8 (Washington, D.C.; National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1976) p.7.

[9]loc.cit., p.17.

[10]Cawelti, Gordon, "Focusing Instructional Leadership on Improved Student Achievement" 11 page Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators (112th, Aneheim, California, February 15-18, 1980).

process. Various kinds of systematic classroom observation systems may be utilized.

Staff development -- must be based on what we know about how adults learn and on both perceived needs of teachers and goals of the school and district.

Teacher evaluation -- both "formative" and "summative" evaluations must occur, but not necessarily simultaneously. Formative evaluation refers to those attempts by a principal or supervisor to improve instructional skills of teachers; summative evaluation is the evaluation that occurs in a judgemental and administrative vein.

Focus of This Study

While all aspects of a principal's role in the improvement of instruction is important to study, it is unrealistic to attempt to achieve this purpose in one research paper. Thus, this research will focus on the elementary principal as a clinical supervisor while also considering the relationship of the principal to staff development and formative teacher evaluation as they are related to a principal's involvement in clinical supervision of teachers. The extent to which a principal is involved in the improvement of curriculum, with staff development issues not related to classroom teaching improvement, and the role played by the principal in the summative evaluation of teachers, as well as the numerous other administrative roles which are usually descriptive of a principal's total job description or job expectation will not be included for attention within the scope of this investigation except in those instances where information related

to these topics will bear upon the primary focus.

Specifically, this research will attempt to provide some answers to the following questions: Is clinical supervision, formative staff evaluation, and corresponding staff development practices occurring in Michigan elementary schools? Does the formal or informal training of an elementary principal dictate a relationship between the use of clinical supervision and other types of supervision? Does the size of the school in terms of student enrollment, the number of teachers to be supervised, the sex, age, teaching experience, tenure in position, number of schools to administer, extra teaching or administrative responsibilities, or perceptions of autonomy bear any significance to the role the elementary school principal performs or would ideally wish to perform in regards to the improvement of instruction? Does a principal's sense of efficacy significantly relate to instructional leadership activities or attitudes? Do principals really feel qualified to assist teachers in the acquisition of teaching skills that will produce better results for students? What obstacles, real or imagined, do principals experience that are impediments to their becoming more directly and effectively involved in the classroom teaching-learning process?

Statement of the Problem

The problem to be investigated involves the possible lack of clinical evaluation or formative supervisory activities which may occur in Michigan elementary schools, which in turn would reflect negatively on the role of the elementary school principal as an

instructional leader. This study is designed to investigate the perceptions of elementary school principals regarding clinical supervision activities and to compare these perceptions to other selected characteristics of the principalship. The factors to be measured in this study are to be obtained by means of the Instructional Leadership Questionnaire (ILQ) which was developed by the researcher.

Statement of the Purpose

The researcher's purpose in this study is to determine if principals of elementary schools perceive themselves to be skilled in and responsible for clinical supervisory activities and to discover to what extent elementary school principals desire to improve these supervisory skills. Concurrently, it was also deemed important that an assessment be made of how various situational factors of the principalship possibly affect upon these perceptions.

Specific Objectives of this Study

The objective of this study is to collect empirical data which will be useful in understanding the perceived involvement in and attitudes towards selected instructional leadership activities by Michigan elementary school principals. The specific objectives of this study are to assess Michigan elementary school principals':

1. Perceived clinical supervisory practices and attitudes,
2. Perceived sense of efficacy as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities,

3. Perceived sense of authority as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities,

4. Age and sex factors as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities,

5. Administrative responsibility as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities.

6. Formal and informal educational backgrounds in supervision as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities,

7. Professional experience as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise, and practices in selected supervisory activities,

8. Perceived supervisory role as related to their perceived attitudes, expertise and practices in selected supervisory activities.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been formulated as a result of an extensive review of the literature and also to fully investigate the specific objectives of this study; these hypotheses may be found in their testable formation in Chapter II.

H_1 Perceived actual expertise will be significantly lower than perceived ideal expertise scores in clinical supervision activities, singly and collectively.

H_2 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_3 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_4 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_5 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_6 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_7 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_8 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between school enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_9 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{10} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{11} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical responsibility assumed.

H_{12} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teacher supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{13} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical responsibility assumed.

H_{14} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{15} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory assumed.

H_{16} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{17} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{18} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{19} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{20} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{21} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{22} The number of formal teacher evaluations required will equal the number of formative teacher evaluations performed.

H_{23} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{24} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect on perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{25} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{26} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{27} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{28} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship Between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{29} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{30} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{31} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{32} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{33} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived use of the clinical supervision model and perceived clinical supervision expertise.

H_{34} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived use of the clinical supervision model and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{35} There will be a significant, direct and positive relationship between perceived clinical supervisory expertise and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made when designing the proposed study:

1. It is assumed that the perceptions of elementary principals can be accurately measured.
2. The instrument developed to obtain the data required for this research is assumed to be adequate for this purpose.
3. It is assumed that the participants will accurately express their true feelings about the situation being examined.
4. It is assumed that the information given by the respondents will be factual and accurate.
5. It is assumed that the sample will be representative of elementary principals in Michigan, appropriately selected, and adequate to permit conclusions and inferences for the population from which it is drawn.

Construction of the Questionnaire

A three part questionnaire consisting of eighty-one items, utilizing twenty-one independent variables and twenty dependent variables, was drafted to gather the desired information that will answer the questions posed by the statement of the problem.

Individual questions were developed after an extensive reviewing of textbooks on supervision and survey forms of recent studies reflecting on the elementary school principalship and especially those seeking information relative to perspectives of instructional leadership by elementary school principals. Questions were developed also from the researcher's personal interest.

The instrument contains four types of questions; questions of (1) fact, (2) information, (3) self-perception, and (4) opinion. Emphasis was placed on structured questions that presented the respondents with fixed response items worded to induce single choice, objective answers; forced choice questions also facilitate data handling.

Concerns regarding the clarity and validity of the questionnaire were assessed throughout the formulation stages of the instrument. Counsel and a review of the total instrument procedure was obtained from the Office of Research Consultation at Michigan State University. In addition, a nationally recognized authority in educational research, Dr. Herbert Rudman, evaluated the clarity, organization, and content of the procedural plan and survey form. Face validity was obtained using advice from Mr. Cliff Nelson and Mrs. Carol Cummings, nationally recognized experts in clinical supervision.

A copy of the survey instrument will be found in the appendix along with a letter from Cliff Nelson.

Pilot Study

A pilot study to determine the reliability of the questionnaire was conducted during the month of October, 1981. Fifteen principals from Region 8 of the MEMSPA were asked to test the instrument on two separate occasions, with two weeks of separation between the administration of the tests. Ten principals actually completed both phases of the testing. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to determine the reliability of the instrument. The questionnaire demonstrated a reliability coefficient of .96 on the portion of the instrument measuring perceived expertise. The perceived responsibility section demonstrated o reliability coefficient of .92.

The questionnaire was deemed to be quite reliable for use in this study.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study are limited by the necessity to use a questionnaire in obtaining the necessary data. The questionnaire presents potential obstacles to the internal validity of the study. For example, it is difficult to establish a precise measure of the reliability and validity of the questionnaire due to the non-returns. In addition, even though every assurance of anonymity was given, some respondents may have felt threatened by having to provide responses that could be construed by them as being critical of themselves, their schools, or their districts.

Variables this study does not explore or expect to have no bearing on the outcome include but are not limited to:

The role of the teacher,
The role of the superintendent,
The size of the district,
The socio-economic level of the school,
The variability of study background,
The self-concept of students,
Student attitudes towards the educational process,
Teacher attitudes toward the educational process,
Teachers sense of efficacy,
Pupil-teacher ratios,
Community interest in the school,
Adult educational level,
Total expenditure or per-pupil expenditure,
Preparation of teachers,
Salaries of teachers and administrators,
School climate.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is intended to analyze the work attitudes and opinions of elementary school principals in the State of Michigan. The study is confined to a sample of the membership of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association for the 1980-81 school year. It is further delimited to only elementary principals from this organization.

MEMSPA is a voluntary group that does contain in membership the majority of the estimated 1800 Michigan elementary principalships. Detroit public school principals, however, are known to hold few memberships in MEMSPA. Due to this fact, the reader should exercise caution when drawing study conclusions about all elementary school principals in the state. The inferences from the study should be

made only with regards to the principals who comprised the population from which the sample is drawn, although the investigator considers the MEMSPA elementary school principals to be generally representative of the typical elementary school principal in Michigan.

Immediately the question is asked, "Why exclude principals from the City of Detroit?" If the purpose of the study is to examine the instructional leadership practices of the elementary principal, then Detroit elementary school principals should be omitted because as a group, "that is not one of the roles of the principal in that system. The role of the instructional leader is delegated to an assistant principal or director of curriculum."[11]

The responses on the questionnaire are used only for comparison purposes of the group as a whole. No values judgement of the responses as being either bad or good is intended.

Other limitations include:

1. The data used in this study is to be collected from Michigan elementary school principals. Therefore, specific findings will be limited to this population.

2. Data obtained from this study are applicable to Michigan and possibly other areas or states in the United States. However, if an attempt is made to generalize and extend the findings of this geographical area to other areas without considering similarities in situation, a limitation will be present.

3. This study is limited by the nature of the forced choice questionnaire.

4. The degree of cooperativeness of the Michigan elementary school principals constitutes a limitation.

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[11]Nordstrom, Patricia A., The Elementary School Principal as an Instructional Leader, Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1978, p.44

Significance of the Study

To the extent that schools do make a difference in what and how much children learn, it can safely be argued that the direct teaching process, that which happens between the teacher and the student, is perhaps the most critical aspect of this process. Kenneth Erickson, in his introduction to a study of classroom supervision summed up the plight of the classroom teacher in this manner:

> "The act of teaching normally is a private activity in that it usually consists of one teacher within the walls of one classroom. Operating out of view of their peers, teachers tend to be denied access to feedback which could help them develop into the skilled professionals they wish to be. As a result, each teacher's style usually develops without benefit of objective data which could facilitate better decisions about teaching."[12]

It is important to discover the extent to which elementary principals have begun to use the tools of clinical supervision, which is the only supervisory technique this researcher has found that has shown significant effectiveness in helping to change the habits of teachers.

A brief explanation of clinical supervision is necessary. The clinical supervision cycle as advocated by Cogan,[13] Goldhammer,[14] and others is based on the belief that instruction can be improved best by giving direct feedback to a teacher on aspects of teaching

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[12]Hull, Ray and John Hansen, Classroom Supervision and Informed Analysis of Behavior: A Manual for Supervision (Eugene, Oregon; University of Oregon, 1970) ED 071161.

[13]Cogan, Morris, Clinical Supervision, (Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1973).

[14]Goldhammer, Robert, Clinical Supervision (New York; Holt, Rinehart and Sinston, 1969).

that are of concern to the teacher rather than items on rating scales or items that are primarily the concern of the principal or supervisor.

This cycle begins with a pre-observation conference during which the teacher and principal establish rapport (or perhaps re-establish rapport), plan the lesson, orient themselves about the students that will be involved, and plan what methods of observation will be utilized.

The next step in their process results when the lessons or segment of instruction is observed in the agreed upon manner. The observer often will write down verbatim as much of the classroom dialogue as possible, or other mechanical means to record the interaction may be used including video tape, tape recorder, or systems such as Flanders Interaction analysis.

Following the actual observation of instruction, the supervisor then analyses the events that occurred from the data, usually during this phase of the process the supervisor works alone without the teacher's assistance. The observer then, after this review of the data, decides on and plans strategies for presenting this information to the teacher.

The post-observational conference then occurs between teacher and principal. It is during this conference that a careful analysis is made of what occurred. This analysis, most generally is a joint effort which includes not only an explanation of what occurred, but why certain actions or reactions on the part of the teacher or students

ensued. This analysis then leads to the linking pin last phase of the clinical supervision cycle.

The critique or post-conference analysis session involves a critical analysis of what could have been done or could be done to improve the instructional techniques. This is where staff development, either for a single teacher or a whole staff, would occur. This is usually followed, perhaps at the same meeting, by renewed planning or even a full pre-observation conference which would hopefully result in efforts to improve upon what has previously occurred in the classroom setting.

Some have argued that classrooms in schools are soon to be replaced by more scientifically rational modes of instruction. But such claims have been made for several decades, at least, but the classroom has been a remarkable persistent way of organizing teaching and learning in schools. Moreover, alternatives to the classroom have seldom demonstrated their superiority and often fade back into conventional classroom forms within a relatively short time. The classroom as a center of learning appears ideally suited to the institutional purposes and demands of common schooling and does not appear to be fading out of existence.

The role of the elementary principal as an instructional leader has been "cussed" and discussed by many. It is important that research discover by what means principals exercise instructional leadership, and perhaps even more significantly, if they do so at all, at least where it could make a difference.

In addition, this study should be of significant value to many other individuals and groups:

1. It could assist departments of higher education in developing curriculum for supervisors of teachers;

2. The results should be useful as feedback for principals and supervisors; it should enable them to compare their practices with the standards discovered to exist;

3. The results could provide information of value to boards of education and for superintendents who supervise principals;

4. The results of the study could prove valuable to other agencies and groups concerned with the work of supervision such as the Michigan Department of Education and the Michigan Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Definition of Terms

The following specific meanings are used for clarification of certain technical terms used in this study. Whenever possible, definitions were obtained from the Dictionary of Educational Terms.[15] Other definitions specifically used for terms of this study were defined by the researcher after consultation and a review of the literature.

Elementary School -- Any public school which is organized to include any combination of a majority of grades between kindergarten and grade six or between pre-kindergarten to grade six.

Certified Teacher -- Any person possessing a valid teaching certificate who is engaged in the teaching of elementary students within a school.

Classroom Teacher -- Any certificated teacher who plans and

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[15]Good, Carter V. Dictionary of Education, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1959).

guides the development of the learning experiences of pupils in classroom situations and is responsible for the activities and conduct of pupils in class situations.

Instructional Leadership -- The set of acts or behaviors designed to guide and direct teachers to the formulation and performance of a desired proficiency of instruction.

Elementary Principal -- An administrative and supervisory officer charged by a local board of education for the administration of an elementary school; usually limited to a single school or attendance area; may or may not engage in teaching.

School Climate -- The organizational "personality" of a school; figuratively, "personality" is to the individual what "climate" is to the school.

Supervision -- The process of assisting professional teachers improve the content, processes, and outcomes of their work.

Teacher Evaluation -- An estimate of measure of the quality of a person's teaching based on one or more criteria such as pupil achievement, pupil adjustment, pupil behavior, and the judgements of school officials, parents, pupils, other teachers or the teacher personally.

Teacher Change -- Any change in a teacher's thinking, understanding, or professional behavior.

Clinical Supervision -- Person-to-person supervision focused upon the improvement of the classroom performance of a teacher by way of observation, analysis and treatment of that performance.

General Supervision -- All activities of a supervisory nature inclusive of but not limited to in-service programming, developing and implementing curricula, orientation programs for new teachers, improving student-teacher relations, and teacher evaluation.

Summative Evaluations -- Formal evaluations of teachers used for the purpose of continuing or discontinuing a teacher's tenure, granting tenure to a teacher or for use as a means to formally comment a teacher or award merit pay.

Formative Evaluation -- An informal evaluation used solely as a means to improve teaching performance and promote teacher change.

Sense of Efficacy -- The extent to which a principal believes that the school under his/her influence can make a difference in what children learn.

School Autonomy -- The extent to which a principal can make decisions; administrative, financial or institutional, which affect that school.

Perceived Present Expertise -- Each respondent's perception of the degree to which he or she is actually involved in the performance of listed instructional leadership behaviors.

Perceived Ideal Expertise -- Each respondent's perceptions of the degree to which he or she should be involved in the performance of the listed instructional leadership behaviors.

ILQ -- The instrument used by each surveyed elementary principal to provide background information, describe the actual perceptions of and ideal perceptions for aspects of their instructional leadership role.

Pre-Observation Conference - A meeting between the teacher and the supervisor during which the supervisor obtains information relative to the instruction that is to be observed by the supervisor.

Observation - The actual process by which a supervisor analyses the classroom performance of a teacher.

Post-Observation Conference - The meeting between teacher and supervisor that occurs after the supervisor has conducted an observation of the teacher's classroom performance.

MEMSPA - The Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association, formerly known as the Michigan Association of Elementary School Principals.

Administration of the Questionnaire

In November, 1981, questionnaires (ILQs) were mailed to two hundred acting elementary school principals holding membership in MEMSPA; these two hundred principals were randomly selected. A cover letter appealing to self-interest and altruism was included with each questionnaire, signed by Dr. Howard Hickey, the sponsoring professor of the researcher, Mr. William Mays, executive secretary of MEMSPA and the researcher. (See Appendix) A stamped self-addressed return envelope was included for the respondents' convenience.

A deadline of November 30, 1981 was established for the return date. A planned follow-up letter was not deemed to be necessary due to an adequate initial response.

For the purposes of this investigation, the useable responses

from the surveyed population, 100 or more returns was considered administratively effective to achieve the purposes of this study.

Statistical Procedures

The Chi Square Test of Statistical significance was elected to test the hypothesis of this study. Chi Square was chosen due to the relatively large sample and because it offers through cross tabulations an effective means of describing the results. Chi Square will determine whether significant systematic relationships exist between independent and dependent variables. Cramer's V measures the strength of the relationship between variables.

Significance was tested at the .05 level.

Organization of the Study

Chapter II consists of a selected review of the literature and of research on issues considered relevant to this study.

Chapter III describes the procedures used in the study including descriptions of (1) the population, (2) the data collection and instrumentation, and (3) the means that were used to analyze the data.

Chapter IV presents the results of the findings of the data analysis including the tests of hypotheses.

In Chapter V the study is summarized and the conclusions and recommendations derived from the findings are given.

CHAPTER II

A SELECTED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Foreward

Although the elementary principal as an instructional leader has been extensively discussed in professional journals, books, and at conferences and has been the subject of numerous research studies by scholars, few studies or articles have concentrated on the role of the principal in helping to directly improve the teaching-learning process. The literature indicates that some educators appear uncertain of the legitimacy and implications of the principal performing instructional leadership activities. The majority of authors seem to share the belief that it is imperative that the elementary principal assume the role of instructional leader. However, there appears to be a growing minority that believe there are too many roadblocks to overcome for the principal to assume this role in any other but a figurehood manner.

This chapter reviews professional literature describing the role of the principal as an instructional leader. Section A looks into the question of school effects on learning with particular emphasis on the principals' involvement in the production of these effects. Section B delves into the process of instructional improvement with emphasis on the role principals can or do assume in the formative development of teachers. Then, in Section C, an effort will be made to review the background of a supervisory process called clinical supervision; this

analysis seems especially appropriate since clinical supervisory methods appear to be the only documented means appearing in research that have a direct and positive impact on teacher development and student learning. The final segment, Section D, will look at various research studies and other materials related to the content of this study.

Section A

The Effects of School on Learning and The Principal's Impact on School Effects

The last decade and one-half has seen a revolution in thinking about the effectiveness of schools. During the euphoric era of the early 1960's it was commonly believed that through efforts such as Head Start and Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 schools could accomplish the great social change.

In 1966 James Coleman[16] shattered this nation's faith in schools by stating that home background was the major correlate of student achievement and when this was controlled; schools had little effect. And Crisis in the Classroom by Silberman[17] concluded:

> "It might indeed be concluded from widely publicized reports that the schools are pathological institutions and that neither educators nor research workers know how to cure their problems and increase their productivity."

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[16]Coleman, James S., et.al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1966).

[17]Silberman, Charles E., Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970).

Christopher Jenks[18] stated that luck is the most important determinant of educational and occupational attainment and improvements in schools can not and do not increase the educational and social mobility of the poor. Stevens[19] revealed that learning is spontaneous and that maturational forces within the individual cause learning regardless of variations in the learning environment. Nichols reported that the prestigious Rand Study implied that "if all schools are equally effective but are not equally expensive the prudent man might reach a fairly obvious conclusion."[20] The evidence appeared to be convincing that in the United States the differences in intelligence and in school achievement were determined largely by events outside the controls of schools.

Then strong new evidence appeared which began to chip away at the dismal reports of the earlier researchers. This new information said that school effects may or may not be large relative to the effects of other factors, but they are not unimportant, uninteresting or of little value.

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[18]Jenks, Christopher et.al., Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America (New York: Basic Books, 1972).

[19]Stevens, John M., The Process of Schooling: A Psychological Examination (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967).

[20]Nichols, Robert C., School Effects on Achievement (Paper presented as part of a symposium, Searching for School Effects Through Conventional Multivariate Analysis and Through the Study of School Outliers: American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, San Francisco, California, April 22, 1976).

Wahlberg, et.al.[21] revealed that their research showed that mastery learning demonstrated results consistently superior to conventional instruction on achievement, retention and attitudes. Also they found that programmed instructional materials had consistently produced more favorable results in producing higher achievement than did traditional classrooms. They found in addition that radio, television and computor assisted instruction was about equally as effective as that found in normal classrooms.

These authors attempted also to look at teacher characteristics and practices that seemed to make a difference in learning and concluded that,

> "These results indicated that achievement is enhanced under teachers who are clear about their expectations, goals and methods for learning; who are flexible in their responses to students; who show enthusiasm for the lesson and for student learning; who are businesslike and task oriented; who use student ideas in leading the lesson; who attempt to elicit answers to questions by students rather than tell the answers; who use structuring comments that inform the student of the purpose and organization of the lesson content; and who avoid excessive criticism."[22]

Nichols[23] reported that a large New York Study revealed that teachers' experience, age, education and salary were all related to achievement after input controls at a high level of significance. This flies in the face of those who say that nothing but background of students matters in learning.

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[21]Wahlberg, Herbert J., et. al., "The Quiet Revolution in Educational Research" Phi Delta Kappan, 61:3, November, 1979, p. 179-183.

[22]ibid

[23]op.cit.

Perhaps Benjamin Bloom did more for education than will be appreciated during his lifetime. After providing education with the invaluable tool, the Toxonomy of Educational Objectives [24] he followed this up with a Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning[25] and then produced Human Characteristics and School Learning[26] in which one discovers something Bloom refers to as "Learning for Mastery." According to Bloom, administrators are effective to the extent that they help to achieve the primary goal of the school which is learning on the part of the pupils. Any other indicators such as economic efficiency, morale, etc., are at best only indirect indicators of goal achievement. At worst he believes the efforts to achieve these secondary goals as though they were primary can lead one in the wrong directions. The rationale for "Learning for Mastery" is based upon five learning variables which are:

1. Aptitude for particular kinds of learning
2. Quality of instruction
3. Ability to understand instruction
4. Perserverance
5. Time allowed for learning

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[24]Bloom, Benjamin S., Toxonomy of Educational Objectives, (New York, Longman, 1956).

[25]Bloom, Benjamin S., J. Thomas Hastings and George F. Madaus, Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning, (New York, McGraw-Hill Inc., 1971).

[26]Bloom, Benjamin S., Human Characteristics and School Learning (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1976).

According to Bloom, any strategy for learning must include some way of focusing on these five variables. He bluntly states that 95% of all students can learn the basic skills asked for by our school, and in doing so challenges the normal curve for learning.

In another major study, Marcus, et.al.[27] found that successful elementary schools were significantly different from other schools in the following dimensions:

1. The extent to which teachers participate in policy decisions,
2. The amount and kind of instructional supervision and guidance provided to teachers, including the extent to which teachers accurately perceive the principals instructional norms,
3. The extent to which the long range objectives of the school are shared by teachers and administrators,
4. The amount of instructional support provided to teachers,
5. The amount of teacher satisfaction.

Marcus, et. al., also found that leadership in schools tended to be related to achievement. They found four significant attributes of effective leadership for better schools:

1. Administrators in better schools assumed more responsibility for policy decisions,
2. Administrators emphasized the importance of selecting basic instructional materials,
3. Administrators assumed more responsibility for the selection of basic instructional materials; and

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[27]Marcus, Alfred C., et.al., Administrative Leadership From a Sample of Successful Schools From the National Evaluation of the Emergency School Act. (Santa Monica, California: System Development Corp., April 1976) p. 37.

4. Administrators effectively communicated a point of view concerning teaching practices. "We suggest this points to a particular style of administrative leadership in successful schools. Administrators who advance in educational philosophy in concrete terms, who succeed in communicating this view and whose concern and energy focus sharply on instruction are those who are more likely to manage successful schools."[28]

In an article in the National Elementary Principal, Alan Newberry, a Superintendent of schools in Canada, revealed that the results of studies he reviewed showed that certain characteristics of principals were totally unrelated to better schools, they were factors of dress, academic preparation, sex, marital status, and length of administrative experience.[29]

Newberry also reported that certain personal characteristics of principals were significantly related to better education and he specifically mentioned six: intelligence, group skills, scholarship, mature judgement, good health, and personal security. Newberry revealed several such professional skills related to success as a principal: human relations skills, communication skills, administrative technical skills, decision making skills, research skills, curriculum development skills and change strategy skills. This description of skills, however, was not well enough defined as to provide practical assistance to those wishing to acquire superior educational leaders for schools.

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[28] loc.cit. p. 15.

[29] Newberry, Alan J.H., "What Not to Look for in an Elementary School Principal", National Elementary Principal, 56:04 March/April 1977, p. 241-44. p. 42.

Jane Goldstein[30] investigated certain teaching behaviors that might be related to student achievement and discovered that:

1. Teachers with authoritarian management behavior were significantly and negatively related to student behavior.

2. Teachers who exercised effective group process skills as a management technique had a direct and significantly positive relationship to students on task behavior.

3. Teachers with a permissive management style were significantly related in a negative manner to student on task behavior.

David Berliner and William Tikunoff[31] explicitly stated ten effective teaching practices and six ineffective practices that were significantly related to student learning in reading and mathematics.

Effective Teacher Behaviors

1. Teacher reacts constructively (overt, verbal, nonverbal) to student's feelings and attitudes.

2. Teacher listens actively to what a student is saying, reading reciting.

3. Teacher gives a direction or a threat and follow through with it.

4. Teacher seems confident in teaching a given subject and demonstrates a grasp of it.

5. Teacher checks on students progress regularly and adjusts instruction accordingly.

6. Teacher expresses positive, pleasant, optimistic attitudes and feelings.

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[30]Goldstein, Jane M., Managerial Behavior of Elementary School Teachers and Students on Task Behavior, Unpublished Ed.C. Dissertation, University of Houston, 1978, 153p.

[31]Berliner, David and William Tikunoff, "The California Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study: Overview of the Ethnographic Study", Journal of Teacher Education 27 (1976) p. 24-30.

7. Teacher seems to perceive learning rate of students and adjusts teacher pace accordingly.

8. Teacher encourages students to take responsibility for their own classwork.

9. Teacher capitalizes instructionally on unexpected incidents that arise during class time.

10. Teacher prepares students for lesson by reviewing, outlining, explaining objectives, and summarizing.

Ineffective Teacher Behaviors

1. Teacher switches abruptly, e.g. from instruction to classroom management.

2. Teacher berates child in front of others.

3. Teacher fills "empty" time periods with "busywork."

4. Teacher makes a statement whose consequences would be ridiculous if carried out.

5. Teacher often treats whole group as "one" in order to maintain peer control.

6. Teacher calls attention to self for no apparent instructional purpose.

In a look at how traditional methods of teacher evaluations relate to improving student achievement, Medley[32] indicated that there was little, if any, relationship between ratings of teacher's effectiveness and measures of pupil gains.

Kounin[33] identified four interrelated clusters of management

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[32]Medley, Donald M., "Closing the Gap Between Research in Teacher Effectiveness and the Teacher Education Curriculum" Journal of Research and Development in Education, 7 (Fall 1973) p. 39-46.

[33]Kounin, J.S., Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms, (New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1970).

strategies that seem especially tuned to environmental demands of classrooms:

1. "Withitness or awareness of classroom events, and communication of this awareness to students,
2. Overlap, or the ability to handle two or more events at the same time,
3. Group focus, or the ability to involve as many students as possible in each activity,
4. Movement management, or the ability to provide pace, variety and smooth transition between activities.

Kounin found that teachers who use these strategies tended to have higher levels of work involvement among students, which in turn was related very closely with educational product.

Speaking at a national convention for superintendents and other administrators, Gordon Cawelti[34] stated that appropriate leader behavior enhances student achievement. He referred to empirical studies which should, he believes, compel close attention to staff development activity and university training programs.

According to Cawelti, appropriate leader behavior (mixing concern for goals and people) which uses the existing process skills of instructional improvement (curriculum planning, clinical supervision, staff development, teacher evaluation) must focus on the characteristics of effective teaching if improved achievement is to result.

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[34]Cawelti, Gordon, Focusing Instructional Leadership on Improved Student Achievement 11 p. paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators (112th Anaheim, California February 15-18, 1980).

Cawelti states that today's instructional leader must possess skills in four areas which are process skills -- these are the tools the principal must use to become involved in instructional improvement.

> Curriculum Development -- Doing needs assessments, setting goals, selecting content and learning activities (methods) and curriculum evaluation. Knowledge of change strategies including effective group participating and long-range planning skills are essential.
>
> Clinical Supervision -- Engaging in a no-threat planning session with the teachers, developing an observational strategy, observing instruction, and coordinating a post-observational analysis of the teaching-learning process.
>
> Staff Development -- It must be based on what is known about how adults learn and on both perceived needs of teachers and goals of the leader
>
> Teacher Evaluation -- Most People contend that the primary purpose of teacher evaluation must be for improvement rather than termination, and that is as it should be in most instances. Good teacher evaluation procedures should focus on the characteristics of effective teaching that are drawn from research and experience and minimize attention to long lists of factors unrelated to success in the classroom.
>
> "The evidence on how much time principals spend on their process skills now is grim -- very typically in the area of 10 to 20% of the total working hours. Better time management is essential and central office administrators must develop a committment to help reduce the paperwork and "administrivia" which deters principals from providing instructional leadership."[35] (Note that the question of number of persons supervised is not even discussed.)

Young [36] indicates that after the initial inservice sessions, there must be follow-up experiences affording teachers the opportunity

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[35] Cawelti, loc, cit. p. 12.

[36] Young, Betty S., "Principals Can Be Promoters of Teaching Effectiveness." Thrust for Educational Leadership (March, 1980) p. 11-12.

for feedback on their teaching and coaching for improvement.

This author urges use of the TIME Model:

T -- Theory -- base training session on some tested theory or conceptualization that is of proved merit -- avoid cookbook approaches.

I -- Instruction and Interaction -- give trainees plenty of time to discuss, raise questions, critique and share experiences.

M -- Modeling -- show the trainee the behavior being sought, use live classes, real people, and video tape or films.

E -- Enactment -- compels the trainee to actually do the kind of teaching, supervision, evaluation, etc., you are trying to teach them.

In recent years several researchers have concentrated their efforts on helping teachers find ways to improve the basic skills of their students. Teacher effectiveness research focuses on individual teacher characteristics in examining the relationship of their characteristics to varying levels of student achievement. The "effects of schooling" research looks at the classroom or school as the focal point in making a difference in student achievement. And finally some very useful research is now emerging from studies of the psychology of learning.

Following is a compilation by Cawelti of those characteristics of teachers, classroom and schools which most consistently appear to have a close relationship to effective teaching or high achieving schools:

1. Teachers have high expectations of students,

2. There is more frequent monitoring of student progress, and teachers actually assure student attention by using techniques to assure all students respond to questioning.

3. Teachers are able to routinize classroom management tasks; they have a "businesslike" or task-oriented behavior but are not repressive.

4. Students spend adequate time on task in basic skill instruction and provision is made for corrective instruction.

5. Students have the opportunity to learn criterion materials; they are taught that material upon which they are to be tested.

6. There is an appropriate level of difficulty of materials; if it is too difficult, teachers must spend too much time explaining.

7. There is a strong instructional leader in the building who is supportive of teachers and responsive to their needs.

8. There is a favorable climate for learning with teachers using praise in moderation and holding a positive regard for students and the principal; efforts are made to establish favorable attitudes towards the subject.[37]

These are all factors under the control of the school. There are of course other factors that appear to influence achievement positively, but they are not under the direct influence of the school. Included would be class size, parent participation, early childhood education, and of course, socio economic status. However, the eight factors listed have had the most consistent research support to date in regards to those things over which the school can exert some control.

A critical issue which immediately arises is whether or not these characteristics are amenable to improvement. According to Kerman,[38]

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[37]Cawelti, op.cit., p. 11.

[38]Kerman, Sam, "Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement", Phi Delta Kappan, 60 (June 1979) p. 716-718.

Brophy and Evertson[39] teachers can be trained or retrained to improve classroom skills. This research is important in that it shows that simply being aware of these characteristics of good teachers and schools is not enough -- it is only a start. Clinical supervision and professional development are equally as important.

Cawelti describes effective leaders as those who most consistently are able to apply the right mix of concern for goals and people -- "They know when one or the other kind of behavior, or both, is needed."[40]

Perhaps the most important of the many important points made by Cawelti is that the weight of evidence points heavily to the fact that instructional improvement is a function of the school building level and cannot be accomplished at the system level or individual level.

The ideas of Cawelti are shared almost completely by Fiedler,[41] Hersey, and Blanchard.[42]

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[39]Brophy, Jere E. and Carolyn Evertson, "Process-Product Correlation in the Texas Teacher Effectiveness Study: Final Report" Austin Texas: University of Texas, 1974.

[40]Cawelti, Gordon, op.cit., p. 3.

[41]Fielder, Fred, A Theory of Leader Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967).

[42]Hersey, Paul and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Third Edition. (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977).

"Although the principal relies on teachers to teach a program and draws on consultants for special needs, it is the principal who must make programs work." says Sandra Scofield.[43]

Across a number of studies in this decade that looked at successful schools and compared them to the less successful, a composite picture has emerged that is worth considering. The elements that seem to make a difference follow:

1. Heading successful programs are STRONG PRINCIPALS: leaders with clear points of view about schooling and instruction; leaders with strong commitments to reading and high expectations of staffs.

2. HIGH EXPECTATIONS of children mark success. Even in inter-city schools teachers who avoided pessimistic views of children and who conveyed optimism and firm expectations of achievement get achievement.

3. In schools where children achieved STAFF MORALE was generally high. Teachers and principals saw themselves as involved in a common mission and functioned as a team.

4. Successful schools were ORDERLY without being repressive.

It is becoming possible to describe at least some characteristics of effective teachers of basic skills -- perhaps not without reservation, but well enough to suggest guidelines and provoke discussion.

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[43]Scofield, Sandra "Principals Make a Difference: The Role They Play in Quality Reading Programs" OSSC Bulletin, Vol. 22, No. 10, 1979.

The more effective teacher (1) spends more time instructing students; (2) uses behavior management techniques effectively; (3) uses overt, active responses and provides ample feedback on responses; (4) moves from prompted to unprompted learning, moving children to independent practice only when they have achieved minimal mastery of a skill; (5) expects mastery with rate as well as accuracy as a criterion; and (6) is very well organized.

Mastery learning is related to the effective teacher studies described above in at least two aspects: (1) it assumes that all children will be taught to criterion rather than leaving some behind and (2) it assumes that all children should master basic skills and therefore must be given sufficient instruction to do so.

Among the musts for a principal in accomplishing the goal of a successful school, the principal is a SUPERVISOR in the classroom; as primary supervisor in the building, the principal is aware of the activities of all support personnel such as consultants, remedial teachers, aides, and the like. It is the responsibility of the principal to assure continuity and consistency.

Drawing on knowledge of effective practices the principal as supervisor, can focus classroom observations on desired behaviors. Detailed positive discussion of specific skills can pay off in better teaching.

Good principals observe the following:

1. Is the teacher using the program? If not, if the teacher has varied the plan, the principal needs to know and agree with the reason.

2. Is the objective of each segment of the lesson clear? The teacher should be able to articulate the objective and explain or demonstrate that materials have been organized to correlate with the objective. She/he should also convey clearly to the students the objectives of the task they are about.

3. Are transitions from objective to objective and from group to group smooth and orderly?

4. Is the teacher enthusiastic? Responsive? Does she/he move at a good pace? Does she/he provide feedback that is focused on a specific skill or process?

5. Does seatwork reinforce skills previously taught? Have skills been sufficiently practiced under direct supervision? Are there arrangements for checking seatwork and for getting feedback? Are there options for children who finish early?

6. Are supplementary materials available? Does anyone <u>choose</u> to read? Is there a chance in the day to talk about reading? Does the teacher ever read to the children?

Donald Burns concluded that

> "teachers in high achieving districts feel that their morale or social expectations are being more satisfied and they have a better sense of accomplishment than teachers in low achieving districts. One can clude that the principals of the low

> achieving districts operate more on the basis of rules or policies and tend to avoid the face-to-face situations, while at the same time providing closer supervision and are less sensitive to staff feelings and attitudes than principals of the high achieving districts."[44]

In looking at the factors related to teachers Burns found that teachers of high achieving districts were:

1. more considerate of pupils,
2. had three years of teaching experience (five or more was found to be not important),
3. had less turnover,
4. lived in the district,
5. attitudes towards students, school and community was better,
6. job satisfaction was better.

Looking at the principals, Burns concluded that pupils in high achieving districts had principals who liked their jobs.

Factors related to students in high achieving districts:

1. their educational aspirations and expectations were higher,
2. father's occupational status was higher,
3. attitudes toward school and education were better,
4. feelings about themselves and school were better,
5. their vocabulary was greater.

In the low achieving districts students didn't feel that their teachers liked them or helped them learn, and that their teachers had a poor attitude toward them, the school and the community

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[44]Burns, Donald W., "An Investigation of Selected Factors That May Influence Pupil Achievement in Michigan Schools" (Unpublished Ph.D, Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1972).

The only factor related to the schools in high achieving districts was the organization climate.

The only factor involving school finance which seemed to be different between high and low achieving districts was the tax support shown for operation and bonding programs.

As early as 1963 Keeler and Andrews found that leader behavior of principals was significantly related to test achievement of students. They stated:

> "All of the statistics give strong support to the hypothesis that leader behavior of the principal as perceived by his staff, was significantly related to the productivity of the schools . . . The weight of evidence supported the hypothesis that the morale of the staff of a school . . . was related to productivity!"[45]

Supporting this theme was Heichberger and Young[46] who reported that in this survey of teachers in selected rural and suburban New York elementary schools, 75 percent of the teachers said that the most effective way a supervisor could improve instruction in the schools involved working with faculty to solve instructional problems and to improve instructional skills.

Articles in the NAESP Communicator in 1979 and 1980 contain information that again speaks to the relationship of the principal's leadership in producing positive school effects. Schools really can make a difference in the achievement levels of students. And the key factor in making good

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[45]Keeler, B.T. and J.H.M. Andrews, "The Leader Behavior of Principals, Staff Morale and Productivity" Alberta Journal of Research, 9' (3) (September 1963).

[46]Heichberger, Robert L. and James M. Young, Jr., "Teacher Perceptions of Principals, Staff Morale and Productivity" Phi Delta Kappan 57 (November 1975) 210.

schools work is the "Principal Principle." This article cited a conclusive study carried out by the editor of Education U.S.A. "In each case, strong administrative leadership from the principal was determined to be a major factor in the student's success."[47]

What do successful principals do? According to this source, "Principals of effective schools are strong instructional leaders who know how to manage time and people effectively."[48] They talked of principals who delegate authority and concentrate their time on priority goals associated with improving instruction. Secondly, effective schools establish the acquisition of basic skills as their main goal. Third, in effective schools, principals have high expectations for all students; they communicate their expectations to students, teachers and parents and enlist their support to achieve these ideals. And finally, effective principals have a clear sense of purpose.

In an earlier article of the NAESP Communicator the editor stated "There are some bad schools with good principals, but there are no good schools with bad principals. A good principal is a necessary but not sufficient condition for a successful school."[49] The editor goes on

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[47] NAESP Communicator, Vol. III, No. 6, Nov. 13, 1979.

[48] NAESP Communicator, Vol IV, No. 15, April 15, 1980.

[49] NAESP Communicator, Vol. IV. No. 15, April 15, 1981.

to describe the operating style of the effective principal:

> "Successful principals do not try to administer their schools from the office. You can't be an instructional leader if you don't systematically visit classes and respond to what you see during those visits. Furthermore, successful principals have a commitment to educating all the children in their school -- and hold staff members responsible for seeing that all students are given a chance to succeed."[50]

In an interesting study by James and Larry Reynolds an extensive look is given to a principal's willingness to get involved in such educational innovations as curriculum or instructional improvement the These authors say:

> "An administrator's perception of his power to innovate is conditioned by the anticipated reaction of higher levels of authority. There is always the danger that his decision will be vetoed at a higher level. Because his future power is determined by his present successes and failures, innovation will seldom be proposed when the administrator anticipates rejection by a superordinate. To do so is to jeopordize his status and future power. The extent to which this influences the behavior of an individual may be related to his risk taking. Some men are more willing to gamble than others."[51]

Goetz in a study of 203 elementary schools in 74 Michigan school districts, examined the relationship between thirteen situational and personal variables relating to the elementary principal and building innovation. He found that the principal's administrative experience in the present building correlated negatively (-.35) with innovation in instruction. Total administrative experience as a principal was also found to be negatively correlated (-.29) with innovation. Both findings

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[50] ibid.

[51] Reynolds, James A. and Larry J. Reynolds, Innovation Related to the Tenure Succession Pattern and Reference Group Orientation of the Principal, Final Report (Washington, D.C.: Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory, Office of Education (DHEW) 1967 175 pp.

were significant at the .01 level.[52]

Carlson [53] said that there is a different expectation held for persons hired from outside the system than for those hired from within the system. The insider, he says, is hired with the understanding that he will keep things as they are, while the outsider may be expected to make changes.

In a 1981 article in Phi Delta Kappan, Edward Wynne expressed his findings in this manner:

> "In good schools the staff -- especially the supervisors -- and even the students and parents evolved a clear idea of what constitutes good performance. Without this, people cannot know what is expected of them, nor can they act in a coherent fashion. In some schools these common concepts of good performance evolved through a tacit, intuitive process. Interestingly, the good schools were small, had highly stable staffs, or were staffed by members of religious order (who had undergone an elaborate socialization process). They all understood that a good teacher 'cares', even more important, they knew that caring is displayed in observable conduct, e.g., regular and timely attendance, well organized lesson plans, reasonably orderly classes, routinely assigned and appropriately graded homework, friendly but authoritative relations with students, purposeful use of class time, and supportive relations with colleagues."[54]

The author emphasized the absolute need for an excellent principal in order to allow these conditions to occur.

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[52]Goetz, Francis R., Innovation and the Public Elementary School Principal (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Wayne State University, 1965).

[53]Carlson, Richard L., "Barriers to Change in Public Schools" Change Processes in the Public Schools (Eugene, Oregon: The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1965).

[54]Wynne, Edward A., "Looking at Good Schools" Phi Delta Kappan,62:5 (January, 1981) pp. 337-81.

Wiggins[55] looked at how the school affected the principal's behavior. He found that often a school has ". . . the presence of a compelling school climate stability which has the effect of socializing the principal's behavior . . . Climates did not change when principals were replaced." However, Wiggins found that the principal's behavior was likely to become significantly related to the climate of the school as the length of his tenure increased.

N. L. Gage has engaged in research on school effects for several years. He has written numerous articles on his findings -- one of which appeared in the November 1978 issue of Phi Delta Kappan. In this article, Gage revealed seven "teacher-should" practices that he says refer to ways of teaching that are "relatively specific and objectively observable." Furthermore, he states, these "teacher-should statements seem consistent with the conclusions of Rosenshine, Medley and others."

1. Teachers should have a system of rules that allows pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check with the teacher.

2. Teachers should move around the room a lot, monitoring pupil's seatwork and communicating to their pupils an awareness of their behavior, while also attending to their academic needs.

3. When pupils work independently, teacher should insure that the assignments are interesting and worthwhile, yet easy enough to be completed by each student working without teacher direction.

4. Teachers should keep to a minimum such activities as giving directions and organizing the class for instruction.

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[55]Wiggins, Thomas W., "A Comparative Investigation of Principal Behavior and School Climate", The Journal of Educational Research 66 (3), (November 1972) pp. 103-05.

5. In selecting pupils to respond to questions, teachers should call on a child by name before asking the question, as a means of insuring that all pupils are given an equal number of opportunities to answer questions.

6. With less academically oriented pupils, teachers should always aim at getting the child to give some kind of response to a question. Rephrasing, giving cues, or asking for new questions can be useful techniques for bringing forth some answers from a previously silent pupil or one who says "I don't know" or answers incorrectly.

7. During reading group instruction teachers should give a maximal amount of brief feedback and provide fast paced activities of the "drill" type.[56]

McLaughlin and March analyzed in great detail the Rand Study which was a large, expensive, four year, two phase study of federally funded programs. This study is often referred to as the Change Agent Study. The first phase of this study addressed those factors affecting the initiation and implementation of local "change agent" projects. The second phase of the study examined the institutional and project factors that influenced the continuation of innovations after the special funding was terminated.

In the first phase of the study, 293 local projects were surveyed, and field work was conducted in 24 school districts. The second phase of the study involved a survey of 100 projects in twenty states and fieldwork in thirteen school districts.

The results of this study have been widely reported and analyzed. McLaughlin and Marsh concentrated their attention on staff development and its implications for education.

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[56]Gage, N. L., "The Yield of Research on Teaching", Phi Delta Kappan 60:3 (November 1978) pp. 229-35.

Among their many findings, McLaughlin and Marsh determined that:

1. The commitment of teachers to a change is vital,

2. Staff training was instrumental and vital to positive student outcomes,

3. Skill, specific training of staff had a limited effect on student learning which ended or greatly diminished soon after a project was ended. Skill, specific instruction was defined as instruction given to staff on how to carry out a new reading program, for example. It was what is regarded as a typical staff development program. This approach did improve the performance of student's test results, but only in the short run.

   McLaughlin and Marsh stated that, "Skill - specific training activities only have transient effect because, by themselves, they do not support staff learning and teacher change. The training which teachers received under the group training methods enabled teachers to implement the new programs, but they did not necessarily constitute teacher assimilation of the new techniques and procedures. "Thus, when the support of the funded project operation were removed, teachers discontinued using the practices that apparently enhanced student performance because they had never really learned them in the first place."

4. In contrast to staff training or skill-specific training, staff support activities, which involved actual classroom assistance and evaluation, had strong positive and direct effects on the longer term project outcomes.

   The authors described it in this way: "Training is essentially an information transfer -- providing teachers with necessary techniques. But, as the first phase of this study found, the process of implemention is a process of mutual adaptation in which teachers modify their practices to conform to project requirements and

project technologies, are adapted to the day-to-day realities of the school and classroom. Staff support activities, in particular classroom assistance from resource personnel and project meetings, can provide the feedback project staff need to make these modifications. Through these support activities, skill -- specifice training can be "individualized" for project teacher in terms of timing and content modification."

5. The utilization of "on-line" assistance was of tremendous importance to teachers in assimilating the changes in their teaching necessary for the project, but this was true only when the teachers involved deemed this assistance to be helpful. "Numerous visits to the classroom by district or project staff were counter-productive when teachers did not feel they were being helped. This assistance actually interferred with project implementation."

6. It was better for projects to use no outside consultants than to use poor ones -- "and much better than to use poor ones often." Good consultants helped teachers by providing concrete practical advise -- actually showing them how to adapt project methods or materials to their own situations. "Good consultants assisted teachers in learning how to solve problems for themselves, rather then by solving problems for them. Ineffective consultants, on the other hand, often furnished advise that was too abstract to be useful. Many of these "poor consultants" were viewed by the project teachers as being unwilling or unable to deal with young children themselves. "Many were good philosophically, but not practically, in the day-to-day approach and follow-up."

7. The more specific the goal or objective was to the teachers involved, the higher the percentage of goals achieved, the greater the student achievement results, and the greater the continuation of usage of the methods and materials after the project ended. Most particularly of importance in regard to goal specificity was the conceptual clarity of the goals, or "the extent to which project staff are clear about what they are to do and understand the rationale underlying project activities." This conceptual clarity, it was found, "must be achieved during the process of project implementation -- it cannot be'given' to staff at the outset.

8. Teacher imputs can significantly improve the implementation

of a project. Teachers are in a much better position than anyone else to identify and recommend feasible solutions to problems that arise. When teachers had an opportunity to make decisions about the projects in which they were involved, the implemented project was improved, and, in addition, staff clarity was enhanced. The very fact that teachers were asked for their advise brought about a sense of ownership.

9. The attitude of the building principal was vital to the success of projects. This was particularly true in terms of whether or not a program was maintained after a hoopla was over. Principals also played a key role in the original implementation of a project.

10. The organizational climate of a school was a definite factor in the acceptance or non-acceptance of a project's goals, and in the continuation of the project's goals after the project ending date. Good working relationships among teachers "enhanced implementation and promoted continuation of project methods and materials." The quality of a school's organization climate -- whether teachers felt their school was a good school to work in, had espirit de corps, was efficient, and was managed effectively by the principal -- very definitely influenced the outcomes of the project goals.[57]

In looking at important tasks of teaching that make consistent differences in what and how much children learn, Medley and Crook[58] reported they found five distinguishable teacher tasks that displayed such consistency:

1. Maintaining pupils task involvement,

2. Teaching in large groups,

3. Minimizing disruptive pupil behavior,

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[57]McLaughlin, Milbrey W. and David D. Marsh, "Staff Development and School Change" Teachers College Record, Vol. 80, no. 1, September 1978, p. 69-93.

[58]Medley, Donald M. and Patricia R. Crook, "Research in Teacher Competency and Teaching Tasks", Theory Into Practice.

4. Supervising pupil seatwork,

5. Managing small group activity.

Medley and Crook strongly concluded that the evaluation of teaching performance should be based on success in performing tasks of teaching rather than on competencies displayed or stated in another way, teaching should be judged on the behavior of the pupils rather than on that of the teacher.

David Berliner has been involved in the study of school effects for over a decade. He has uncovered some impressive findings related to effective teaching and learning. Here are a few of his major conclusions:

1. There is a positive relationship between allocated time and achievement. Not every study shows it but in general, the relationship between allocated time in an academic content area and achievement in that content area is positive and substantial.

2. A good number of empirical studies have been done which consistently established and reestablish a substantial relationship between engaged time -- the time a student will attend to the instructional materials or activities in an instructional situation and academic learning.

3. For younger students in general, and for students with generally lower ability, a high level of success appears to be a very important variable in learning. In the opposite direction, it can also be said that materials and activities that yield a low success rate for students are consistently and negatively correlated with achievement.

4. Academic Learning Time (ALT) or engaged time with materials or activities that produce a high success rate that are related to the outcome measures is persuasively connected with student achievement.

5. Opportunity to learn, combined with curriculum congruency and content coverage are directly and positively related to achievement. When students are given the opportunity to learn what is being tested and the material is adequately covered is total, high student achievement results are obtained.

6. All of these trends can be brought together under a characteristic which Berliner refers to as "direct instruction." This attribute is characterized by a traditional classroom type approach to learning incorporating a high degree of academic orientation, teacher led, not "open" or "humanistic", where instructional time and time on task and student involvement is high. "Direct instruction appears to be one of the most powerful predictors of student achievement."[59]

Rosenshine found that the following teaching characteristics were related to student achievement.

1. Classroom time is structured by the teacher.

2. Teacher devotes classroom time to reading and mathematics instruction by means of textbooks, academic workbooks, and verbal instruction.

3. Teacher assigns seatwork involving academic workbooks through which students work at their own pace.

4. Teacher organizes students into small groups and supervises their work.

5. Teacher directs activities without giving students choice of activities or reasons for the selection of activities.

6. Teacher asks direct questions that have only a single answer.

7. Teacher encourages students to attempt to answer questions even when they don't know the answer.

8. Teacher immediately reinforces students on the accuracy of their answers.

9. Teacher asks a new question after student has given a correct answer.

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[59]Berliner, David C., "Using Research on Teaching for the Improvement of Classroom Practice" Theory Into Practice.

10. Teacher gives the correct answer after a student has given an incorrect answer.[60]

N. L. Gage[61] found these school effects to be significently important:

- Teachers should have a system of rules that allow pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check with the teacher.

- Teachers should move around the room a lot, monitoring pupil's seatwork and communicating to their pupils an awareness of their behavior, while also attending to their academic needs.

- Teachers should keep to a minimum such activities as giving directions and organizing the class for instruction. Teachers can do this by writing the daily schedule on the board, insuring that pupils know where to go, what to do, etc.

- In selecting pupils to respond to questions, teachers should call on a child by name before asking the question as a means of insuring that all pupils are given an equal number of opportunities to answer questions.

- With less academically oriented pupils, teachers should always

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[60]Rosenshine, Barak "Classroom Instruction" in The Psychology of Teaching Methods: The Seventy Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1976) pp. 335-71.

[61]Gage, N. L. The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching (New York: Teacher's College Press, 1979(p. 39.

aim at getting the child to give some kind of response to a question. Rephrasing, giving cues, or asking a new question can be useful techniques for bringing forth some answer from a previously silent pupil or one who says "I don't know" or answers incorrectly.

- During reading group instruction, teachers should give a maximal amount of brief feedback and provide fast-paced activities of the "drill" type.

Summary of School Effects Research

While it is impossible to overlook the importance of a student's background in the consideration of academic achievement, it appears likewise foolish to overlook the overwhelming evidence that schools and what occurs in them also bear heavily on what and how much children learn, regardless of their aptitudes, home environment and socio-economic situations.

In simple terms, the school effects research seem to condense down to includethe following:

1. Individual schools differ widely in their academic success after the elimination of student background factors.
2. The largest single unit for the effective utilization of improvement techniques appears to be the single school -- preferably a small school.
3. Teaching techniques and materials appear to be strongly correlated with student achievement.
4. The principal of a school is a key individual in the determination of student achievement and school success.

Section B

The Evaluative Role of Principals in Instructional Improvement

Many educators doubt principals have much impact on the academic achievement of students. When one takes into account the portion of achievement which can be explained by such factors as cultural, societal, social, and home background, the relative effect of school principals may, indeed, appear to be insignificant. But schools provide the environment in which students with different characteristics, backgrounds and motivation are formally taught academic skills. As the administrative leader of schools, "principals have a tremendous influence on the human environment within schools and therefore on the achievement of students."[62]

There is a considerable evidence regarding the significant influence the management system of an enterprise has on the effectiveness of that enterprise as a whole.

> "In particular, the rate of effective application of new knowledge in the management system is characteristic of the rate of effective application of new knowledge within that system as a whole. Educational management can be viewed as an important causal factor in the improvement or lack of improvement in education."[63]

The need to reduce the disparity between the level of performance of practicing school leaders and the expectations held for their

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[62]Matthews, Kenneth M. "The Principal and Student Achievement" Georgia Principal, 12:2 (Winter, 1976) pp. 29-38.

[63]Klepak, Daniel, Director, School Factors Influencing Reading Achievement (Albany, New York: Office of Education Performance and Review 1974).

positions is crucial. Over the past two decades there has been much activity to develop remedies to improve the conditions of education. The years have brought forth massive federal efforts, substantial foundation grants, and increased spending on the state and local levels. "In our massive thrust toward educational improvement however, it is a sobering fact that the educational leader himself has been the most neglected."[64]

Recent studies suggest that important differences in pupil learning can occur between schools with nearly identical facilities, staff and socioeconomic class of student enrollments. Differences found by these studies were primarily attributable to the leader behavior of the principal and his or her staff. As Miller[65] points out, this relationship is now supported both by theory and research. Improving skills of the principal may have a significant payoff in improved student performance. Miller notes that modeling by the principal is a powerful tool that places the administrator in an excellent position to influence teacher behavior, and through this the leader can affect pupil achievement.

As will be pointed out, there is widespread expectation, with few dissenters within the educational world, that principals should and

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[64]Barrilleaux, Louis E., John Schermerhorn, Jr., and J. Stevens Welsh The Research Action Content: An Intervention Strategy in Educational Management Development, 34 p. paper presented at the annual meeting of The American Educational Research Ass'n (60th Washington D.C., March 31 - April 4, 1975).

[65]Miller, William C., "Can a Principal's Improved Behavior Result in Higher Pupil Achievement?" Educational Leadership, 33 (February 1976) pp. 336-38.

do provide instructional leadership. The continuing growth of teachers is a central area of concern for the supervising principal. The role of the principal as instructional leader would appear to be enhanced in those schools in which instructional decisions are made at the building level. Mazzarella[66] suggests this as an important development which could occur as, and if, decentralization of schools occur. Purkerson[67] also calls for more personnel at the building rather in the central office to improve instruction. And as Paul Houts has written, "Autonomy, with its accompanying responsibility is often a superb catalyst for dynamic leadership."[68]

If principals are to improve instruction then they must assist teachers in improving their teaching, and this is an extremely complex process.

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[66]Mazzarella, Joann, "The Principal's Role in Instructional Planning" NAESP School Leadership Digest, 2nd Series, No. 8,1976.

[67]Purkerson, Ray, "Wasted Days and Wasted Nights: Role Perceptions of Principals" NAESP Bulletin 61 (December, 1977) pp. 26-29

[68]Houts, Paul L., "The Changing Role of the Elementary School Principal" National Elementary Principal 55 (November - December 1975) p. 68.

> "Such work entails complex intellectual tasks of diagnosis; interpretations and decision making which must be accomplished quickly and publicly. While teaching involves confronting uncertain practical problems, teachers typically have little time, or no place, in which to reflect about their decisions. The workday is an intense, continuous flow in which the teacher is constantly on stage. Teaching, clearly, is stressful work."[69]

> "Teaching is, after all, a craft; it involves interacting in a direct, hands on way with the feelings, minds, expectations and knowings of living human personalities. But unlike other crafts -- painters or woodcarvers -- for example -- who receive visible feedback on the consequences of each movement of their brushes or knives -- teachers rarely see immediately the consequences of their comments, questions, or gestures. Even in the aggregate, effects of teacher acts are rarely discernible by way of the low inference observations conventional in scientific endeavors. The work of teaching consequently is highly intuitive. Teachers are obligated to cultivate sound professional judgement -- the ability to act upon decisions with minimal information and entailing ambigious consequences."[70]

Teachers probably have a powerful motive for personal adequacy and for the enhancement of the self that psychologists say is the underlying motive for all behavior.[71] Teaching presents such frequent challenges to teachers that unless they were strongly motivated, they would not strive for the competency, personal and professional strength vital for a teacher's survival. Perhaps more than any other occupational group, teachers are in a position to recognize that all persons have a need

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[69]Zechman, Harry T., "Are Principals Competent in the Instructional Leadership Domain" NAESP Bulletin, 61 (December 1977) pp. 21-25.

[70]Sanders, Donald P. and Marion Schwab, "A School Context for Teacher Development" Theory Into Practice 16:4 (December 1979) pp. 271-771

[71]Sanders, et. al. loc. cit. p. 272.

for personal mastery and coping ability. Although many teachers do "retreat into indifference and detachment"[72] the reason can be linked as much to the way schools are organized as to any inadequacies of teachers.

However, while such efforts as teachers might muster to improve their performance could affect their individual classrooms, this development is likely to have very little influence on the total performance of a school.

> "If a given teacher's development affects only the teaching done in a cellular classroom, it probably will have little influence on the overall learning of even that class. The proportion of the total school experience those students undergo in that single room is relatively small; the impact of the institutional arrangements, of the ethos of the school, and of the other teachers is considerably greater."[73]

The development of improved teaching skills for an entire staff is a more complicated and demanding task than that required to assist one teacher to improve, but the group effort is more likely to result in significant and lasting improvement in the school's operation.[74] The attitude, ability, and energy of the administrative and educational leader of the school as a unit, thus, is vital to this expectation of change. In order for the change to begin in a school the principal must believe that he or she has the responsibility to facilitate the

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[72]Combs, Arthur, et.al., Perceptual Psychology (New York: Harper and Row, 1976).

[73]Janowitz, Morris, Institution Building in Urban Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969(.

[74]Sanders, et. al., ibid.

development of the teachers. The authority of a principal is a necessary requisite for this improvement in instruction, but as Markowitz points out, such authority is two-pronged:

> "Supervisors daily face the dilemma of authority. As middle management personnel, they have two committments: (a) to the achievement and survival concerns of educational organizations and (b) to human concerns that revolve around the feelings, worth, and independence of human beings."[75]

Although teachers evaluation is not the only approach which principals may utilize in the improvement of instruction, curriculum reform, educational technology, and the development of "teacher proof" materials all have the same goal, "the best way to improve instruction is to improve teaching, and the only way to improve teaching is to change teacher behavior."[76] The question which now, importantly, must be raised is "Do teachers need to have their skills improved?"

The answer to this question is obvious, since all behavior can be improved in one dimension or another. More importantly, however, teachers themselves see the overwhelming need for improvement. In a study reported by Dols, 213 experienced teachers were asked if they were teaching as well as they knew how, and <u>all</u> admitted that they were not.[77] In another article, Zelenak revealed that teachers want

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[75]Markowitz, Shirley, "The Dilemma of Authority in Supervisory Behavior" <u>Educational Leadership</u> 33 (February 1976) pp. 367-72, p. 367.

[76]Medley, Donald M., "A Process Approach to Teacher Evaluation" National Elementary Principal 52 (February 1973) pp. 33-35, p. 34.

[77]Dols, Richard A., <u>Principal: Teacher of Teachers</u> 7 page paper presented at the NASSP Convention (Atlantic City, New Jersey, March 1-6, 1974) p.s.

to be evaluated, but they approve of evaluation directed at the improvement of their skills and not evaluations of their ability wherein they must fear for their positions.[78]

It is very important to concentrate attention now on the object of evaluations. Universally, it seems, the purpose of evaluation is given to be the improvement of instruction. This in turn should result in improved student behavior. However, it is important that educators desiring the final outcome, improved student behavior, cannot focus their attention on tests and student behavior. As Combs suggests, teachers cannot be held accountable for the behavior of students any more than anyone else.[79]

> "Teachers can be held accountable for being informed on subject matter. They can be held accountable for being concerned about the welfare of students and knowledgable about their behavior. They can be held responsible for an understanding of human behavior, particularly behavior of their students. Teachers can be held responsible for the purposes that they try to carry out and to be aware of purposes. Finally, teachers can be held responsible for the methods that they use in carrying out their own and society's purposes. Teachers do not have to be able to guarantee outcomes; rather they must defend what they are doing in a professional sense."[80]

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[78]Zelenak, Mel J. and Bill C. Snider, "Teachers Don't Resist Evaluation - If It's for the Improvement of Instruction" Phi Delta Kappan 55 (April 1974).

[79]Combs, Arthur, Educational Accountability: Beyond Behavior Objectives (Washington D.C. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972).

[80]House, Ernest R., "Beyond Accountability" Professional Supervision for Professional Teachers, ed. Thomas J. Sergiovanni (Washington, D.C. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975) p. 76.

It is important to remember, however, as one views the teacher's responsibilities for instruction, that if the teachers fail to measure up to their responsibilities, it is the administrative leader who bears the final responsibility for the learning, or lack of it that occurs in his or her school.

If improvement of instruction is to be the main purpose of the evaluative function, who then should be involved in the process of attempting to accomplish this purpose? While various views are held regarding the answer to this important question, it is perhaps a moot question in that in most situations the building principal is delegated the sole responsibility for the effort.

> "Primary responsibility for formally evaluating individual classroom teachers in the school districts is undertaken by principals in 92.5 percent of the elementary schools. One-third of the school districts 'require teachers to evaluate themselves'; other school districts suggest it to teachers as an option and encourage them to share the results with the principal"[81]

Seventeen percent of the elementary schools in the responding districts require student evaluation of classroom teachers as part of the formal recorded evaluation. Many other school districts suggest or even require that students evaluate teachers but the results are for the sole use of the teacher and do not become part of the teacher's

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[81] Evaluating Teacher Performance (Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1978).

personnel file. "Peer evaluation of classroom teachers takes place in 3.2 percent of the elementary schools. Parents participate in teacher evaluation in 0.6 percent of the responding school districts."[82]

According to one study, there may be a trend developing toward using peers (the evaluation of one teacher by another) in the evaluation process. According to NSPRA, teachers are receptive to the idea of being evaluated by a peer, not only because they feel fellow teachers will be more sympathetic, but because they believe that a fellow teacher is more competent to judge what transpires in a classroom than an administrator or supervisor who is less familiar with the classroom. Among the cited drawbacks of peer evaluation are the following:

1. Administrators would have to find time and money to release teachers from their own classrooms to appraise fellow teachers;
2. Administrators would have to train teachers in appraisal skills and
3. Some teachers are reluctant to judge their fellow teachers.[83]

Although it might seem at first glance that an outside supervisor, with sole responsibility for formative evaluation might appear to be able to do a superior job of teacher evaluation, particularly if the supervisor has the necessary background and supervisory skills. And if

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[82] Evaluating Teachers for Professional Growth: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs (Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1974) 64 pp. p. 10.

[83] Evaluating Teachers Performance op. cit. p. 3.

the role the supervisor accepts does not co-mingle the summative with the formative functions, rarely does this position exist. The reasons for the failure to utilize this concept may lie with the additional costs that are involved, or they may be philosophical in nature.[84]

Thus, in general, either by design or fiat, elementary principals are primarily and solely responsible for both the formative and summative evaluations of teachers. What means does the principal use in this evaluation process? How do teachers feel about the process? What roadblocks do principals face that stand in the way of their performing this role satisfactorily and what means must be taken by principals to overcome these obstacles?

Jones sees the current method of teacher evaluation as . . . an ongoing tradition having little relationship to instructional improvement. He further suggests that neither the administrators who are doing the evaluating nor the teachers who are being evaluated give much credence to the current system of evaluation, which he claims is suited only to build evidence of poor teaching and is not used as an instrument to improve instruction.[85] McNeil makes implicit in his discussion of teacher evaluation and improvement the contention that the present evaluative procedures are for the most part objectionable to principals

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[84] Evaluating Teachers Performance op. cit. p. 3.

[85] Jones, Anthony S., "A Realistic Approach to Teacher Evaluation" The Clearing House 46 (1972) pp. 474-491, p. 474.

and teachers alike.[86] An inspection of teacher evaluation systems completed by the National Association Research Division in 1963, 1968, and 1971 revealed that the usual approach to teacher evaluation is for the building principal to periodically, although seldom regularly, fill out a check list type form on which he or she indicates the degree to which a teacher possesses the characteristics and skills listed on the form.

According to Weisenstein,[87] the principal is still the best choice to evaluate teachers, formatively and summatively, when consideration is given to what they have to work with. Wayson indicated that the principal will, in almost every school, play a key role for developing that organization to achieve its goals. The strategies the principal must utilize include:

> 1. The principal must have a program or he must appear to have a program. The aura of "knowing what he is doing" is invaluable for building personal security and is essential for infusing security and direction into an organization. It gains necessary confidence from staff supervisors and constituents.

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[86] McNeil, John D., Toward Accountable Teachers, Their Appraisal and Improvement (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1971) p. 47.

[87] Weisenstein, Greg T., "Teacher Evaluation: The Principals Role: OSSC Bulletin 20:3 (November, 1976) 28 pp. p. 8.

2. The principal must protect his teachers from the constraints that now prevent them becoming the teachers who can function in the school. He enables them to experiment and to utilize failure constructively. He protects them from other school personnel who claim to have superior traits. In fact, the principal will be more highly taxed to protect his staff from forces within the school system than from without.

3. The principal serves his staff as a resource gatherer. He has to develop his own lines and sources of supply. He cannot wait for the system to move at its own pace, particularly in districts which are incredibly slow and stingy. He is able to develop rewards for the types of behaviors required in the school.

4. Above all, the principal is the truly educational organization is a risk taker. He cannot fear for his job or his personal security. He does not look for permission to educate or for the methodology to do so. He unabashedly presents the school's problems to staff, superiors and citizens. He does not quail before the public nor collapse for the first critic. The principal will have to weigh and redirect criticisms and suggestions, interpreting objectively and resisting the temptation to act precipitantly. He must know -- through knowledge and intuition -- when not to act.[88]

While it is important for one to learn how principals should ideally perform, it is equally as important to view their usual performance. Young explains that the usual teacher evaluation system works something like this:

> "Once or twice a year the supervisor visit the teacher's class, completes a lengthly check list (containing many items which are superficial and irrelevant), calls a short conference at which he presents his evaluation for a signature (after which it will be filed) and turns to the teacher to ask if he has any questions."[89]

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[88]Wayson, William W., Schools for Educating Responsible Citizens for 2000 A.D. (March 1977) ED130421

[89]Young, David B., Effective Supervising Conferences: Strategies for Modifying Teacher Behavior, 23 p. paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Chicago, Illinois, 1969, p.3.

Young calls for a new model in which the following activities take place:

1. The principal observes and codes the teaching performance.
2. The principal provides feedback to the teacher.
3. Together they analyze the teaching behavior, patterns and strategies.
4. The principal conducts training.
5. The teacher is given an opportunity to practice the new behavior.
6. Follow-up observations are held with coding of the teaching.
7. The new behavior is analyzed by the two parties together.
8. The cycle is repeated as often as necessary.

Although this process appears to be a definite improvement on the normal procedure described by Young, it still leaves many gaps, particularly in the acceptance of what is observed, a definition of terms acceptable to both, and an agreement on the evidence and collection procedures.

Another current practice adopted by many elementary principals is the avoidance of supervisory responsibility when given choice. Kowalski states that when assistance is available, principals delegate the responsibility for evaluation to an assistant in most cases.[90] She also supported the information given earlier in regards to who is involved in evaluation. She reported that the principal in elementary

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[90]Kowalski, Joan P. Sullivan, Evaluating Teacher Performance ERS Report (Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1978) 234 p.

schools has primary responsibility for evaluation of teachers; one third of the districts require teachers to evaluate themselves; and three percent utilize peer evaluation.

If the information which Deal provides can be projected universally, principals are even more dissatisfied with the system of teacher evaluation than are the teachers. He also states that principals are rarely evaluated by their superiors on their ability in this area, but are "being judged primarily on their innovativeness and on their ability to keep teachers and parents happy."[91]

If keeping teachers happy is a goal of principals, then Guthrie's description of the teacher's evaluation process is evidence of at least one means utilized to accomplish this feat. Guthrie calls the process "the ceremonial congratulations." He examined the written reports of evaluations for fifty one teachers from a total sample of six hundred. The observation reports were placed into a classification system and were viewed as either ritualistic or goal oriented. Ritualistic statements were defined as those not directly or specifically dealing with the improvement of instruction (i.e., "I enjoyed the class." "A good learning environment existed." and "I was pleased with my visit.") Goal oriented statements were defined as those that referred to a specific instructional situation wherein implicitly or explicitly an attempt was made to improve educational practice.

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[91]Deal, Terrence E., et.al., "Villians as Victims" Evaluating Principals" Phi Delta Kappan, 59 (December, 1977) pp. 273-74.

Another set of categories was established to examine evaluative tone; that is the qualities of praise or criticism in the written documents. Each statement was classified as positive, negative or neutral in these terms.

These authors hypothesized that:

1. Ritualistic statements would appear more often than goal oriented statements;

2. Statements will tend to be positive rather than negative or neutral; and

3. Ritualistic statements will be positive.[92]

All three of these hypotheses were sustained; 86 percent of all the statements were ritualistic and 14 percent were goal oriented; 72 percent of the statements were positive, 28 percent neutral or negative. While 72 percent of the ritualistic statements were positive, only 51.5 percent of the goal oriented statements were coded in that category.

> "In the inquiry, we have found that one aspect of principal-teacher interaction, principals written reports of classroom observation is pervaded by ritualism, a ritualism that tends to be positive or lauditory in tone, not critical. Thus, the title, the ceremonial congratulations."
>
> "The ceremonial congratulations plainly is functional for the principal-teacher relationship; it can be viewed as one form of adaptation on the part of principals that guards the delicate balance in role relations between themselves and teachers. Its consequences for students are less clear. In any case, the observation report is unlikely to be a vehicle for the promotion of serious dialogue on instruction between principals and teachers."

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[92]Guthrie, Harold D. and Donald J. Willover, "The Ceremonial Congratulative: An Analysis of Principals" Observation Reports of Classroom Teaching" The High School Journal, Volume LVI, 6 pp. 286.

"We realize that the observation report may be but a pale shadow that fails to reflect a far richer and more goal oriented interaction, but that possibility seems remote to us. Also, we are aware that teachers are, to a certain extent 'on stage' during observations. Yet these possibilities only buttress the conclusion that the present system of classroom observation is essentially unimportant as a method of improving instruction."[93]

Goldstein continues to berate the present system of evaluation:

-- Many supervisors are insufficiently expert in academic areas they are asked to supervise.

-- There is little genuine trust in the supervisory process which is viewed by teachers as far more evaluative than helping.

-- The supervisory process is too frequently regarded as a pro forma exercise by supervisors and teachers alike -- a genteel kind of understanding that either both parties agree or they agree to disagree. Changes of behavior seldom result from this kind of 'detente'.

-- Experienced teachers are the most bored with the process and sadly are the least likely to change.[94]

Singing the same essential tone, but in a different key Cummings and Schwab contend that the appraisal process,

"often tends to flow only from the superior to the subordinate so that the latter feels he/she must defend himself/herself and to justify his/her actions. On the other hand, the superior also feels uncomfortable because often he or she does not possess adequate appraisal skills, objects to making judgements about subordinates, and realizes that he/she may not be able to implement remedial measures."[95]

In an interesting dissertation, Gosling found that:

1. Principals met minimal requirements for evaluation;

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[93] loc cit. pp. 284-90.

[94] Goldstein, William, "An Enlightened Approach to Supervising Teachers" The Clearing House, 46 (March, 1972) pp. 391-94.

[95] Cummings, L. L. and Donald P. Schwab, Performance in Organizations: Determinants and Appraisal (Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman and Company, 1973) p. 105.

2. Evaluation tended to be directed toward positive reinforcement; relatively few direct criticism of teacher's work were found;

3. Little difference was found for evaluations of tenured versus non-tenured teachers;

4. Principals used coping mechanisms to ease their evaluative responsibilities including giving a significant amount of praise and finding reasons other than the teacher to explain inadequate or poor performance; and

5. Principals failed to evaluate in selected areas.[96]

Strong support for the importance of expertise and specificity as a basis for working with teachers on instructional problems was the focus of another study's results. This study also showed that the principal was one of the least likely persons to whom teachers would go if they had a problem.[97]

Principals may view themselves as instructional leaders but teachers tend to view them more as managers. While 81% of the principals, in the study by Seifert and Beck[98] saw themselves as instructional leaders, only 31% of their teachers saw them in this light. The majority of the principals polled said they spend less than 50% of their time on

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[96]Gosling, Arthur W. Teacher Evaluation: An Examination of Formal Expectations and Actual Content, Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Indiana University 1978, 103 pp.

[97]Gordon, Dick, The Importance of Administrative Expertise in Instructional Leadership, 23 p. paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting (55th, New York, February 4-7, 1971).

[98]Seifert, Edward H. and John J. Beck, "Elementary Principals: Instructional Leaders or School Managers?" Phi Delta Kappan, 62 (March 1981) p. 528.

instructional activities and 67% indicated they would like to spend more time at this role. Teachers felt in 28% of the cases that principals chose not to focus on this role, but 40% felt that principals were overburdened by time constraints which prevented more activity in instruction. In regards to evaluation, 73% of the principals contacted believe they can help teachers improve their instructional skills (females more than males). Principals with less experience seem more likely to see the need for a pre-observation conference. Also, principals of smaller schools are more likely to see the advantage of this technique.

Popham[99] claims that there is evidence showing that rating scales, used by principals for evaluating teacher performance, are sufficiently correlated with pupil growth to warrant their widespread use; the results are typically inconsistent and confusing says the author.

The attitude that teachers have toward the evaluation process is important apparently. Zelanak and Snider[100] comparing attitudes of teachers found that teachers who believed that the purpose of the evaluations was for improving instruction as opposed to being used for administrative purposes were more positive toward the evaluation process.

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[99]Popham, W. James "Pitfalls and Pratfalls of Teacher Evaluation" Educational Leadership 32 (November 1974) pp. 141-146.

[100]Zelanak, Mel H. and Bill C. Snider, "Teacher Perceptions of the Teacher Evaluation Process" California Journal of Educational Research (May 1974) p. 117.

Sergiovanni says:

> "By and large the teachers we have now are the teachers we will have in the years to come. It is wishful thinking to assume that schools will improve or that changes will be accepted more readily by infusion of substantial 'new blood' into the schools. Improvements must be made by relying on the teachers we now have. Thus, keeping teachers in effective service as interested, growing, and highly motivated individuals becomes a prime focus of supervision."
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> "Few other fields can match 'the labor intensive record of public education in that four out of five dollars spent in education are spent on salaries for teachers.' Further, schools are organized so that teachers have wide discretion. Indeed discretion actually increases as one moves down the educational hierarchy into the classrooms. The less visable one's job is to other adults, the more discretion he or she has. Teachers can behave pretty much as they wish providing that' . . . they do not noticably violate accepted precepts of normative or organizational order."[101]

This labor intensive nature of education combined with such stability of teachers provides problems for supervisors says the author.

> "In the final analysis it is what the teacher decides to do day by day with students in the classroom that really matters and this daily encounter needs to be the focus of change. If we fail to reach this daily encounter, we have dealt only with structural change but not internalized change. While the structural changes seem to be very widespread and even if it seems that a school has changed dramatically, the teachers and administrators in those schools may not have changed much at all. They still see students the same way; they may still be working under the same assumptions; and for all interests and purposes their behavior and their effect on students may vary little from previous modes. We have been fairly successful in implementing structural changes; as a consequence we have gained little in the process. Internalized changes, on the other hand, have the capacity to reach the school where it counts -- in what teachers believe and how they behave."[102]

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[101] Sergiovanni, Thomas J., Professional Supervision for Professional Teachers, (Washington, D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975) p.5.

[102] loc.cit., p. 6.

> "The evidence is mounting that significant changes in school effectiveness will not come about as a result of increasing salaries of teachers, reducing the work load, introducing clerical assistants, using performance contracts, and the like. These all contribute a certain amount of effectiveness but their potency cannot compare with powerful socio-psychological factors, such as internal committment and motivation to work. The highly motivated teacher must become a high priority concern of supervisors, administrators, and teachers who are internally committed and motivated to work."[103]

In an important and extensive look at the importance of supervision as a tool for the improvement of instruction; Parsons reveals that professionals need supervisory help for two reasons:

1. To assure that the goals of the organization (school) are being met; it has been shown that professionals working in a service organization are helped by supervisory practices which identify and clarify the organization's goals.

2. To help the organization serve the individual and society; supervision which helps professionals work more effectively also enhances the quality of service offered to the public.[104]

Parsons cites several roadblocks to effective supervision and evaluation:

1. Professionals may interpret attempts at influence as an invasion of professional prerogatives;

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[103] loc.cit., p.7.

[104] Parsons, Llewellyn, Evaluation of Teacher Performance, 21p paper presented at the International Congress on Education (2nd Vancouver, British Columbia, June 17-20, 1979) p.12.

2. Heavy administrative demands on the time of teachers may prevent effective evaluation of performance;

3. The supervisors lack of power influence and authority to meet new demands of teachers make him ineffective;

4. An overemphasis on evaluation as a bureaucratic dimension may mitigate against the principal, and;

5. Styles and behaviors of supervisors which are incongruent with teacher expectations may cause rifts between the principal and teachers.[105]

Removing these roadblocks to the effective supervision of teachers requires that the effective principal must ascertain that:

1. Help is given to teachers by suggestion, advice, and consultation;

2. The method and content of help relates to the teacher's own qualifications;

3. The styles and behaviors of evaluation of performance are congruent with what teachers expect;

4. The power of the principal is based on influence from personal competency rather than from a structural line relationship; and

5. The necessary evaluation is aimed at improvement of instruction -- it avoids checklists and rating scales and it is infused with humanistic practices.[106]

The style of supervision stressed by Parsons, which he calls "the personal and institutional growth style", maintains that after the job content and objectives of the school have been established, the most important activities of the principal include:

1. Helping the teacher make the widest use of his talents and ideas;

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[105] loc.cit.;p.14

[106] ibed.

2. Permitting and encouraging the questioning of accepted practices and routines by teachers;

3. Helping teachers identify organizational goals and student needs;

4. Helping teachers understand the student's environment; and

5. Clarifying and sharpening the teacher's thinking about problems which confront them.[107]

In an interesting study done in New York which involved 336 randomly selected elementary schools, Hain and Smith[108] found some disturbing facts which may be important factors relating to poor school performance.

-- The size of the schools in this study were larger than normal; only three percent had an enrollment between 200 and 400 pupils; 28 percent were between 400 and 600; 36 percent had 600 to 800 and 33 percent had enrollments of over 800. "It would seem that the elementary schools are larger than the generally recommended size. The sheer size of the administrator's supervisory role appears to be unwieldy. Unfortunately, the burdens of administration are not being shared in that 76 percent of the responding principals do not have any administrative help. More than half of the principals reported that they alone are responsible for the evaluation of 30 - 50 teachers and 13 percent for more than 50 teachers. These responsibilities for evaluation and supervision of the increasing numbers of teachers can only lead to superficial help from the principal."[109]

-- The ratio of teachers to principal were reported to be 1-20 in 30 percent of the schools, 1-30 in 30 percent of the schools, 1-40 in 19 percent of the schools, 1-50 in 15 percent of the schools, and more than 1-50 in six percent of the schools.

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[107] loc.cit., p.18.

[108] Hain, John H. and George J. Smith, Evaluation of Teachers: The Principal's Dilemma, 8 p. paper presented to the U.S.Department of Health Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1969 ED013490.

[109] loc.cit., p. 1-2.

-- Two thirds of the districts provide principals with written procedures and standards to use in teacher evaluations. The tools of evaluation consist basically of 'Rating Forms" where the evaluator checks or writes comments about various aspects of teaching.[110]

-- Less than half of the principals in the study (41 percent) gave teachers prior notice of an impending supervisory visit. "Many principals feel that notice will produce a 'canned' lesson and does not reflect the day to day activities of the normal classroom."

-- Principals tend to visit probationary teachers more often then tenured teachers.

-- The time spent in teacher evaluation varies from under ten minutes to all morning or all afternoon; 60 percent of the principals reported they observed teachers for twenty to forty minutes at each occasion; 12 percent from ten to twenty; and 12 percent from 45 to 90 minutes.

-- Formal observation is normally followed up with a conference between the principal and the teachers.

-- Only a few teachers invite principals to visit their classroom.

-- Principals generally felt that they were doing an effective job in evaluating teachers; only nine percent said they were not pleased with their efforts.[111]

Gilbert Austin described three roadblocks to effective supervision by principals; he said that in a study of 619 principals nationwide, the respondents cited lack of time due to other administrative responsibilities as the primary reason for lack of supervision. Another roadblock was the lack of preparation in supervisory strategies and skills which the principal receives in training for his or her position.[112]

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[110] ibed.

[111] loc.cit., p.5.

[112] Austin, Gilbert, "Exemplary Elementary Schools and Their Principals; Principal (Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principal's Association) LVI (February, 1980) p. 19-21.

Haskins supports the views of Austin in regards to the pre-service training of elementary school principals. He states that elementary principals are placed in classes with all other educational administration hopefuls and that those interested in becoming a principal "were not considered as worthy of attention as those who were seeking to be a superintendent, a commissioner of education, or a management consultant."[113]

In reviewing the course content of the universities preparing principals for their jobs, Haskins found that all of them offer theory courses but few courses available to principals were of a practical nature. The only pre-requisite for entry into a course was the consideration of educational administration as a possible objective. Haskins decried the fact that the completion of a course of study in educational administration becomes tantamount to certification that the graduate is prepared to practice in a certain profession.[114]

Parker Damon agrees that "people with degrees in educational administration are no better qualified for the principalship than they would be they had received a degree in another field or none at all."[115] Parker insists that preservice education is not the answer to providing better supervising principals. "The demands of particular administrative positions are too specific for existing educational

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[113]Haskins, Kenneth W., The Programs: The National Elementary Principal 57:3 (March, 1978) p.45.

[114]loc.cit.p.40.

[115]Damon,Parker, "Inservice Bluew" The National Elementary Principal 57:3 (March, 1978) p.45.

administrative programs to address, and the positions themselves are changing too rapidly for any program to do more with than speculate on their nature.[116] In pleading the case for better inservice programs for principals, he states;

> "A principal who takes graduate courses at night or during the summer, attends conferences and conventions, or participates in other professional 'extraprincipalship' activities is thought not to need additional inservice support. But these activities are often structured in keeping with what someone else -- a superintendent or school board -- thinks will be beneficial. Only a fortunate few are accorded the professional freedom and responsibility to determine and plan what best meets their own needs as a principal, -- Or, once a principal has been given one chance for professional development, the district sees no need for follow-up support. In short, inservice often amounts to no more than the sporadic efforts a district makes when it thinks it can afford to do so."[117]

"The most significant reason for not improving inservice programs for principals says Damon, "is, simply that there is nothing to improve."[118] The majority of districts are not providing principals with anything resembling an adequate inservice program according to the author and yet, he says that,"Inservice for pricipals, along with inservice for teachers, will improve the quality of children's education far more than any new preservice training, managerial techniques or curriculum package ever could."[119]

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[116] loc.cit. p.47.

[117] loc.cit. p. 48.

[118] loc.cit. p. 49.

[119] loc.cit. p. 50.

In a study from The Best of the Best of ERIC, it was reported that one group of researchers found that, "Principals may be able to improve both teaching and teacher satisfaction simply by increasing the frequency of evaluation."[120] The authors of this study reported that there was little agreement between principals and teachers regarding the extent to which teachers knew what information and criteria were used in evaluation. Teachers were believed by principals to know more about the evaluation process than they really did. Although the principals in this study felt that teachers would not like frequent evaluations and would tend to resist them being done more frequently, they discovered that the teachers responded favorably to the increased number of evaluations, especially in their perceptions of improved teaching resulting from this practice.

Zechman reported that teachers, principals and superintendents too, all believed that principals should spend more time on instructional leadership activities, especially on staff supervision.[121]

Rothberg, et.al. concurred and stated: "If administrators intend their assessments of teachers to improve classroom practice, observations and follow up conferences should be more frequent and lengthy, but less threatening." In this study, 205 elementary and secondary educators

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[120]The Best of the Best of ERIC, Thompson, June E., Dornbusch, Sanford M. and Scott W. Richard, "Failures of Communication in the Evaluation of Teachers by Principals, Technical Report No. 43" (Eugene, Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1979, page 413)

[121]Zechman, Harry T. "Are Principals Competent in the Instructional Leadership Dormain?", NASSP Bulletin, 61 (December, 1977) p. 414.

formed that conclusion, 90 percent of whom were classroom teachers with an average of 5.9 years of experience. Eighty-four percent of the teachers involved indicated that they were observed three or fewer times per year.[122]

In this study, nearly half the group saw the post-observation conference as the vehicle most likely to bring about change in the classroom performance and result in instructional improvement. But, only half of the respondents indicated they were ever helped by post-conference suggestions, primarily due to the lack of specificity of the conference remarks. Forty two percent of the teachers of this study called for classroom observations which are more frequent, longer, more informed and less threatening. The teachers and principals of this study concurred in their feelings about the value of in-service programs which stress self-evaluative components.[123]

In looking at some techniques which a principal might use to improve the effectiveness of his or her supervisory practices, Woolman strongly suggests that video tape reproductions used as an in-service agent and as a data-gathering devise to capture actual classroom teaching methods can be most effective. In her study, Woolman found that young teachers were more apt to learn faster from this approach, but more experienced

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[122]Rothberg, Robert A. and Lila L. Buchenan. "Teacher Perceptions of Teacher Assessment", Phi Delta Kappan 62:7 (March, 1981) p. 527.

[123]ibid.

teachers adapted the learning more effectively to the classroom situation.[124]

Do principals or headmasters from private schools operate any differently than their counterparts in the public sector? The review of selected research implies not really. Nostrand reports that although headmasters feel that the improvement of instruction is an extremely important primary function, they do not work at this activity as much as they would like. It appears from this report that headmasters do not visit classrooms any more frequently than do public elementary principals and likewise they do not perform other instructional leadership functions up to their expectations.[125]

In his book, Selection and Evaluation of Teachers, Bolton describes in detail six factors which hinder the evaluative process in education:

1. A general lack of certainty regarding the criteria, the measurement process, and the procedures for analysis and interpretation of data;

2. The evaluator's dislike of being in a position to manipulate or adversely affect other people's lives;

3. A fear of precipitating an unpleasant reaction on the part of the person being evaluated. This reaction then prevents a relationship conducive to helping the individual improve;

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[124]Woolman, Lorraine, The Effect of Video-Taped Single Concept Demonstrations in an In-Service Program for Improving Instruction, (Houston, Texas: Bureau of Educational Research and Development University of Houston, 1969 68 pp.).

[125]Nostrand, Petie F. Headmasters: In Theory and Practice, 73 page report, 1973 ED077140.

4. A lack of ability to cope with the weaknesses of the individual in terms of organizational needs and his ability to improve. This is sometimes linked with a failure to communicate to the individual the necessity of dealing with both individual and organizational problems;

5. A failure to see the relationship of evaluation of others to the purposes of the evaluation; and

6. An inability to organize time so that adequate observations can be made.[126]

Bolton supports the contentions of others that "Effective evaluation of teachers is dependent on both an adequate quality and an adequate quantity of communications between teachers and principals."[127] The ability of a principal to obtain satisfactory results in changing the teaching habits of teachers is dependent upon the specificity of the goals, agreement on the goals and perceived adequacy of the evidence provided."[128]

Bolton reiterates the findings of others reported in this review by saying that accountability (summative evaluations) and assistance (formative evaluations) should not occur at the same time. Too, he says, the rating scale type of evaluation should not be used and he also emphatically states that a "teacher with an unfavorable attitude benefits less than one who views evaluation positively."[129]

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[126]Bolton, Dale L. Selection and Evaluation of Teachers (Berkely California: McCutchon Publishing Corporation, 1973) p. 96.

[127]loc.cit. p. 97.

[128]loc.cit. p. 98.

[129]loc.cit. p. 102.

Madeline Hunter believes that teaching behavior, not teachers must be evaluated. She states that, "Teaching is behavior and can best be improved through analysis of that behavior."[130] Hunter proposes that teaching behavior should be interpreted and categorized in three ways:

1. Those behaviors that promoted learning;

2. Those behaviors that used precious time and energy yet contributed nothing to learning what was desired; and

3. Those behaviors that, unintentionally, actually interferred with learning.

In an article supportive of the concept of micro-supervision, Bradley stated:

> "Evaluation, regardless of by whom it is conducted, is only as threatening as its purpose. It is quite possible for the supervisor to develop the safe environment in which evaluation is welcomed as help. It is imperative, however, that evaluation be completely removed from all administrative purposes for such a environment to exist."[131]

Bradley advocated that the principal should work on one skill or concept at a time, using video tapes preferably, to guide the teacher to look for ways and places in which the particular skill being sought could have been used. Within this process, the supervisor should never tell the teacher what he or she did wrong. "There is little room for the connotation of 'right' or 'wrong' in the helping process."[132]

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[130]Hunter, Madeling, Six Types of Supervisory Conferences, Educational Leadership, February, 1980, p. 409.

[131]Bradley, Curtin H. "The Helping Conference in Micro Supervision," Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, 12 (Fall, 1974) p.6.

[132]loc.cit. p.7.

Effective questioning techniques and proper data enable the supervisor to focus the teacher's attention to teaching behavior that warrants consideration.

Micro counseling techniques were supported by Ivey[133] and Allen and Ryon.[134] The important focus is on the attempts to improve only one but not more than two aspects of teaching at one time.

In one of the most quoted books on principals, Becker, et.al., identified eight characteristics of principals who were "Beacons of Brilliance" among "Potholes of Pestilence." These were:

1. Most did not intend to become principals; they would have continued teaching but were persuaded to become principals;
2. Most expressed a sincere faith in children;
3. They had an ability to work effectively with people and to secure their cooperation
4. They were aggressive in obtaining solutions for the needs of their schools;
5. They were enthusiastic about their jobs;
6. They were committed to education and could distinguish between short and long term goals;
7. They were adaptable; if they discovered something wasn't working they could change; they were also non-conformist who did not always use the proper channels to accomplish tasks;

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[133]Ivey, A.E. Microcounseling: Innovation in Interviewing Training (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1971) p. 130.

[134]Allen, D.W. and K. Ryon, Microteaching (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1969) p. 163.

8. They were able strategists who were able to identify their objectives and plan the means to achieve them.[135]

Summary of the Evaluative Role of Principals in the Improvement of Instruction

This section of the review of the literature dealing with the instructional leadership of the elementary principal has focused on the philosophical, the real, and the ideal roles of the principal in his or her attempts to improve instruction. In general, the literature supports the following general conclusions:

1. Principals should be directly involved in the evaluation of teachers;

2. Principals must strive to separate the evaluative from the improvement seeking aspects of evaluation -- i.e. summative versus formative evaluations;

3. Principals must strive to promote a receptive attitude on the part of teachers for evaluation;

4. Principals must delegate responsibility for other administrative functions to teachers, secretaries, and other co-workers to enable themselves to have the necessary time to supervise instruction;

5. Principals must develop and communicate concrete goals to the others involved in his or her school;

6. Principals need to believe that their efforts can make a difference in what children learn:

7. Principals need to focus their supervision on teaching behaviors rather than teachers and preferably on one behavior at a time;

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[135]Becker, Gerald, et.al., Elementary School Principals and Their Schools: Beacons of Brilliance and Potholes of Pestilence (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1971) p. 2-3.

8. Principals should utilize a clinical approach to supervision;

9. Principals should evaluate teaching more often, preferably monthly or even more often than that;

10. Principals should not look to graduate programs or university courses or conferences to improve their supervisory skills;

11. Principals should realize that teachers really want to be helped to improve their teaching.

Section C
Clinical Supervision

The term "Clinical Supervision" was created by Dr. Morris Cogan to describe a particular method of supervising instruction in a classroom. The work "clinical" has caused much controversy in the literature, but Cogan chose it because it was the most accurate way he discovered to differentiate between other methods of supervision and his specific method, and because there is no other word that comes close to describing the method as accurately.

Clinical supervision has to do with face-to-face relationships between principal or supervisor and teacher; it has nothing whatsoever to do with medical treatment or pathology. Clinical supervision is an analysis of teaching by both parties after observation, with the analysis concentrating on behaviors the teacher considers appropriate.

According to Cogan[136] and Goldhammer[137] the following are values and rationales for clinical supervision:

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[136]Cogan, Morris, Clinical Supervision, (Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1973).

[137]Goldhammer, Robert, Clinical Supervision (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969).

1. Respect for the teacher as a human being is the first principle of clinical supervision;

2. The supervisor's role is to secure the committment of the teacher -- not to coerce or threaten. Decisions to utilize new ideas or techniques are the teachers;

3. The supervisor's role is to help increase the teacher's freedom to act self-sufficiently in the classroom;

4. Clinical supervision is primarily concerned with the teaching act, with the improvement of instruction as its ultimate objective;

5. The supervisor bases his or her practice first of all upon objective data about classroom teaching and interaction, drawing interpretations, assumptions and hypotheses from this data; and

6. All individuals are idiosyncratic in terms of individual likes and dislikes and the supervisor, above all, is no exception; therefore he or she must present factually what he or she sees and hears to the teacher and the teacher makes the decision about changes in classroom teaching-learning procedures, not the supervisor.

Richard Weller in his book about supervision produced a list of even more specific aspects of clinical supervision; he called them Essential Characteristics and Assumptions of Clinical Supervision:

1. The improvement of instruction requires that teachers know specific intellectual and behavior skills;

2. The primary function of the supervisor is to teach these skills to the teacher;

    a. Skills of complex analytic perceptions of the instructional process;

    b. Skills of rational analysis of the instructional process based on explicit observational evidence;

    c. Skills of curriculum innovation, implementation, and experimentation;

    d. Skills of teaching performance.

3. The supervisory focus is on what and how teachers teach; its main objective is to improve instruction, not to change the teacher's personality;

4. The supervisory focus in planning and analysis is best anchored in the making and testing of instructional hypotheses based on observational evidence;

5. The supervisory focus is on instructional issues that are small in number educationally vital, intellectually accessible to the teacher, and amenable to change;

6. The supervisory focus is on a constructive analysis and the reinforcement of successful patterns rather than on the condemnation of unsuccessful patterns;

7. The supervisory focus is based on observational evidence, not on unsubstantiated value judgements;

8. The cycle of planning, teaching, and analysis is a continuing one that builds upon past experience;

9. Supervision is a dynamic process of give and take in which supervisors and teachers are colleagues in search of mutual educational understanding;

10. The supervisory process is primarily one of verbal interaction centered on the analysis of instruction;

11. The individual teacher has both the freedom and the responsibility to initiate issues, analyze and improve his own teaching and develop a personal teaching style;

12. Supervision is itself patterned and amenable to comparable processes of complex perceptions, rational analysis, and improvement;

13. The supervisor has both the freedom and the responsibility to analyze and evaluate his own supervision in a manner similar to a teacher's analysis and evaluation of instruction.[138]

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[138]Weller, Richard H. Verbal Communications in Instructional Supervision (New York: Teachers College Press, 1971) pp. 19-20.

Clinical supervision is a complete process of supervision characterized by highly recognizable actions:

1. In the first phase, the teacher meets with the supervisor or supervisors to discuss the intent of a specific lesson and also the teaching strategies that will be used in the lesson. One of the main objectives of the pre-observation conference, aside from encouraging an individual teacher to clearly analyze his or her teaching objectives and strategies, is to permit the supervisor to become familiar with the intents of the teacher so that he or she will be more knowledgable when the lesson is viewed.

2. The second phase of the clinical supervision process is the actual classroom observation. The supervisor arrives in the classroom with recording instruments ranging from videotape to paper and pencil. Generally the supervisor collects data for the entire lesson. The recording instruments are used to register directly observable actions and interactions of pupils and teacher; when pencil and paper are utilized, the verbatim words of pupils and teacher usually make up the bulk of the supervisor's record of the events.

3. In the post-observation analysis phase, the supervisor puts the fragmented data into patterns for observation. The importance given to the establishment of patterns is based upon the belief that patterns of repeated teaching behaviors have a much greater impact on pupil's learning than occassional, isolated teacher inputs.

4. The analysis of instruction which takes place between the teacher and the supervisor is the next phase of clinical supervision. In this phase the teacher and supervisor analyze the lesson. Although there is no single accpetable means to conduct this analysis, generally the teacher and supervisor lay out patterns which they observed and the discussion proceeds from this basis. Strengths and weaknesses of teaching are thus explored. The session is intended to be helpful and generally positive. The analysis generally takes place as soon after the lesson as possible so that the impact and proceedings of the lesson are fresh in the minds of the participants. The supervisor never makes criticisms! It is hoped that the teacher's instructional needs will be met as the teacher sees them. The goal of this analysis session is to have the teacher arrive at ways in which he or she could improve his or her teaching, with assistance from the supervisor if desired by the teacher. The end of the analysis session thus

becomes a pre-observational conference to establish what will be next observed by the supervisor and hopefully accomplished by the teacher.

5. The important last phase of clinical supervision can be called the post-conference analysis. The supervisor may have video taped the post-observational conference he or she had with the teacher, audio taped the conference, or kept notes. The supervisor then, either alone or preferably with his or her supervisor or perhaps even the teacher reviews the methods employed by the supervisor in the conference. The supervisor grows through discovering the opportunities he or she missed to make an important point to a teacher and also from seeing how his or her guidance assisted the teacher to obtain insights into the teaching process.[139] [140]

Ultimately, it is the intention of clinical supervision to strengthen the teaching abilities of teachers which should in turn result in improved learning for students. Just how successful has the clinical supervision process been in accomplishing this goal?

According to Denham, there is ample evidence of the neglect of in-class supervision, but she says, "although the knowledge/data base for instructional supervision is virtually non existent, a methology for in-class supervision has evolved that seems to have potential for genuinely improving instructional practice, improving supervisory practice and

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[139]Moors, James J. and Anthony P. Mattahana, Clinical Supervision: A Short Description (Hartford, Conn.: West Hartofrd Public Schools, 1970)pp.3-9.

[140]Hull, Ray and John Hansen, Classroom Supervision and Informal Analysis of Behavior: A Manual for Supervision (Eugene, Oregon, University of Oregon, 1974) pp. 4-10.

providing a needed data base for research in supervision." She refers to this process as the clinical supervision cycle "with its provisions for continuities and inputs substantial enough to make a lasting difference in the teacher's behavior."[141]

McKay indicates that principals should be the supervisors used in the cycle of clinical supervision but cautions principals who are not adequately trained.

> "Not all school administrators possess the skills or attitudes which make good clinicians. Some of them are unlikely to be sensitive enough to individual, as opposed to organizational needs to be successful counselors. Moreover, their skills in observing classroom teaching may be severely limited - - -. Principals who lack skills should attempt to acquire them; but having failed to acquire them would be well advised to stay away from clinical supervision . . ."[142]

In reporting an extensive analysis of the various forms of supervising and improving instruction, Reavis concluded:

> "While all of the articles cited have the above factors as their main tenents, they all fall short because of a shallow level of conceptualization. Each writer has his own pattern or variant, but only clinical supervision has been developed for more than a decade and is supported by a substantial body of literature and research. Only clinical supervision has been developed by an elite corps of professionals. Clinical supervision meets or exceeds expectations in the evaluation of instruction. Clinical

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[141] Denham, Alice, "Clinical Supervision: What We Need to Know About the Potential for Improving Instruction," Contemporary Education 49 (Fall, 1977) pp. 33-37

[142] McKay, D.A. "Clinical Supervision: The Principals Role" in J. J. Bergin; ed. School Program Accountability. The 1971 Leadership Course for School Principals Lecture Series (Alberta, Canand: Alberta University, 1971) p. 31.

> supervision, providing clarity and specificity in in-class supervision, has the potential to accomplish what all evaluation attempts, to improve the quality of instruction provided to children.[143]

In other related studies of the effects of clinical supervision, Seager concluded that from the use of video tapes of supervisory clinical conferences, that principals who had experience in clinical supervision "demonstrated a degree of subtlety and sophistication that was lacking entirely in those who were unfamiliar with clinical supervision."[144] Harty and Ritz[145] described various studies supporting many aspects of clinical supervision. Sirois found that "supervisory non-directive behavior in conjunction with the clinical model of supervision was most consistently associated with significant changes in student and teacher behaviors."[146] Blumberg and Amidon reported that, "supervisors who emphasized indirect behaviors tended to receive high ratings from teachers on productivity. Teachers felt they learned most

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[143]Reavis, Charles A. "Clinical Supervision: A Timely Approach," Educational Leadership, February, 1976, p. 363.

[144]Seager, G. Bradley, Jr., A Feasibility Study for Diagnostic Analysis of Taped Supervisory Conferences, 7 p. paper presented at the New England Educational Research Organization Meeting (Provincetown, Mass., May 2, 1975) ED108376 p. 5.

[145]Harty, Harold and William C. Ritz, "A Non-Evaluative Helping Relationship: An Approach to Classroom-Oriented Supervision," Educational Prospectives 15 (May, 1976) pp. 15-21

[146]Sirois, Herman A., The Effects of a Clinical Model of Supervision Teacher Types, Supervisor Types and Styles on Changes in Teacher and Student Attitudes and Behavior, (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Missouri, 1975) p. 187.

about themselves as teachers and as individuals from clinical conferences."[147]

Martin[148] surveyed a group of teachers and supervisors trained in the clinical supervision process and used as a comparison group a similiar number of non-trained teachers. Martin found that trained teachers believed their normal evaluation was more helpful to them than did the untrained teachers. Also, the trained teachers were more likely to accept evaluation as a basis for instructional improvement as well as for tenure and promotional decisions than were the untrained teachers.

In another study of the effects of clinical supervision, Boyon and Copeland[149] found that supervisors trained in the clinical supervision model were able to help teachers make significant improvements in a variety of teaching behaviors.

In an analysis of principals' use of clinical supervisory practices Dangel, et.al. found that the teachers receiving such guidance found supervisory visits and conferences to be very helpful and motivating.

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[147]Blumberg, Arthur and Edmund Amidon, "Teacher Perceptions of Supervisor-Teacher Interaction," Administrator's Notebook 14 (1965) pp. 1-8.

[148]Martin, Gary S. Teacher and Administrator Attitudes Toward Evaluation and Systematic Classroom Observation (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Oregon, 1975) p. 194.

[149]Boyon, Norman and Willis Copeland "A Training Program for Supervisors: Anatomy of an Educational Development", Journal of Educational Research 68 (1974) pp.100-116.

The authors concluded that:

> "If observations and feedback to teachers are based on objective criteria, if they are coupled with helpful suggestions and if positive feedback is used to focus on the skillful aspects of a teacher's performance, then they can be successfully and favorably executed by the school principal."[150]

In still another study Nasea found that:

> "Direct input into classroom instructional process constitutes the most frequently occuring set of responsibilities by supervisors and is also perceived by teachers as the most valuable source of assistance from supervisors."

The author concludes by stating,

> "Implications for the educational change process are obvious. Classroom teachers view direct assistance in the form of demonstrations in their own setting and prescriptions around their own instructional problems as the most valued sources of assistance from elementary supervisors. General assistance in the form of curriculum writing and planning is viewed as less helpful than assistance around specific problems encountered by teachers."[151]

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150 Danger, Richard F., Conrad, Rodney J. and B. L. Hopkins, "Follow-Up on In-Service Teacher Training Programs: Can the Principal Do It?" The Journal of Educational Research 72 (November-December, 1978) p. 72.

151 Nasea, Don "How Do Teachers and Supervisors Value the Role of Elementary Supervision?" Educational Leadership 33 (April, 1976) pp. 513-18.

The findings of the authors just cited were supported by Martin, er.al.,[152] Harris,[153] MacDonald,[154] Knop,[155] Diamond,[156] and McNergney.[157]

Perhaps, however, no other educational leader has done more to promote clinical supervision as a scientific means to promote superior teaching than has Madeline Hunter. Hunter has methodically researched or promoted research on teaching and supervision and has done more to advance this process than perhaps any other single person. If the basis for supervisory acts must rest upon research into the effects of teaching behaviors then Hunter has provided education with an excellent

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[152]Martin, Yvonne M., Usherwood, Geoffrey B., and Socratic Rapagna, "Supervisory Effectiveness" Educational Administration Quarterly 14 (Fall, 1978) pp. 77-88.

[153]Harris, B.M. and W.R. Hartgraves, "Supervisor Effectiveness? A Research Resume," Educational Leadership 30 (1972) pp. 73-79.

[154]MacDonald, J.B. "Knowledge About Supervision: Rationalization or Rationale?" Educational Leadership 23 (1965) pp. 161-163

[155]Knop, C.K., "Developing a Model for Student Teacher Supervision," Foreign Language Annals 6 (December, 1977) pp. 623-38.

[156]Diamond, Stanley, "Micro-Supervisory Experience, Humanistic and Clinical Format," NASSP Bulletin (March, 1980) pp. 25-29.

[157]McNergney, R.F. "Personalizing Teacher Development: An Adaptive Supervisory Process," Paper presented to the Mid-West Educational Research Association, (Chicago, Illinois, 1978).

framework around which the acting principal can become an instructional leader.[158] [159] [160] [161] [162] [163] [164] [165] [166]

In an exceptional textbook, Sergiovanni and Starratt describe the clinical supervision process and support its practices through theoretical as well as practical means.[168]

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[158]Hunter, Madeline, "Research -- The Fountainhead of School Improvement," California Journal of Educational Research, January, 1975.

[159]Hunter, Madeline, Motivation Theory for Teachers (El Segundo, California: TIP Publication, 1969.

[160]Hunter, Madeline, Teach More -- Faster, (El Segundo, California: TIP Publications, 1969).

[161]Hunter, Madeline, Reinforcement Theory for Teachers, (ElSegundo, California: TIP Publications, 1967).

[162]Hunter, Madeline, Retention Theory for Teachers, (El Segunda California: TIP Publications, 1967).

[163]Hunter, Madeline, Teach for Transfer (El Segundo, California: TIP Publications, 1971).

[164]Hunter, Madeline, "The Science of the AFt of Teaching:, from Controversy in Education, (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: W.B. Publishers, 1974).

[165]Hunter, Madeline, Prescription for Improved Instruction (El Segundo, California: TIP Publications, 1976).

[166]Hunter, Madeline, "Appraising the Instructional Process", Resources in Education (Washington, D.C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1977).

[167]Hunter, Madeline, "Appraising Teacher Performance: One Approach", National Elementary Principal 52 (February 1973) pp. 60-62

[168]Sergiovanni, Thomas and Robert Starratt, Human Resources Supervision and Organizational Leadership (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1979).

In the process of answering the question, "Should we abolish or retain the principalship?". Gallo states that "In my estimation, there exists in today's school organization a frightening inadequacy of specialized training and an abundance of natural talent on the part of the elementary principal."[169] Although the principal of today has become more and more a manager rather than an instructional leader, this is due to two factors: (1) his formal training and (2) his on the job experiences. According to Gallo, most principals have received their formal training prior to the time that clinical supervision came into being, and even when they did receive training in clinical supervision they were usually discouraged from practicing it by the managers of education already in place. Gallo advocates an in-service program of huge magnitude to remedy the situation. He admonishes the elementary principal to spend not more than "one fourth of their precious time allocation" on managerial functions, and insists that "Political realities dictate that we must work through, rather than circumvent, the principalship."[170]

In looking at how much time principals should devote to clinical supervision Acheson stated,

> "We have asked hundred of school administrators how much of their time they ought to spend working with teachers and how much time they do spend. The answers vary, but 'ought' averages more than 50 percent whereas 'do' averages less than 20 percent (and that, we suspect is generous.)

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[169] Gallo, Vincent A. Should We Abolish or Retain the Principalship? 14 p. paper presented to the Oregon School Study Council, Eugene, Oregon, April, 1970. p.1.

[170] loc.cit. p.10.

> If all supervisors spent 20 percent of their time on the activities described in this book, we believe the quality of teaching would rise significantly."[171]

Anderson also decried the fact that clinical supervision took a back seat to other administrative roles. He emphasized that this type of supervision should become "the major focus of each principal's endeavors"[172] He also bemoaned the fact that colleges and universities offer courses in supervision but that the quality of such course work is usually poor. He, too, encouraged local in-service programs and even presented an outline for a "modest" proposal by which principals could train themselves.

Summary of the Review of the Literature Focusing on Clinical Supervision

From this rather extensive look at the literature discussing clinical supervision certain factors stand out:

1. Clinical supervision is still a relatively new concept (originating about 1969) and since it usually takes a considerable period of time for educational innovations to become widely accepted it is still in the act of becoming a reality.

2. Clinical supervision is a well conceived, theoretically based program of teacher supervision.

3. Research evidence seems to support the fact that clinical supervisory techniques if properly used, can significantly affect teaching behaviors and even attitudes.

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[171]Acheson, Keith A. and Meredith Gall, Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers: Preservice and Inservice Application (New York: Longman, Inc., 1980) p. 188.

[172]Anderson, Robert H. "Improving Your Supervision Skills", The National Elementary Principal 56 (June, 1979) 42-45., p. 43.

4. Clinical supervision is a very important means wherby the elementary principal can begin re-entry into the instructional leadership domain.

Section D

Other Material Related To Tnis Study

William Pharis and Sally Zakariya produced a survey analysis called The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study.[173] From this study we can get a good look at the composite elementary school principal. According to the author, the typical elementary school principal of 1978 is described thusly:

> "He is a white male, 46 years old and married. He has a masters degree, and his professional morale is high. He feels secure in his job and sees the elementary school principalship as his final occupational goal."[174]

> "The typical elementary school principal has been a principal for ten years, five of which he has spent in his present assignment. All of his experience as a principal, in fact, has been in the school district where he now works.
>
> Before he became a principal at the age of 33, he had seven years of experience as an elementary school classroom teacher.
>
> The typical principal relies on other principals and on teachers as his main source of ideas. He feels that classroom teaching and his on-the-job experiences as a principal have been the most valuable contributions to his ability to succeed in his present position."[175]

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[173] Pharis, William L. and Sally Zakariya, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study (Arlington, Virginia: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979)

[174] loc.cit. p. 1.

[175] loc.cit. p. 19.

"In 1978, the typical principal earned $21,500 for an eleven month work year. He had a written contract, which specified his salary, benefits and working conditions. He has never had a sabatical leave.

His salary and fringe benefits are probably determined solely by the school board and/or the superintendent, but he would prefer that they were determined by formal collective bargaining or by an administrative team."[176]

"The typical principal administers one school, which includes kindergarten through grade six. The school is more likely to be situated in a rural or suburban community than an urban area. It enrolls 430 pupils and employs 18 full time teachers, of whom more than 90 percent are women. There is no assistant principal, but there is a librarian and several other professionals who are either full time or part time employees. Happily for the principal, there is a full time secretary.

The typical principal believes he has a good relationship with teachers in his school and a good relationship with both the superintendent and the school board. He also believes that his school offers an outstanding program of special education for handicapped students.

The typical principal spends 45 hours a week at school and another five hours in school-related activities. He has primary responsibility for supervision and instructional improvement and plays a significant role in the selection of the faculty in his school. He probably rates beginning teachers every year and experienced teachers somewhat less frequently."[177]

"The typical principal works in a school district with a total enrollment of 5,000 students. He feels that he has been given enough authority to deal with the responsibilities placed on him and that he has 'some' influence on decisions about elementary education in the district."[178]

"Despite rumblings of public discontent with the schools, the typical principal feels pretty good about the education today's school children are getting. He believes that students are learning more in school than they did ten years ago and doing at least as well on

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[176] loc.cit. p. 35.

[177] loc.cit. p. 49

[178] loc.cit. p. 71

basic skills. What is more, his school is not having trouble with decling scores on standardized achievement tests, and he reports little or no problem with drugs, sex, violence, censorship, or crisis management at his school.

But that is not to say the typical elementary school principal has no worries. Indeed, he has serious trouble dismissing teachers who cannot or will not, do their jobs. And he also finds managing student behavior a serious problem. In fact, he believes that the general behavior of pupils in his school is worse than it was ten years ago.

The typical principal is also rather pessimistic about federal funds for education. In comparison to state and local education dollars, he feels the federal government is giving him less for his money and wanting more."[179]

This gives one a very capsulated look at the typical national elementary principal in 1978, but does his counterpart in Michigan vary widely from this national perspective. According to studies done in Michigan, there is strong correlation with the national figures, but if anything, the school enrollments of Michigan schools are less than that of the national levels.[180]

It is interesting to note that the median sized school in the national study was 300 - 399 and more than 40% of all schools sampled were between 300 and 499.[181]

It is also an interesting note that 17 percent of the principals of the 1978 study of the principalship by Pharis reported that they

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[179] loc.cit. p. 95.

[180] Jennings, James M., The Elementary School Principalship in Michigan (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Association of Elementary School Principals, 1972) p. 13.

[181] op.cit. p. 52.

had at least one teacher on their staff who had previously failed in another assignment and was transferred to his school for another chance; 35 percent of the group of principals polled have two or more such teachers. The principals felt that 75 percent of these teachers would fail."[182]

In the Jennings study it was found that Michigan principals desired to work more with their teaching staffs and to spend more time on program development and curriculum. Most of the principal's time in Michigan was likewise spent on organization and management details.[183]

Jennings also found that principals in Michigan viewed themselves as "heads of their schools with considerable authority."[184] This was especially true in regards to the selection of teachers for their staffs.

The national study by Pharis and the Michigan study by Jennings both found an increasing responsibility on the part of the elementary principal for teacher supervision.[185]

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[182] loc.cit. p. 60.

[183] Jennings, op.cit. p. 33.

[184] ibid.

[185] Pharis, et. al., op.cit. p. 63.

In a study by Balderson, the author reported in his survey of 426 teachers in 41 schools, that the reason teachers acquiesced to principal demands was their perception of the principal's expertise rather than any rewards or punishments. This finding has a clear implication; principals can no longer control others through the use of pure power.[186]

In another study of authority, Peabody examined and compared perceptions of the basis for authority in three public service organizations, a police department, a welfare office and an elementary school. He concluded that "teachers seem to value authority of competence over authority of person, position or legitimacy."[187]

The proper authority base upon which instructional supervisors should provide support service was the focus of a dissertation by Proud.[188] This 1975 study of Tennessee teachers revealed conclusively that teachers did not receive the support service they needed or desired in instruction.

A significant relationship was found to exist between the perceived basis of authority and the provision of support services

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[186]Balderson, James H. "Principal Power Bases: Some Observations", Canadian Administrator 14 (April, 1975) pp. 1-5.

[187]Peabody, Robert L. "Perceptions of Organizational Authority: A Comparative Analysis," Administrative Science Quarterly 6 (March, 1962) p. 467.

[188]Proud, James R. A Study of Instructional Supervisory Support Services and Basis of Authority as Perceived by Teachers in Tennessee (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, The University of Tennessee, 1978) 194 pp.

to teachers. Also a significant relationship was discovered between the perceived authority base and the years of teaching experience of the teachers. A much larger percentage of teachers who indicated their supervisor's basis of authority was person based and/or competency based rated their supervisors high in both quality and quantity of services provided.

The conclusions of this study stressed that school systems should employ instructional supervisors and principals with expertise in dealing with classroom instruction and school systems should examine their ranks for supervisors with human relations problems and provide remedies for these people if discovered.

It appears from this research that principals even play a role in the amount of reading done by teachers. In a survey of 741 Tennessee teachers, George[189] found that 50 percent of the respondents read professional journals far less than 30 minutes a week and five percent reported that they didn't read them at all. The more education a teacher had, the more they read. However, time spent at reading education journals was positively related to years in teaching and encouragement to read by the school principal and discussion of journal articles at staff meetings.

Principals should not wait for superintendents to see the need for their (the principals) in-service or development. Another researcher found that superintendents, as a group, have not initiated

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[189]George, Thomas W. "Teachers Tend to Ignore Professional Journals," Phi Delta Kappan 6 (September, 1979).

a process for the professional development of their principals. Further, this study showed an inability on the part of superintendents to even relate the necessary skills principals should possess, let alone any knowledge of what would best provide for the needs of principals, and the superintendents could not evaluate to what degree principals possessed these skills. It is, therefore, unlikely that superintendents will act to provide the in-service needs of the principals.[190]

In a look at what principals saw as the greatest area of need for in-service, Gallegos found that principals most often cited personnel management, staff personnel service, curriculum and instruction, and school-community relations as being of greatest need. Principals valued off campus courses for credit, institutes, seminars and workshops. Principals saw little value in non-credit courses and in large group situations.[191]

In her dissertation, Clayback investigated the identity and classification of behaviors of elementary school principals in the role of instructional leader in helping teachers to the successful resolution of an instructional problem. Clayback concluded that the

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[190]Paziotopoulos, James A. The Role of Selected Suburban Cook County Superintendents in Providing Ways for Improving the Professional Skills of Principals (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Illinois, 1979), 194 pp.

[191]Gallegos, J. Gene, Renewal Education for Elementary School Principals in the Denver Public Schools (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Colorado State University, 1980).

successful principal participates in virtually every aspect of the instructional process with teachers cooperatively.[192]

In a scorching report on the extent to which principals are involved in instructional decisions in schools, Packard found that:

> "The enduring urge to bring to bear regularly expert and reasoned influence on teaching is not an idle design. Yet, for a variety of reasons, teachers seem especially unsuited as objects of routine bureaucratic or professional review. They lack a set of acceptable practices which might serve when displayed as evidence of acceptable instrumental conduct. In the ecology of their setting faculty members as well as from their hierarchical superiors. The interdependence of their tasks is so slight as to minimize the need for work related contacts and clever mechanisms that coordinate the timing, pacing and substance of their contributions. So buffered from the vagaries of uncertain influences, teachers are relatively free to establish idiosyncratic classroom routines. This can be a source of concern."[193]

"Supervision of instruction (or teaching) is generally recognized as one of educations most prominent non-event."[194]

Nonetheless, the absence of supervisory activity in schools is well documented and while publically lamented, it may be privately welcomed."[195]

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[192]Clayback, Jean B. Instructional Leadership Behavior of Selected Elementary School Principals (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1977). 113 pp.

[193]Packard, John S. Supervision as Administration: The Central Structure of the School, (Eugene, Oregon Center for Educational Policy and Management, April, 1976).

[194]ibid.

[195]ibid.

Tnis study by Packard concentrated on who really makes the decisions concerning:

1. the content of daily lessons,
2. when and how long subjects are taught,
3. teaching materials to be used, and
4. methods of instruction to be used.

Predominately, the decision type pertaining to instruction in roughly 55 percent of all cases was teacher discretion. No real differences were found in open versus traditional schools in this regard.

In looking at bounded discretion, Packard concluded, "The extent to which the principal collaborates with individual teachers about instructional affairs is trivial -- the relative proportion of decisions of this type never exceeds two percent."[196]

In regards to the amount of direct influence principals exert on instructional decisions, they seem to have made about eight percent of the instructional decisions in conventional schools and a little less than this in team schools. "Clearly, principals do not play a major role in the governance of instruction --."[197]

It is unfortunate that Packard could not measure and did not attempt to measure the degree to which principals had already influenced the decisions teachers made in instruction by and through

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[196] ibid.

[197] ibid.

the individual and group "teaching of teachers" that occurs between principal and teacher. Although all may make the decisions one choses at any moment, the basis for those decisions may rest with previous learnings for which another may be privately responsible and yet that person might not be given credit for this influence.

A study of decision-making by principals rather than teachers was undertaken by Cross who stated that "A reasonable hypothesis stemming from these data would be that the norms to which these principals attend are those that are generated within their own building rather than those generated by the hierarchy."

> "A second feature of the data worthy of notice is the rather rapid pace of decision making by the principals with concluding decisions coming soon after the problem stimuli. It seems likely that this rapid pace derives from a large problem volume which principals typically handle. A previous study has previously indicated that principals handle an average of approximately 100 problems per day. Under such conditions it can hardly be expected that principals reach decisions through the deliberative, self-conscious classic steps in decision making."[198]

Thus it would appear that principals make the majority of their decisions through prior experience dictates or intuition.

In a large study conducted in Texas, 400 teachers were asked six major questions involving their elementary principal or feelings about the principalship. The findings of this study were surprising, even to the author, in that there appeared to be a large amount of

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[198]Cross, Ray, A Description of Decision Making Patterns of School Principals, 15 p. paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, (55th, New York N. Y., February 4-7, 197/).

negative feelings towards principals, much more so than ever could be expected. In answer to the question, "How do elementary principals spend their time?" these 400 teachers saw the principal largely doing clerical work, handling severe discipline cases, confering with parents and observing some classrooms. When asked what kinds of principals activities have been most helpful to them, the teachers responded primarily by saying (a) being available to confer with, (b) working with severe discipline problems, (c) obtaining needed materials and supplies, and (d) conferring with parents and students. The next question was "How should the ideal principal spend his time?" and the responses were almost identical to the answers to the previous question: Be around when needed (fireman), maintain discipline, supervise the school (for discipline), and do clerical work! Some functions occasionally mentioned for the ideal principal were curriculum planning, leading in new ideas and information, evaluating and conferring with groups and individuals. It seems that these sometimes-mentioned-ideas are those suggested by most theorists to be ideal role functions of a principal.

When the 400 teachers were asked "What could principals do to be of most help to you, they answered (a) be available for emergencies, (b) be a rock, (c) be a discipline leader, (d) while half the respondents wanted more classroom visits, half wanted less or none, (e) have increased converences with the teacher. The question "what principal activities actually impair your teaching effectiveness?", was likewise interesting. The major items listed by the teachers were: (a) too many faculty meetings, (b) too much paperwork, and

(c) unannounced classroom visits. The last question asked the teachers to describe the ideal elementary principal, and actually they described to some extent the principal outlined by Pharis and Zakariya as "typical," except it was interesting to note that among the personal characteristics given for the elementary principal, noteable by their absence were intelligence, agressive leadership ability and creativity.[199]

In an address to NAESP National Convention, Robert Krajewski presented evidence of a study conducted that showed principals and teachers were largely in complete agreement with respect to both the real and ideal roles of the principal. However, the real scale and the ideal scale for both teachers and principals have almost negative correlation which means that principals are doing one thing but wanting to do another.[200]

A poll taken by the National Elementary Principal showed that the respondents favored the internship as the best training means for the principalship and most felt that teaching was an absolute pre-requisite. When asked what aspects of the principal's role deserved attention through in-service workshops, heading the list was teacher evaluation, followed by curriculum development and

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[199]Stokie, W.M. Fred, Four Hundred Elementary School Teachers Look at the Elementary School Principalship, 11 p. paper (Canyon, Texas: West Texas State University, 1978).

[200]Krajewski, Robert J. Role Implications of a Rank Ordering Process by Elementary Principals, 16 p. paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of Elementary School Principals (Las Vegas, Nevada, April 18-22, 1977).

leadership development.[201]

Looking at the question of the necessity of classroom teaching experience for elementary principals, Krauser found that administrators felt classroom teaching experience was valuable primarily when supervising children, doing demonstration teaching or selecting audio-visual materials. This study showed that principals saw on-the-job experience, district in-service programs and even graduate courses in administration as more important than classroom teaching experience.[202]

Studies by Eder,[203] Blanchard,[204] Tyron,[205] and DeSautel[206]

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[201]"Pre-Service and Inservice Poll Results" The National Elementary Principal: 56 (June 1978) p. 3.

[202]Krauser, David J. The Validity of Classroom Teaching Experience as a Pre-Requisite for the Elementary Principalship, (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1978).

[203]Eder, Dolores M., An Analysis of the Supervisory Activities of Elementary Principals in Selected Districts of DuPage County in Illinois, (Unpublished Ed. D. Dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1979) 305 pp.

[204]Blanchard, Linda L. The Leadership Effectiveness of Wisconsin Elementary School Principals (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation University of Wisconsin at Madison, 1978), 187 pp.

[205]Tyron, Gaylord F. Role Perceptions of the Elementary School Principal as Perceived by Superintendents, Board Presidents, Secondary Principals, Elementary Teachers, and Elementary Principals (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Iowa State University, 1978) 122pp.

[206]DeSautel, Rodney A. Administrative Role Perceptions of North Dakota Elementary School Principals as Related to Five Selected Dimensions of Administrative Function (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, The University of North Dakota, 1970 97 pp.

all found that the ideal role for the elementary principal was that of an instructional leader and that while some principals saw themselves functioning ideally in this role, most felt that the ideal was still out of reach for the time being. These principals were surprised that superintendents saw them in much the same light as they saw themselves. These studies also indicated a need for in-service for principals, especially in how to perform supervisory functions.

While tenure teachers are only evaluated by principals usually once annually or one time every other year most often, and non-tenured teachers see the principal two or three times a year,[207] a Phi Delta Kappan article by Deal, et. al., found that principals too are dissatisfied with the frequency and quality of their evaluations. The principals criticized the means by which evaluations of their performance was conducted and the lack of agreed upon criteria used in the process. When asked how they, the principals, would improve the process of their evaluations, they stressed the following:

1. There should be more frequent on site visits;
2. Specific evaluation criteria should be mutually developed which should reflect a balance between performance and outcome measures;
3. Procedures for obtaining information should be improved; and
4. Principals should evaluate one another.[208]

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[207] Evaluating Teacher Performance op. cit. p. 3.

[208] Deal, Terrance, et. al. "Villians as Victims: Evaluating Principals," Phi Delta Kappan 59 (December, 1977) pp. 273-74.

While it is clear from this research that little emphasis is actually centered on the principals role in instructional improvement, and too much emphasis is placed on summative evaluation of staffs, principals would do well to look at teacher complaints in regards to their practices of evaluating staff.

Brown, in an interesting dissertation, found that elementary school principals most often delegated responsibility to others in the area of instruction and curriculum development, whenever this was possible. This was true even though the principals involved all stated a preference for instruction and curriculum development. The author did not posit any reason for this delegation of responsibility.[209]

In another study involving the amount of time principals actually spent on supervision as opposed to the time they would prefer to spend on this activity, Altman found, as other have, that there was a significant difference between the actual and ideal roles of principals. In an interesting sub finding, however, he also discovered that principals of schools with less than 600 students spent significantly more time in classrooms than did principals of large schools.[210]

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[209]Brown, Larry. H. A Study of the Delegation of Administrative Tasks by an Elementary School Principal in a Selected Florida Public School (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Florida, 1978) 176 pp.

[210]Altman, Robert T. Elementary Principals Time Usage in the San Diego City Schools (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Northern Arizona University, 1978) 123 pp.

The question of the degree to which teachers are involved in the determination of the supervisory focus was addressed by Blumberg, and Cusick in 1970, and the authors found that supervisors give their own opinions and ideas four times as often as they ask for teacher views and they tended to dodge legitimate teacher complaints and concerns. The authors found that teachers are usually passive participants in the evaluation process and that the majority of evaluative conferences concentrated on issues other than instructional concerns. "Game playing" seemed to be the overall conclusion of what happened between principals and teachers during evaluation conferences.[211]

Following up this study, Blumberg's book on supervision indicated that supervisors seem to be out of touch with classrooms. "Supervisors play a democratic game," says Blumberg, "but they really don't mean it."[212]

In an interesting dissertation, Patterson found that the principals of larger districts appear to be better instructional leaders than their counterparts in smaller districts. What can be implied from this?

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[211] Blumberg, Arthur and Phillip Cusick, "Supervisor-Teacher Interaction: An Analysis of Verbal Behavior," Education 91 (November/December, 1970) pp. 129-31.

[212] Blumberg, Arthur, Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War (Berkeley, California: McCulehan Publishing Corporation, 1974) p. 15-16.

> "Perhaps the principal in a larger system is more 'systematized.' The processes have been ingrained since his/her teaching days. It is not necessary to manufacture a system that works when one is already functioning nicely."[213]

In a study which compared the practices of outstanding principals, as named by their superiors and other principals, Blair found several interesting differences that existed. "Outstanding" principals were significantly different from other principals in their:

1. perceptions of the aims of evaluation -- as being supportive of improved teacher performance;
2. choice of criteria for evaluation -- they more often looked for teacher creativity and teaching techniques whereas other principals focused on discipline and appearance of classrooms;
3. perceptions of the need for frequent and direct administrative involvement with the teacher; and
4. perceptions of the need for evaluation on a continuous and regular basis throughout the duration of a teacher tenure.[214]

Hetzel found that the post conference was viewed by teachers to be the most helpful evaluation supervisory technique.[215] However, the

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[213]Patterson, John P. A Descriptive Analysis of the Instructional Leadership Activities of Elementary Principals (Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Oregon, 1977). pp. 112-113.

[214]Blair, Alice E. An Analysis of Teacher Evaluation Practices in the Chicago Public Schools (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Loyola University of Chicago, 1978) 228 pp.

[215]Hetzel, S.S.J. Sister Marie Albert. Role Perceptions and Attitudes of Supervisors, Principals and Teachers Toward Supervision in the Elementary Schools of the Archdiocese of Philadelphia (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation Temple University, 1978) 327 pp.

teacher involved had not experienced a pre-observation conference and Knorr found that:

1. Pre-observational conferences have the potential for producing greater rating reliability;

2. Teaching can be significantly changed through the use of pre-observational conferences.[216]

In a comprehensive look at the formal and informal teacher evaluation practices used by elementary principals, Hodel arrived at several interesting conclusions having a direct bearing on this study:

1. Teacher evaluations for administrative purposes (tenure, dismissal, promotion -- summative evaluations) and teacher evaluations for the purpose of improving instruction (formative evaluations) are not compatible.

2. The role of the principal as an evaluator and the role of the principal as a supervisor are in conflict with one another -- in the former role principals perceive of themselves as negative and punitive and in the latter role as being positive and helpful.

3. There is an inverse relationship between the formalization of teacher evaluation practices and the perceived ability of principals to improve instruction;

4. Principals do not possess adequate supervisory skills and this deficiency contributes significantly to their perceived inability to successfully improve instruction.

5. Principals need to have in-service in supervision.[217]

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[216]Knorr, Russell H. Improving Agreement Among Evaluators Ratings of Teacher Performance (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, Lehigh University, 1979) 158 pp.

[217]Hodel, Gerald J. A Study of Formal and Informal Teacher Evaluation Practices of Selected Elementary School Principals (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Northwestern University, 1979) 162 pp.

While there is some conflicting evidence, most studies which compare the relative effects of male versus female principals show that female principals are more apt to be superior instructional leaders in regards to supervision skills at least.[218] Redwine and Dubick, while determining also that female principals were more likely to be felt by teachers as being more capable of improving their teaching, also found that female principals seemed to emphasize instructional leadership more often and that elementary principals, both male and female, were much stronger instructional leaders than principals at other levels.

When Redwine and Dubick asked teachers what help their principal could use to become a stronger instructional leader, 40 percent indicated better human relations skills, 30 percent said more knowledge of evaluative skills, and 29 percent said more knowledge about teaching. In this study, 94 percent of the teachers responded that they would like to see principals spend more time on instructional leadership activities.[219]

Sanders and Schwab lament the plight of the classroom teacher who functions in a "loosely coupled" organizational atmosphere.

> "In most schools the impetus for improving teaching performance seems to derive primarily from teacher's personal need for mastery."
>
> "Many teachers do 'retreat into indifference and detachment' but the reason can be listed as much to the organization of schooling

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[218] Rogers, Mae, A Descriptive Study of Leadership Effectiveness of Male and Female Elementary School Principals Based on Self-Perception and the Perception of Their Teachers. (Unpublished Ph.D.Dissertation U. S. International University, 1977). 96 pp.

[219] Redwine, Judith and Robert A. Dublick, Teachers Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Teacher Evaluation Processes, Indiana, University, 1979. ERIC 157892,

> as to any personal inadequacies of teachers. Many of them feel acutely the descrepancy between their need and desire for personal growth and the limitations of the classroom teaching they experience. Few are actively supported in their efforts to engage in self-directed growth through professional problem-solving except through the ritual classification of in-service credit for graduate course work. Most feel pressured to satisfy organizational expectations that contribute little, either to teacher growth or to student learning."[220]

It is important that a view be given to the administrative ratios of school systems as compared to supervisory ratios of other private and governmental agencies. Marlowe[221] has given public education some valuable information which could be effectively used by schools. The author indicated that his research showed that there was nationwide, an average ratio of 7.1 administrators for every 92.9 teachers. "Sources at the American Hospital Association Office in Washington, D.C. estimate their management percentage at somewhere around 10 percent."[222]

From the 1979 Statistical Abstract of the U.S. the author found that 13 percent of the military personnel were identified as officers, which is twice the supervisory ratio of schools. According to Department of Commerce statistics, as quoted by Marlowe, one in ten workers at the post office is at the management level. And according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Annual Report producing motor vehicles requires four percent management,

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[220] Sanders, Donald P. and Marion Schwab, "A School Context for Teacher Development," Theory Into Practice 19 (Autumn, 1980) pp. 271-77

[221] Marlowe, John "Use These Facts and Figures to Topple the Myth of Top Heavy School Management," Success By Design, Executive Education Publishers, Washington, D.C., 1979.

[222] ibid.

production of paper goods, six percent -- the trucking industry requires six percent management, food and kindred products have a seven percent management figure and the tobacco industry has eight percent. Companies that sell vehicles have more than one-fifth of their people in management. Companies that sell hardware have twenty percent management, whereas twelve percent of insurance industry employees are managers. The average shoe store has twenty nine percent in management. In real estate and law firms nineteen percent of the personnel are in management. Police are about twelve percent into management and pool halls and bowling alleys have twenty one percent management.

> "The ratio of administrators to teachers make it impossible for them to provide effective supervision. Principals cannot improve instruction when they cannot work intensively with the teachers they serve. This means that many staff workers go unsupervised or receive only superficial or emergency attention."[223]

In a speech at a National NAESP State Leadership Conference, Education Secretary, Terrel Bell outlined what he said that research says about successful schools. The first factor mentioned was the leadership of the principal, which was extremely important because it "literally determines the success of the other four factors." The other factors were a safe and orderly school, emphasis on basic skills

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[223] ibid.

instruction with corresponding agreement among the staff that this instruction is the primary goal of the school, sense of efficacy or the belief that all students can learn, and lastly, a system for monitoring and assessing student performance that is shared.

> "Principals are about the most important people around when it comes to generating the changes needed in elementary education: your decisions about how your school is run and what it offers in the name of education can permanently alter, for better or for worse, the attitude of teachers toward teaching and that of students toward learning."[224]

Summary

This section of the review of the literature has attempted to look at selected isolated studies, articles, and other materials which have a direct relationship to this study.

In general, it can be safely concluded from this review that the elementary principal should probably be the instructional leader and supervisor of his or her school but usually is not skilled enough or effective enough at this role, and doesn't perform the supervisory function often enough; female principals often being more successful than males. District and building size may have the same effect on supervision practices and supervisory ratios also may effect the process.

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[224]---"Terrel Bell: Principals and Effective Schools," NAESP Communicator IV, (August 30, 1981) pp. 1 and 8.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The researcher's purpose in this study was to determine if significant relationships exist between certain biological, educational, administrative and orientational factors of elementary principals and certain perceived practices and attitudes regarding supervision that are held by elementary principals and with the perceived ability of elementary principals to perform these supervisory functions.

The present chapter contains a description of the sample, research hypotheses, instrumentation, data collection, procedures for data analysis and summary.

Sample Population

A sample of 200 elementary school principals was randomly selected from the 1981-82 membership of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association (MEMSPA). MEMSPA is a voluntary professional group that contains in membership a majority of the estimated 1600 Michigan elementary principalships.

One hundred three of the 200 principals to whom the Instructional Leadership Questionaire (ILQ) was mailed responded by the deadline of November 30, 1981. This return was determined to be sufficiently large enough for administrative purposes.

The large response to the ILQ was due largely, no doubt, to the fact that the project was sponsored by MEMSPA. (See appendix for letter of sponsorship).

Research Hypotheses

Based on an extensive review of the literature and the researcher's experience, it seemed reasonable to test the following hypotheses:

H_1 Perceived actual expertise will be significantly lower than perceived ideal expertise scores in clinical supervision activities, singly and collectively.

H_2 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_3 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_4 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_5 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_6 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_7 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_8 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between school enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_9 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{10} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{11} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical responsibility assumed.

H_{12} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{13} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical responsibility assumed.

H_{14} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{15} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{16} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{17} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{18} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{19} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{20} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{21} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{22} The number of formal teacher evaluations required will equal the number of formative teacher evaluations performed.

H_{23} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{24} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect on perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{25} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{26} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{27} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{28} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{29} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{30} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{31} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{32} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{33} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived use of the clinical supervision model and perceived clinical supervision expertise.

H_{34} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived use of the clinical supervision model and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

H_{35} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived clinical supervisory expertise and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire consisting of eighty-one items was drafted to gather the desired information intended to address the questions posed under the statement of the problem.

Individual questions were developed after reviewing numerous survey forms dealing with instructional supervision. The instrument included four basic types of questions; questions of (1) fact, (2) information, (3) opinion, and (4) self-perception.

Concerns about the clarity and validity of the questionnaire were addressed and dealt with throughout the formulation stages of development. Counsel and a review of the total instrumentation procedure, including each draft of the questionnaire were sought from the Office of Research Consultation of Michigan State University. In addition, a nationally recognized authority in the field of educational research, Dr. Herbert Rudman, evaluated the clarity, organization, and content of the procedural plan and survey form. Mr. Cliff Nelson and Mrs. Carol Cummings, nationally known experts on teaching and clinical supervision wereconsulted to determine face validity of the ILQ.

Pilot Study

The Instructional Leadership Questionnaire (ILQ) was field tested using fifteen elementary principals from the mid-Michigan area. Fifteen ILQ's were distributed during the week of October 1, 1981, and the same fifteen principals were asked to retake the ILQ during the third week of October, 1981. Ten principals complied with all timelines and guidelines.

The pilot study revealed that the subjects were generally able to complete the questionnaire within a twenty minute period and that responding to the instrument did not appear to be threatening. Many of the respondents included comments.

Reliability

Data from ten matched test-retest forms of the ILQ from the field testing were used to compute a reliability coefficient for the ILQ instrument. Perceived responsibility scores on the initial test were compared with matched perceived responsibility scores on the retest. Perceived Present Expertise scores on the initial test were compared with Perceived Present Expertise scores on the retest; and Perceived Ideal Expertise scores on the initial test were matched with their counterparts on the retest.

The ILQ was discovered to possess a very high reliability factor. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient yielded a reliability coefficient of .92 with significance at the .001 level for the perceived responsibility portion of the ILQ. (See Table 3.1) The Perceived Present Expertise section of the ILQ revealed a .96 correlation coefficient, yielding a .001 level of significance. (See Table 3.2) The Perceived Ideal Expertise score of the ILQ was correlated at only .21. (See Table 3.3) The findings of such a low correlation on the Perceived Ideal Expertise score was not deemed to be of overwhelming importance since the retest scores were consistently higher than the initial scores and especially since no statistics other than a relationship to Perceived Present Expertise scores was contemplated in this study.

Proedures for Data Analysis

The survey responses from the 103 respondents to the ILQ were transferred from the instrument to scoring sheets and subsequently punched on computor cards and verified by machine at the Michigan

TABLE 3.1

Perceived Responsibility Reliability Results
of the ILQ Test-Retest
N=10

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficient	Probability
Initial Test	31.7	4.49	.92	.001**
ReTest	33.2	5.06		

** Significant at the .001 level

TABLE 3.2

Perceived Present Expertise Reliability Results
of the ILQ Test - Retest
N=10

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficient	Probability
Initial Test	84.1	13.77	.96	.001**
ReTest	85.6	16.17		

** Significant at the .001 level

TABLE 3.3

Perceived Ideal Expertise Reliability Results
of the ILQ Test - Retest
N=10

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficient	Probability
Initial Test	105.8	13.20	.21	
ReTest	111.8	9.64		

State University Scoring Office.

Programs for the analysis of data were written for the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program with the assistance of consultants from the Office of Research Consultation at Michigan State University. The data wereverified and processed through the computor at the Michigan State University Computor Center.

Statistical Procedures

Chi Square was selected as the statistical basis of this study because of the researcher's desire to obtain material that would be descriptive as well as statistically sound. The use of Cramer's V was utilized to determine the extent to which the variables influenced the results where significance was discovered.

Significance was tested at the .05 level of difficulty.

Summary

In Chapter III the research design and procedures used to accomplish the present study have been presented. A random sample of 200 elementary principals was asked to respond to a survey of principal's practices, attitudes, and perceptions; 103 principals responded to the survey within the time limits allowed. These practices, attitudes and perceptions were measured on the Instructional Leadership Questionaire developed for the present study.

Descriptive statistics using the SPSS Package were generated with Chi Square and Cramer V through the use of the computor facilities at Michigan State University.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The present study was designed to determine whether significant relationships exist between certain independent variables related to the elementary principalship and perceived practices and attitudes of principals regarding the supervision of teaching. Survey data were gathered with the Instructional Leadership Questionaire (ILQ) from 103 elementary school principals from the State of Michigan.

The results of the analysis of the data collected from the survey are presented in this chapter. A descriptive analysis of the independent variables including tables is provided in the first section of this chapter, followed by the systematic testing of the hypothesis of this study. An analysis of the data and a summary of findings conclude the chapter.

Presentation of the Data

The data reveal that the sample bears a striking resemblance to the elementary principals described in the 1978 study of the principalship conducted by Pharis and Zakariya [225] Males outnumber

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[225] Pharis, William L. and Sally Zakariya, The Elementary School Principalship in 1978: A Research Study (Arlington, Virginia: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1979).

females in the sample four to one (See Table 4.1) and the trend toward fewer women principals appears to be continuing. The percentage of women principals gets significantly less in the younger age brackets. (See Table 4-2)

The average age of the respondents was 45, again approximating the average age of other more complete studies. (See Table 4-3) The average principal in this study administers one school, but more than 15 percent of the respondents were responsible for two or more schools. (Table 4-4) The average student enrollment was 420 students. (Table 4-5) and the average principal was responsible for 16.8 classroom teachers (Table 4-9) and 23.1 total certified personnel. (Table 4-9) The district size for the average principal was 5,960 students. (See Table 4-8)

The usual principal in this study had 9.7 years of teaching experience (Table 4-6) and 10.6 years of tenure as a principal. (Table 4.7)

The average principal respondent in this study was required to evaluate tenured teachers about once every 2.4 years (Table 4-11) and indicated that he or she conducted formative evaluations about once every 1.15 years. (Table 4-15)

Fifty-three percent of the respondents had other systemwide responsibilities other than the principalship (Table 4-13). Twenty-three percent indicated they had had an extensive professional developmental program in teacher supervision or teacher evaluation

TABLE 4-1

Sex Distribution of Sample

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Male	82	79.6
Female	21	20.4
Total	103	100.0

TABLE 4-3

Age Distribution of Sample

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
40 and Under	31	30.4
41 to 50	44	43.1
Over 50	27	26.5
	102	100.0

Mean	45.0
Mode	46.0
Median	45.5

TABLE 4-2

The Relationship of Age to Sex
of Elementary Principals
N=103

Age		Male	Female	Row Total
Under 40	Count	28	4	32
	Row Percentage	87.5	12.5	31.1
	Column Percentage	34.1	19.0	
41 - 50	Count	37	7	44
	Row Percentage	84.1	15.9	42.7
	Column Percentage	45.1	33.3	
Over 50	Count	17	10	27
	Row Percentage	63.0	37.0	26.2
	Column Percentage	20.7	47.6	
	Column Total	82	21	103
		79.6	20.4	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 6.38 with 2 degrees of freedom - significance = .0411

Cramers V = .25

TABLE 4-4

Schools Responsible For

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
One School	87	84.5
Two Schools	11	10.7
Three Schools	4	3.9
Four Schools	1	1.0
	103	100.0

TABLE 4-5

Student Enrollment in School(s)

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
250 and Under	8	7.8
251 to 350	27	26.2
351 to 450	30	29.1
451 to 550	21	20.4
Over 550	17	16.5
	103	100.0

Mean 420
Mode 300
Median 390

TABLE 4-6

Years of Teaching Experience

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
5 Years or Under	35	34.0
6 to 10 Years	35	34.0
11 to 15 Years	16	15.5
16 or More Years	17	16.5
	103	100.0

Mean	9.7
Mode	5
Median	7.4

TABLE 4-7

Elementary Principalship Experience

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
5 Years or Under	27	26.2
6 to 10 Years	22	21.4
11 to 15 Years	32	31.0
16 or More Years	22	21.4
	103	100.0

Mean	10.6
Mode	12.0
Median	10.9

TABLE 4-8

District Enrollment

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
2500 and Under	34	34.7
2501 to 5000	31	31.6
5001 and Over	33	33.7
	98	100.0

Mean	5,960
Mode	2,500
Median	3,453

TABLE 4-9

Classroom Teachers Supervised

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
13 and Under	33	32.0
14 to 20	47	45.6
21 and Over	23	22.4
	103	100.0

Mean	16.8
Mode	15
Median	15.1

TABLE 4-10

Total Teachers Supervised

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
19 and Under	38	36.9
20 to 29	43	41.7
30 and Over	22	21.4
	103	100.0

Mean	23.7
Mode	20.0
Median	21.0

TABLE 4-11

Frequency of Required Evaluations of Tenured Teachers

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Every 3 Years or Less	29	28.7
Every 2 Years	28	27.7
Every Year	38	37.6
Twice a Year	4	4.0
3 Times a Year or More	2	2.0
	101	100.0

Mean	Once Every 2.4 Years
Mode	Yearly
Median	Every two Years

TABLE 4-12

Formal Education in Supervision of Teaching
(Semester Hours)

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Zero Hours	28	28.6
1 to 6 Hours	39	39.8
7 to 18 Hours	19	19.4
Over 18 Hours	12	12.2
	98	100.0

Mean	7.5
Mode	0
Median	4.125

TABLE 4-13

Extra Systemwide Responsibilities

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Yes	53	52.0
No	49	48.0
	102	100.0

TABLE 4-14

Professional Development Program
on Supervision of Instruction

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Yes	23	22.3
No	80	77.7
	103	100.0

TABLE 4-15

Evaluations for Strictly Formative Reasons

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Weekly	3	4.0	4.0
Six Times a Year	2	2.7	6.7
Five Times a Year	1	1.4	8.1
Four Times a Year	3	4.0	12.1
Three Times a Year	4	5.4	17.5
Two Times a Year	13	17.6	35.1
Annually	28	37.8	72.9
Every Two Years	15	20.3	93.2
Every Three Years or Less	5	6.8	100.0
	74	100.0	

Mean	Every 1.15 Years
Mode	Every Year
Median	Every Year

(Table 4-14) but the average principal had acquired less than eight semester hours of formal instruction in the supervision of instruction; in fact, more than 28 percent indicated they had no such training at all. (Table 4-12)

Although a wide number of choices was offered regarding the evaluative role that a principal might elect to perform, only two choices received more than one selection, that of a clinician. and that of an evaluator; these two choices were quite evenly selected (Table 4-16).

In general, the data of this study showed that the respondents perceived themselves as having a considerable amount of authority to make instructional decisions (Table 4-17), and they seem to possess a very strong sense of efficacy. That is, they strongly believe they personally can have quite an impact on student learning and they have strong faith in the ability of teachers to make a difference in the education of children (See Tables 4-18, 4-19, and 4-20).

When asked how frequently they used a system of clinical supervision the responses of the elementary principals of this study almost approximated that of a normal bell-shaped curve. (Table 4-21)

TABLE 4-16

Perceived Evaluative Role of Principals

	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency
Clinician	45	44.6
Organizer	1	1.0
Facilitator	0	0.0
Trainer	1	1.0
Evaluator	54	53.5
Delegator	0	1.0
	101	100.0

TABLE 4-17

Perceived Authority of Principals
to Make Instructional Program Decisions

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Complete Authority	6	10	9.7	9.7
	5	33	32.0	41.7
	4	39	37.9	79.6
	3	16	15.5	95.1
	2	4	3.9	99.0
No Authority	1	1	1.0	100.0
		103	100.0	

Mean	4.3
Mode	4
Median	4.3

TABLE 4-18

Perceptions of Principals
Regarding Their Potential Effect
on Student Learning Outcomes

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Great Effect	6	28	27.2	27.2
	5	50	48.5	75.7
	4	17	16.5	92.2
	3	8	7.8	100.0
	2	0	0.0	100.0
No Effect	1	0	0.0	100.0
		103	100.0	

Mean	4.95
Mode	5.0
Median	5.03

TABLE 4-19

Perceptions of Principals
Regarding the Effects
of Teachers on Learning

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Very Great	6	45	43.7	43.7
	5	49	47.6	91.3
	4	8	7.8	99.0
	3	1	1.0	100.0
	2	0	0.0	100.0
None	1	0	0.0	100.0

Mean	5.34
Mode	5.0
Median	5.367

TABLE 4-20

Perceptions of Principals
Regarding the Ability of Teachers
to Exert an Effect Upon The Unmotivated Child

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Very Much	6	33	32.0	32.0
	5	40	38.8	70.8
	4	19	18.4	89.2
	3	6	5.8	95.0
	2	4	3.9	99.0
None	1	1	1.0	100.0
		103	100.0	
Mean	4.9			
Mode	5.0			
Median	5.0			

TABLE 4-21

Principal Use of Clinical Supervision Method

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Always	6	7	6.8	6.8
	5	25	24.3	31.1
	4	22	21.4	52.5
	3	17	16.5	69.0
	2	23	22.3	91.3
Never	1	9	8.7	100.0
		103	100.0	
Mean	3.5			
Mode	5			
Median	3.6			

The Perceived Responsibility Assumed by Elementary Principals for Clinical Supervisory Activities

Twenty principal activities involving clinical supervision were outlined in the ILQ and principals were asked to respond in regards to the responsibility they assumed for each item. Respondents were given three choices: they could have checked that the activity was their primary responsibility, that it had priority claim of their time and attention; they could have checked that the item was a secondary responsibility or that it would receive their attention after other primary responsibilities had been discharged; or they could have indicated that they felt no responsibility for this activity.

The twenty clinical supervision activities were selected to be representative of the broad continuum of those activities normally associated with clinical supervision. It should be noted that in most instances, if an elementary principal does not perform these functions, they go undone; generally there is no other person in an elementary school who has the responsibility to perform these duties. Ideally then, one could build a strong case for the fact that all of these activities should be accepted as the primary responsibility of a principal.

In general, the elementary principals in this study accepted these activities as their primary responsibility, but a surprisingly

large percentage of the respondents saw many of the activities as being of secondary or of no importance to them. (See Graph 4-11

Of special note is the fact that for perhaps the most important individual characteristic of a clinical supervision program, the pre-observation conference, only thirty-five percent of the responding principals perceived this activity to be their primary responsibility and nearly twenty percent expressed the opinion that it was not their responsibility at all.

In contrast to this fact, the principals of this study strongly accepted the responsibility to help teachers acquire effective classroom management skills, discipline skills and they strongly acknowledged the responsibility to provide for a positive climate for supervision.

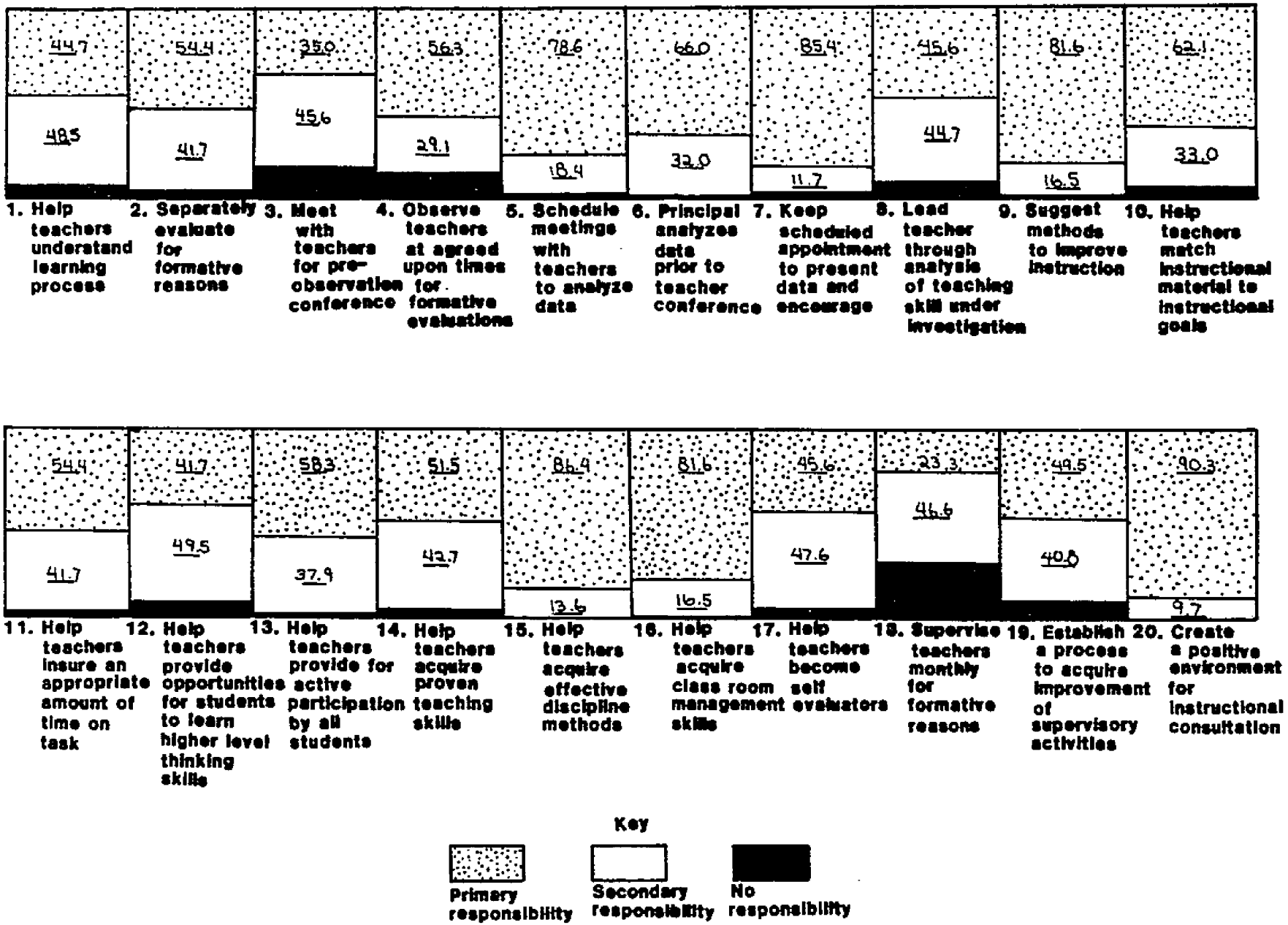
Perceived Expertise to Perform Clinical Supervision Functions

The same twenty questions used to assess principals perceived responsibility was also used as a means to allow them to assess their ability to perform these functions. Principals were asked to rate their present and ideal expertise on a continuum from one to six.

The principals in this study perceived the establishment of a positive environment for instructional consultation as their strongest instructional leadership expertise, and they felt weakest in their ability to see teachers at least monthly for

GRAPH 4-1

Principal Responses to Responsibility Assumed for Clinical Supervisory Activities
(In Percent of Responses)



evaluative reasons and for their ability to use pre-observation conferences, (See Graph 4-2).

Testing of the Hypotheses

H_1 Perceived actual expertise will be significantly lower than perceived ideal expertise in clinical supervision activities, singly and individually.

The relationship of perceived actual expertise to perceived ideal expertise is related statistically in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.0191*
2	Formative Evaluations	.0000*
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0000*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0000*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.0000*
6	Analyze Data	.0000*
7	Keep Appointment	.0000*
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0000*
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.0000*
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.0000*
11	Help with Time on Task	.0000*
12	Help with High Level Thinking Skills	.0122*
13	Help with Active Participation	.0000*
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0041*
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.0000*
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.0000*
17	Help Teacher Self-Evaluate	.0000*
18	Supervise Monthly	.0000*
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.0000*
20	Establish Positive Climate	.0000*

Total Relationship = .0002*

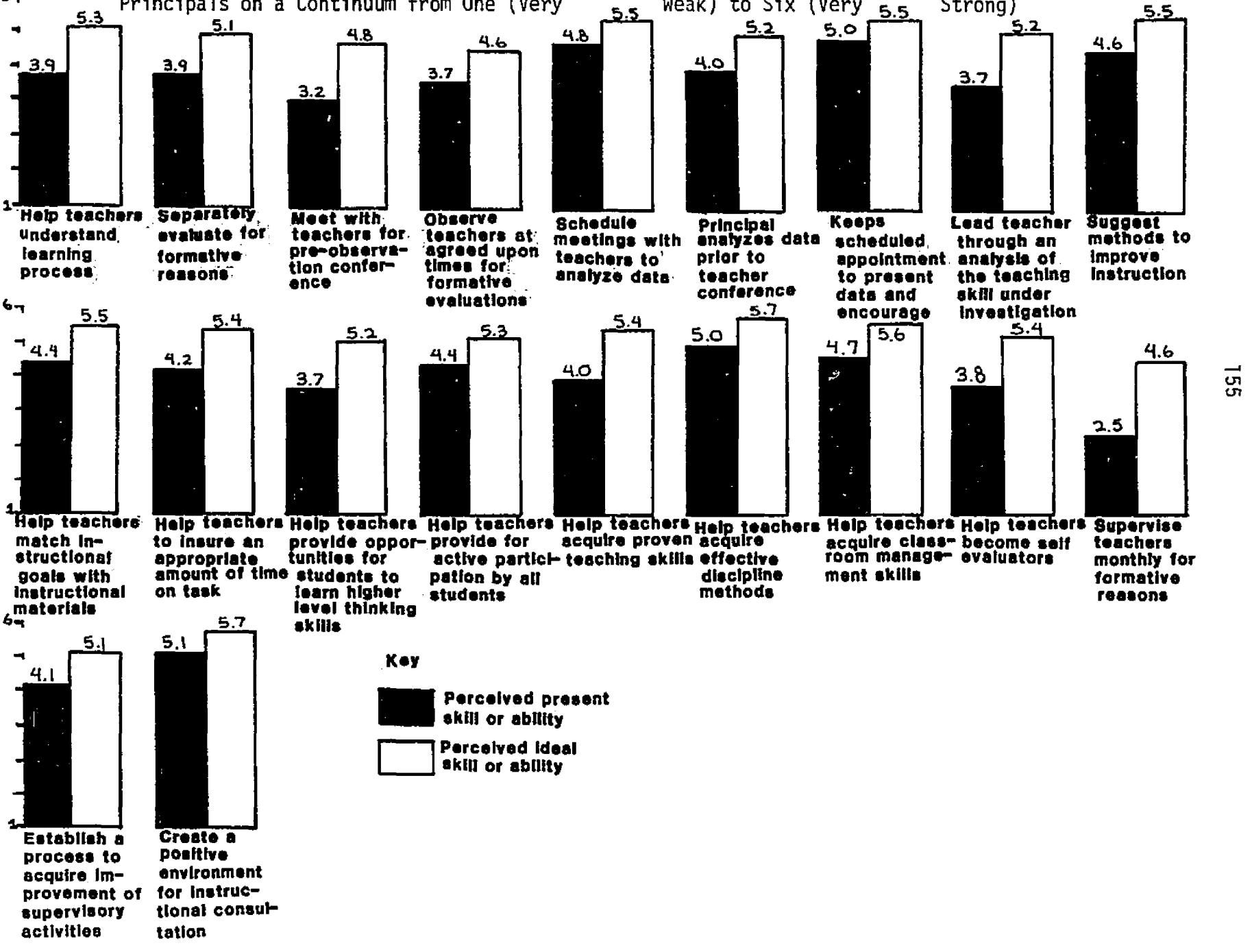
* Significant at the .05 level

There is a significant difference between how principals perceive their present skills of supervision and how they would ideally wish to be with every skill and totally. There exists as hypothesized a strong sense of dissonance between these two factors.

The hypothesis is accepted.

GRAPH 4-2

Mean Perceived Present and Ideal Clinical Supervision Expertise of Sampled Michigan Elementary School Principals on a Continuum from One (Very Weak) to Six (Very Strong)



H_2 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The sex of elementary principal to variables of perceived expertise in clinical supervision was related statistically in the following manner.

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1278
2	Formulative EValuations	.3634
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0011*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.4763
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.9909
6	Analyze Data	.4250
7	Keep Appointment	.0303*
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.3819
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.0030*
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.0630
11	Help with Time on Task	.1762
12	Help with High Level Thinking Skills	.0390*
13	Help with Active Participation	.0888
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.2323
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.0777
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management.	.1185
17	Help Teacher Self-Evaluate	.3825
18	Supervise Monthly	.1687
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4117
20	Establish Positive Climate	.8309

Total Expertise Relationship = .1991

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-24, 4-25, 4-26 and 4-27

The hypothesis is accepted for four variables.

TABLE 4-24

The Relationship of the Sex of Elementary Principals to Perceived Expertise of Principals to Suggest Methods to Improve Instruction

Sex		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Male	Count	2	2	10	18	33	15	80
	Row Percentage	2.5	2.5	12.5	22.5	41.3	18.8	80.0
Female	Count	0	1	0	5	2	12	20
	Row Percentage	0	5.0	0	20.0	10.0	60.0	20.0
	Column Totals	2 2.0	3 3.0	10 10.0	23 23.0	35 35.0	27 2.0	100 100.0

Raw Chi Square = .1792 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0030

Cramer's V = .42

TABLE 4-25

The Relationship of the Sex of Elementary Principals to Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers Teach Higher Level Thinking Skills

Sex		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Male	Count	6	7	27	25	12	4	81
	Row Percentage	7.4	8.6	33.3	30.9	14.8	4.9	80.2
Female	Count	0	2	1	8	8	1	20
	Row Percentage	0	10.0	5.0	40.0	40.0	5.0	19.8
	Column Totals	6 5.9	9 8.9	28 27.7	33 32.7	20 19.8	5 5.0	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 11.71 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0390

Cramer's V = .34

TABLE 4-26

The Relationship of the Sex of Elementary Principals to Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct Pre-Observation Conferences

Sex		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Male	Count	20	18	15	13	7	8	81
	Row Percentage	24.7	22.2	18.5	16.0	8.6	9.9	80.2
Female	Count	0	2	4	2	9	3	20
	Row Percentage	0	10.0	20.0	10.0	45.0	15.0	19.8
	Column Totals	20 19.8	20 19.8	19 18.8	15 14.9	16 15.8	11 10.9	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 20.33 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0011

Cramer's V = .45

TABLE 4-27

The Relationship of the Sex of an Elementary Principal to Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct a Post-Observation Conference

Sex		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Male	Count	1	0	6	13	37	23	80
	Row Percentage	1.2	0	7.5	16.2	46.2	28.8	80.0
Female	Count	0	1	0	2	5	12	20
	Row Percentage	0	5.0	0	10.0	25.0	60.0	20.0
	Column Totals	1 1.0	1 1.0	6 6.0	15 15.0	42 42.0	35 35.0	100 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.35 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0303

Cramer'sV = .35

H_3 Female principals will score significantly higher than male principals on perceived clinical supervising responsibility assumed.

The sex of principals was statistically related to variables of responsibility in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.2045
2	Formative Evaluations	.5858
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0162*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0946
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.6732
6	Analyze Data	.4764
7	Keep Appointment	.6222
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.9715
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.1702
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.3017
11	Help with Time on Task	.6787
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.3180
13	Help with Active Participation	.8560
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.1953
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.8004
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.7347
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.6075
18	Supervise Monthly	.1924
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.2696
20	Establish Positive Climate	.2037

Total Responsibility Relationship = .3068

* Significant to the .05 level - 2 degrees of freedom - See Table 4-28

The hypothesis is accepted for one variable.

TABLE 4-28

The Relationship of Sex to the Perceived Responsibility for a Pre-Observation Conference with Teachers

Sex		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Male	Count	17	41	23	81
	Row Percentage	21.0	50.6	28.4	79.4
Female	Count	2	6	13	21
	Row Percentage	9.5	28.6	61.9	20.6
	Column Totals	19	47	36	102
		18.6	46.1	35.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 8.24 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0162

Cramer's V = .28

H_4 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

Age was related statistically to variables of perceived expertise to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.4690
2	Formative Evaluations	.1920
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.4885
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.5637
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3800
6	Analyze Data	.6152
7	Keep Appointment	.6232
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0599
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.5503
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.5274
11	Help with Time on Task	.6670
12	Help with High Level Thinking Skills	.8627
13	Help with Active Participation	.8671
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.6080
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.7806
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.7464
17	Help Teacher Self-Evaluate	.8213
18	Supervise Monthly	.2736
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.6479
20	Establish Positive Climate	.2169

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .7041

There are no expertise variables related to age in this study; the hypothesis is rejected.

H_5 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between age and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Age was related statistically to variables of perceived responsibility to perform clinical supervision in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.5330
2	Formative Evaluations	.3725
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.6118
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.3922
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3313
6	Analyze Data	.1842
7	Keep Appointment	.6784
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0229*
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.4734
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4264
11	Help with Time on Task	.8676
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.5492
13	Help with Active Participation	.9098
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.2486
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.8807
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.6889
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.2800
18	Supervise Monthly	.2603
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.3454
20	Establish Positive Climate	.0197**

Total Responsibility Relationship = .4098

* Significant at the .05 level - See Table 4-29

** Significant at the .05 level but wrong direction - See Table 4-30

The hypothesis is accepted for one variable.

Age was related to two variables of clinical supervisory responsibility but one of them in the opposite direction of the hypothesis, and the other is not direct. Age was related to perceived frequency of use of the clinical supervision model however in a highly significant manner; younger principals perceived themselves as using a system of clinical supervision far more often than their older counterparts. (See Table 4-31).

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-29

The Relationship of Age to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Lead Teachers in an Analysis of Teaching Skills

Age		Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 40	Count	3	13	16	32
	Row Percentage	9.4	40.6	50.0	31.4
41-50	Count	6	14	23	43
	Row Percentage	14.0	32.6	53.5	42.2
Over 50	Count	0	19	8	27
	Row Percentage	0	70.4	29.6	26.5
Column Totals		9	46	47	102
		8.8	45.1	46.1	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 11.35, 4 degrees of freedom, significance = .0229

Cramer's V = .24

TABLE 4-30

The Relationship of Age to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Provide a Climate Conducive for Teacher Consultation

Age		Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 40	Count	0	7	25	32
	Row Percentage	0	21.9	78.1	31.1
41-50	Count	0	2	42	44
	Row Percentage	0	4.5	95.5	42.7
Over 50	Count	0	1	26	27
	Row Percentage	0	3.7	96.3	26.2
	Column Totals	0	10	93	103
		0	9.7	90.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 7.85 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0197

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-31

The Relationship of Age to Perceived Frequency of Use of a Clinical Supervision Model

Age		Frequency of Use				
		Never	Seldom	Often	Always	Row Totals
Under 40	Count	4	7	15	6	32
	Row Percentage	12.5	21.9	46.9	18.8	31.1
41-50	Count	3	20	20	1	44
	Row Percentage	6.8	45.5	45.5	2.3	42.7
Over 50	Count	2	13	12	0	27
	Row Percentage	7.4	48.1	44.4	0	26.2
	Column Totals	9	40	47	7	103
		8.7	38.8	45.6	6.8	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 14.14 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0282

Cramer's V = .26

H_6 There will be a significant and direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The number of schools a principal was responsible for administering was statistically related to variables of perceived expertise to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.4207
2	Formative Evaluations	.6872
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.7597
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.7703
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3992
6	Analyze Data	.9051
7	Keep Appointment	.3028
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.9880
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.7619
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.3352
11	Help with Time on Task	.7300
12	Help with High Level Thinking Skills	.9131
13	Help with Active Participation	.9196
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.2615
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.2675
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.1229
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.1939
18	Supervise Monthly	.2306
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.1287
20	Establish Positive Climate	.7608

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .0214**

** Significant at the .05 level with skewed directionality - See Table 4-32.

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-32

Relationship of the Number of Schools a Principal is Responsible for Administering and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Perform Clinical Supervisory Functions

No. of Schools		Perceived Expertise			
		Low Skilled	Medium Skilled	Highly Skilled	Row Totals
One	Count	13	59	15	87
	Row Percentage	14.9	67.8	17.2	84.5
Two or More	Count	5	5	6	16
	Row Percentage	31.3	31.3	37.5	18.5
	Column Totals	18	64	21	103
		17.5	62.1	20.4	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 7.69 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0214

Cramer's V = .27

H_7 There will be a significant and direct inverse relationship between the number of schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The number of schools a principal was responsible for administering was related statistically to variables of perceived responsibility in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.5676
2	Formative Evaluations	.8362
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.6077
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.3470
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.2907
6	Analyze Data	.7484
7	Keep Appointment	.6788
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.7419
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.8082
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.1371
11	Help with Time on Task	.0854
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.0201*
13	Help with Active Participation	.0337*
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.3011
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.2928
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.0762
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.7463
18	Supervise Monthly	.1404
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.2538
20	Establish Positive Climate	.3845

Total Responsibility Relationship = .1678

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-33 and 4-33A

The hypothesis is accepted for two variables.

TABLE 4-33

The Relationship of the Number of Schools a Principal Must Administer to the Perceived Responsibility Assumed by the Principal to Help Teachers Teach Students Higher Level Thinking Skills

No. of Schools		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
One	Count	4	45	37	86
	Row Percentage	4.7	52.3	43.0	84.3
Two or More	Count	4	6	6	16
	Row Percentage	25.0	37.5	37.5	15.7
	Column Totals	8	51	43	102
		7.8	50.0	42.2	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 7.81 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0201

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-33A

The Relationship of the Number of Schools a Principal Must Administer to the Perceived Responsibility Assumed by the Principal to Help Teachers Acquire Active Participation of Students

No. of Schools		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
One	Count	1	32	53	86
	Row Percentage	1.2	37.2	61.6	84.3
Two or More	Count	2	7	7	16
	Row Percentage	12.5	43.8	43.8	15.7
	Column Totals	3	39	60	102
		2.9	38.2	58.8	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 6.78 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0337

Cramer's V = .26

H_8 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between school enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

Student enrollment of schools administered by a principal was statistically related to the self perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervisory function in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1529
2	Formative Evaluations	.0540
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.3973
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.1256
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.8518
6	Analyze Data	.4639
7	Keep Appointment	.9601
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.7278
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.6849
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.7120
11	Help with Time on Task	.2640
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.2592
13	Help with Active Participation	.1380
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.5618
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.7822
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.4866
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.2411
18	Supervise Monthly	.4896
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4260
20	Establish Positive Climate	.9107

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .7119

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_9 There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the enrollment in schools supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Student enrollment of the schools administered by a principal was related statistically to variables of perceived responsibility in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.6845
2	Formative Evaluations	.5161
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.5292
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.1121
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.4873
6	Analyze Data	.0081**
7	Keep Appointment	.0918
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0279**
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.3547
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.5394
11	Help with Time on Task	.5195
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.7692
13	Help with Active Participation	.2608
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.1699
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.5044
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.6246
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.3618
18	Supervise Monthly	.1995
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.0902
20	Establish Positive Climate	.7242

Total Responsibility Relationship = .0399*

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-34, 4-35, and 4-36

** Significant at .05 level but no directionality

Cramer's V - .28

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-34

Relationship of Student Enrollment of a Principal's School(s) to Perceived Responsibility Assumed for the Analysis of Data Obtained from a Classroom Observation Prior to a Conference with a Teacher

School Enrollment		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 251	Count	0	0	8	8
	Row Percentage	0	0	100.0	7.8
251 to 350	Count	0	9	18	27
	Row Percentage	0	33.3	66.7	26.2
351 to 450	Count	1	17	12	30
	Row Percentage	3.3	56.7	40.0	29.1
451 to 550	Count	1	6	14	21
	Row Percentage	4.8	28.6	66.7	20.4
Over 550	Count	0	1	16	17
	Row Percentage	0	5.9	94.1	16.5
	Column Totals	2	33	68	103
		1.9	32.0	66.0	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 20.65 -- 8 degrees of freedom, significance = .0081

Cramer's V = .32

TABLE 4-35

Relationship of Student Enrollment of a Principal's School(s) to Perceived Responsibility for Leadership of an Analysis of a Teaching Skill with a Teacher

School Size		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 251	Count	0	2	6	8
	Row Percentage	0	25.0	75.0	7.8
251 to 350	Count	1	12	14	27
	Row Percentage	3.7	44.4	51.9	26.5
351 to 450	Count	2	20	8	30
	Row Percentage	6.7	66.7	26.7	29.4
451 to 550	Count	2	9	9	20
	Row Percentage	10.0	45.0	45.0	19.6
Over 550	Count	4	3	10	17
	Row Percentage	23.5	17.6	58.8	16.7
	Column Totals	9	46	47	102
		8.8	45.1	46.1	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 17.22 -- 8 degrees of freedom, significance = .0279

Cramer's V = .29

TABLE 4-36

Relationship of Student Enrollment of a Principal's School(s) to Scores of Perceived Responsibility Assumed for Clinical Supervisory Activities

School Size		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		Weak Responsibility	Moderate Responsibility	Strong Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 251	Count	0	4	4	8
	Row Percentage	0	50.0	50.0	7.8
251 to 350	Count	2	15	10	27
	Row Percentage	7.4	55.6	37.0	26.2
351 to 450	Count	9	19	2	30
	Row Percentage	30.0	63.3	6.7	29.1
451 to 550	Count	3	14	4	21
	Row Percentage	14.3	66.7	19.0	20.4
Over 550	Count	2	12	3	17
	Row Percentage	11.8	70.6	17.6	16.5
	Column Totals	16	64	23	103
		15.5	62.1	22.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 16.18 -- 8 degrees of freedom, significance = .0399

Cramer's V = .28

H_{10} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The number of years of teaching experience of a principal was related statistically to perceived clinical supervisory expertise in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.8106
2	Formative Evaluations	.5887
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.3390
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.7047
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3665
6	Analyze Data	.6175
7	Keep Appointment	.3465
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.2451
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.2209
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.5554
11	Help with Time on Task	.2549
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.7074
13	Help with Active Participation	.3970
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.5380
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3155
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.8273
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.6716
18	Supervise Monthly	.7859
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.3052
20	Establish Positive Climate	.7085

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .7398

The hypothesis is accepted.

H_{11} Teaching experience of principals will have no significant relationship to perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The number of years of teaching experience of a principal was related statistically to variables of perceived responsibility for clinical supervision in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.3766
2	Formative Evaluations	.4219
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.3048
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.2805
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.6086
6	Analyze Data	.5582
7	Keep Appointment	.2118
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0903
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.6656
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.6349
11	Help with Time on Task	.6513
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.9332
13	Help with Active Participation	.9369
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.9712
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3698
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.3670
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.2482
18	Supervise Monthly	.0846
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4258
20	Establish Positive Climate	.0480*

Total Responsibility Relationship = .8113

* Significant at .05 Level - See Table 4-37

The hypothesis is accepted.

TABLE 4-37

Relationship of the Number of Years of Teaching Experience of a Principal and the Perceived Responsibility Assumed by Principals to Establish a Climate Encouraging Staff Consultation of the Principal

Years of Teaching Experience		Perceived Responsibility: No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 6	Count	0	7	28	35
	Row Percentage	0	20	80	34.0
6 - 10	Count	0	1	34	35
	Row Percentage	0	2.9	97.1	34.0
11 - 15	Count	0	0	16	16
	Row Percentage	0	0	100.0	15.5
Over 15	Count	0	2	15	17
	Row Percentage	0	11.8	88.2	16.5
	Column Totals	0	10	93	103
		0	9.7	90.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 7.91 - 3 degrees of freedom, significance = .0480

Cramer's V = .28

H_{12} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The number of classroom teachers supervised by a principal was related statistically to the perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervision functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.0570
2	Formative Evaluations	.1105
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.6328
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0226**
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.7026
6	Analyze Data	.3508
7	Keep Appointment	.7625
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.7452
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.7750
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.7183
11	Help with Time on Task	.2910
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.7807
13	Help with Active Participation	.5091
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.2891
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.6515
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.2751
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.2242
18	Supervise Monthly	.6834
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.1310
20	Establish Positive Climate	.9788

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .4713

** Disnificant at the .05 Level but with no directionality - See Table 4-38

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-38

The Relationship of the Number of Classroom Teachers Supervised by a Principal and the Practice of Principals to Keep Appointments at Agreed-Upon Times for Observation of Teachers

Classroom Teachers		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Medium Weak	Medium Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Under 14	Count	5	8	5	6	7	1	32
	Row Percentage	15.6	25.0	15.6	16.8	21.9	3.1	31.7
14-20	Count	3	4	10	18	6	6	47
	Row Percentage	6.4	8.5	21.3	38.3	12.6	12.8	46.5
Over 20	Count	2	3	1	3	9	4	22
	Row Percentage	9.1	13.6	4.5	13.6	40.9	18.2	21.8
	Column Totals	10	15	16	27	22	11	101
		9.9	14.9	15.8	26.7	21.8	10.9	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 20.80 -- 10 degrees of freedom, significance = .0226

Cramer's V = .32

TABLE 4-39

The Relationship of District Enrollment to the Perceived Responsibility for the Scheduling of Appointments with Teachers by Principals for Clinical Supervisory Interaction

District Enrollment		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Small 2500 & Less	Count	1	4	33	38
	Row Percentage	2.6	10.5	86.8	36.9
Medium 2501-- 5000	Count	1	3	27	31
	Row Percentage	3.7	9.7	87.1	30.1
Large 5001+	Count	1	12	21	34
	Row Percentage	2.9	35.3	61.8	33.0
	Column Totals	3	19	81	103
		2.9	18.4	78.6	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 9.68 -- 4 degrees of freedom, significance = .0463

Cramer's V = .22

H_{13} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The number of classroom teachers supervised by a principal was related statistically to variables of perceived responsibility for clinical supervision in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.7282
2	Formative Evaluations	.6822
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.4609
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.9835
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.9497
6	Analyze Data	.2072
7	Keep Appointment	.3836
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0554
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.7239
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.5709
11	Help with Time on Task	.0915
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.3372
13	Help with Active Participation	.1812
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0874
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3207
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.6390
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.5046
18	Supervise Monthly	.0977
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.3616
20	Establish Positive Climate	.5978

Total Responsibility Relationship = .3384

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{14} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The total number of teachers supervised by a principal is related statistically to the perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervision functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.2363
2	Formative Evaluations	.5574
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0891
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.5883
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.1402
6	Analyze Data	.0791
7	Keep Appointment	.8853
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.9803
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.2648
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.3086
11	Help with Time on Task	.6010
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skills	.1934
13	Help with Active Participation	.5482
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.2399
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3839
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.1114
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.4542
18	Supervise Monthly	.6959
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.5452
20	Establish Positive Climate	.4963

Total Expertise Relationship - .7773

Cramer's V = .09278

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{15} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The total number of teachers supervised by a principal is statistically related to the perceived responsibility of principals to perform clinical supervision functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.8400
2	Formative Evaluations	.4034
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.4323
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.9442
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3310
6	Analyze Data	.7196
7	Keep Appointment	.3543
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.3954
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.2558
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.6170
11	Help with Time on Task	.5644
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.3277
13	Help with Active Participation	.5677
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.4820
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.2400
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.4736
17	Help Teachers Self-Evalaute	.8523
18	Supervise Monthly	.8952
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.8030
20	Establish Positive Climate	.3400

Total Responsibility Relationship = .8088

Cramer's V = .08813

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{16} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The enrollment of the district in which a principal works is related statistically to perceived clinical supervisory expertise in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.7244
2	Formative Evaluations	.4336
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.2203
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0551
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.8088
6	Analyze Data	.1455
7	Keep Appointment	.3176
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.3751
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.2464
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.2325
11	Help with Time on Task	.7805
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.0864
13	Help with Active Participation	.3695
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.8245
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.2345
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.1415
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.4277
18	Supervise Monthly	.4207
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.3319
20	Establish Positive Climate	.3772

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .7755

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{17} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between district size and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The enrollment of the district in which a principal works is related statistically to the perceived responsibility assumed by a principal for clinical supervisory activities in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.4313
2	Formative Evaluations	.0754
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.6508
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.3972
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.0463**
6	Analyze Data	.2902
7	Keep Appointment	.2422
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0500**
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.7951
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4439
11	Help with Time on Task	.0882
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.7725
13	Help with Active Participation	.5473
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0134
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3748
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.2709
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.9524
18	Supervise Monthly	.3136
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.9544
20	Establish Positive Climate	.5817

Total Responsibility Relationship = .7706

** Significant at the .05 level but with no directionality - See Tables 4-39 and 4-40

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-40

The Relationship of District Enrollment to the Perceived Responsibility for the Leadership of the Analysis of Teaching Skills by the Principal

District Enrollment		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Small 2500 or Less	Count	6	10	21	37
	Row Percentage	16.2	27.0	56.8	36.3
Medium 2500 -- 5000	Count	2	17	12	31
	Row Percentage	6.5	54.8	38.7	30.4
Large 5001 +	Count	1	19	14	34
	Row Percentage	2.9	55.9	41.2	33.0
	Column Totals	9	46	47	102
		8.8	45.1	46.1	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 9.49 -- 4 degrees of freedom, significance = .0500

Cramer's V = .22

H^{18} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The tenure of principals in position is related statistically to perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervisory activities in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.2319
2	Formative Evaluations	.6000
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.3247
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.2619
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.7154
6	Analyze Data	.8253
7	Keep Appointment	.7052
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.2773
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.3492
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4107
11	Help with Time on Task	.6460
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.9306
13	Help with Active Participation	.8865
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.6926
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.5736
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.9126
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.8879
18	Supervise Monthly	.9204
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.7800
20	Establish Positive Climate	.3122

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .8877

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{19} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between longevity as a principal and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The tenure of principals in the principalship is related statistically to their perceived acceptance of responsibility for clinical supervisory activities in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.8356
2	Formative Evaluations	.0984
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.5821
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.6834
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.9334
6	Analyze Data	.0426*
7	Keep Appointment	.2664
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.5262
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.1256
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4906
11	Help with Time on Task	.3144
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.9358
13	Help with Active Participation	.5772
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.1711
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.4245
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.7134
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.6041
18	Supervise Monthly	.6039
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4808
20	Establish Positive Climate	.5133

Total Responsibility Relationship = .6014

* Significant at .05 level but with no directionality - See Table 4-41.

The hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE 4-41

The Relationship of the Tenure of Principals in the Principalship to their Perceived Responsibility Assumed for the Analysis of Data Obtained from the Observation of Teaching

Principal Tenure		Perceived Responsibility Assumed			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Under 6	Count	0	5	22	27
	Row Percentage	0	18.5	81.5	26.2
6-10	Count	2	5	15	22
	Row Percentage	9.1	22.7	68.2	21.4
11-15	Count	0	14	18	32
	Row Percentage	0	43.8	56.3	31.1
Over 15	Count	0	9	13	22
	Row Percentage	0	40.9	59.1	21.4
	Column Totals	2	33	68	103
		1.9	32.0	66.0	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 13.03 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0426

Cramer's V = .25

H_{20} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The factor of extra systemwide responsibilities being required for principals was related statistically to the perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.8865
2	Formative Evaluations	.5393
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.3612
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.1640
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.4286
6	Analyze Data	.8237
7	Keep Appointment	.5757
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.3783
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.6205
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4604
11	Help with Time on Task	.8804
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.3457
13	Help with Active Participation	.1429
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.4251
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.3247
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.4610
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.0811
18	Supervise Monthly	.0520
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.6882
20	Establish Positive Climate	.5983

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship - .5290

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{21} There will be a significant direct inverse relationship between extra responsibility for principals and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The factor of extra systemwide responsibilities for principals was related statistically to their perceived responsibility for clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.4354
2	Formative Evaluations	.6235
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.6862
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.7638
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.6303
6	Analyze Data	.4387
7	Keep Appointment	.1816
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0628
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.8248
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.6250
11	Help with Time on Task	.5970
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.9872
13	Help with Active Participation	.7818
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.6213
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	1.0000
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.9053
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.9185
18	Supervise Monthly	.1517
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.5808
20	Establish Positive Climate	1.0000

Total Responsibility Relationship - .1952

The hypothesis is rejected.

H_{22} The number of formal teacher evaluations required will equal the number of formative teacher evaluations performed.

The relationship of summative evaluations required for tenured teachers and formative evaluations performed by principals:

Summative Evaluations		Formative Evaluations			
		Less than Twice Annually	Twice Annually	More than Twice Annually	Row Total
Less than Twice Annually	Count	74	10	12	96
	Row Percentage	77.1	10.4	12.5	94.0
Twice Annually	Count	3	1	0	4
	Row Percentage	75.0	25.0	0	
More than Twice Annually	Count	0	1	1	2
	Row Percentage	0	50.0	50.0	20
Column Totals		77	12	13	102
		75.5	11.8	12.7	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 14.28 6 degrees of freedom significance .0267

The hypothesis is accepted.

H_{23} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect on perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The formal education of principals in supervision is related statistically to perceived expertise of principals in clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.8585
2	Formative Evaluations	.4039
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.2972
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.3911
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3479
6	Analyze Data	.3233
7	Keep Appointment	.3152
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.3385
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.5281
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.4205
11	Help with Time on Task	.0466*
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.6543
13	Help with Active Participation	.7708
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.1682
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.4059
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.9207
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.5530
18	Supervise Monthly	.4766
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.2785
20	Establish Positive Climate	.0703

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .6954

* Significant at the .05 level - See Table 4-42

The hypothesis is accepted.

TABLE 4-42

The Relationship of Formal Education in Supervision to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers to Cause Students to Spend Time on Task

Formal Education		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Zero	Count	2	3	5	11	7	4	32
	Row Percentage	6.3	9.4	15.6	34.4	21.9	12.5	31.7
1-6 Semester Hours	Count	1	0	1	16	16	4	38
	Row Percentage	2.6	0	2.6	42.1	42.1	10.5	37.6
7-18 Semester Hours	Count	1	5	2	2	7	2	19
	Row Percentage	5.3	26.3	10.5	10.5	36.8	10.5	18.8
Over 18 Semester Hours	Count	1	0	0	6	3	2	12
	Row Percentage	8.3	0	0	50.0	25.0	16.7	11.9
	Column Totals	5	8	8	35	33	12	101
		5.0	7.9	7.9	34.7	32.7	11.9	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 25.26 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0466

Cramer's V = .29

H_{24} The amount of formal education in supervision will have no significant positive effect of perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The formal education obtained by a principal in supervision is statistically related to the variables of perceived responsibility for clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.6631
2	Formative Evaluations	.1836
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.8574
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0306*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.7263
6	Analyze Data	.6353
7	Keep Appointment	.5475
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.4588
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.3662
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.1623
11	Help with Time on Task	.4257
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.4582
13	Help with Active Participation	.9212
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0834
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.9300
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.5256
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.6805
18	Supervise Monthly	.1711
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.1922
20	Establish Positive Climate	.1753

Total Responsibility Relationship = .3119

* Significant at the .05 level - See Table 4-43

The hypothesis is accepted.

TABLE 4-43

The Relationship of Formal Education in Supervision and Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility by Principals to Observe Teaching at Agreed-Upon Times

Formal Education		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Zero	Count	6	5	22	33
	Row Percentage	18.2	15.2	66.7	32.0
1-6	Count	1	17	21	39
	Row Percentage	2.6	43.6	53.8	37.9
7-18	Count	4	5	10	19
	Row Percentage	21.1	26.3	52.6	18.4
Over 18	Count	4	3	5	12
	Row Percentage	33.3	25.0	41.7	11.7
	Column Totals	15	30	58	103
		14.6	29.1	56.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 13.91 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0206

Cramer's V = .26

H_{25} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The factor of whether or not a principal has had a professional development program in clinical supervision or teacher evaluation is related statistically to variables of perceived clinical supervisory expertise in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1519
2	Formative Evaluations	.0293*
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0346*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0454*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.3650
6	Analyze Data	.4668
7	Keep Appointment	.8285
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.1180
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.5252
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.7992
11	Help with Time on Task	.3852
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.3729
13	Help with Active Participation	.7018
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0142*
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.5697
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.4395
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.6613
18	Supervise Monthly	.6421
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.8049
20	Establish Positive Climate	.7551

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .2491

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-44, 4-45, 4-46, and 4-47.

The hypothesis is accepted for four variables but rejected overall.

TABLE 4-44

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct Formative Evaluations

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility						
		Very Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	1	2	11	5	3	22
	Row Percentage	0	4.5	9.1	50.0	22.7	13.6	21.8
No	Count	2	8	22	24	22	1	79
	Row Percentage	2.5	10.1	27.8	30.4	27.8	1.3	78.2
	Column Totals	2 2.0	9 8.9	24 23.8	35 34.7	27 26.7	4 4.0	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.44 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0293

Cramer's V = .35

TABLE 4-45

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct a Pre-Observation Conference

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility						
		Very Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	3	4	5	7	3	22
	Row Percentage	0	13.6	18.2	22.7	31.8	13.6	21.8
No	Count	20	17	15	10	9	8	79
	Row Percentage	25.3	21.5	19.0	12.7	11.4	10.1	78.2
	Column Totals	20 19.8	20 19.8	19 18.8	15 14.9	16 15.8	11 10.9	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.02 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0346

Cramer's V = .34

TABLE 4-46

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Observe Teacher at Agreed-Upon Times

Professional Development Programs		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	0	3	10	6	3	22
	Row Percentage	0	0	13.6	45.5	27.3	13.6	21.8
No	Count	10	15	13	17	16	8	79
	Row Percentage	12.7	19.0	16.5	21.5	20.3	10.1	78.2
	Column Totals	10 9.9	15 14.9	16 15.8	27 26.7	22 21.8	11 10.9	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 11.32 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0434

Cramer's V = .33

TABLE 4-47

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers Acquire Teaching Skills Proven by Research to be Effective

Professional Development Programs		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	1	5	4	7	5	22
	Row Percentage	0	4.5	22.7	18.2	31.8	22.7	21.6
No	Count	4	5	18	32	19	2	80
	Row Percentage	5.0	6.3	22.5	40.0	23.8	2.5	78.4
	Column Totals	4 3.9	6 5.9	23 22.5	36 35.3	26 25.5	7 6.9	102 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 14.24 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0142

Cramer's V = .37

H_{26} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between staff development in supervision and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The factor of whether or not a principal has had a comprehensive professional devleopment program in clinical supervision or teacher evaluation is related statistically to the perceived responsibility of principals to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.0172*
2	Formative Evaluations	.4895
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0021*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0489*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.2239
6	Analyze Data	.1501
7	Keep Appointment	.2753
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.1882
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.5764
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.9416
11	Help with Time on Task	.3438
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.2161
13	Help with Active Participation	.2050
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0974
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	1.0000
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.6389
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.4784
18	Supervise Monthly	.0465*
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4643
20	Establish Positive Climate	.1661

Total Responsibility Relationship = .0433*

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-48, 4-49, 4-50, 4-51 and 4-52.

The hypothesis is accepted.

TABLE 4-48

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Help Teachers Understand the Learning Process

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	7	16	23
	Row Percentage	0	30.4	69.6	22.3
No	Count	7	43	30	80
	Row Percentage	8.8	53.7	37.5	77.7
	Column Totals	7 6.8	50 48.5	46 44.7	103 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 8.13 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0172

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-49

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Conduct Pre-Observation Conferences

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Yes	Count	1	7	15	23
	Row Percentage	4.3	30.4	65.2	22.5
No	Count	18	40	21	79
	Row Percentage	22.4	50.6	26.6	77.5
	Column Totals	19 18.6	47 46.1	36 35.3	102 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.36 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0021

Cramer's V = .35

TABLE 4-50

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Observe Teachers at Agreed-Upon Times

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Yes	Count	0	6	17	23
	Row Percentage	0	26.1	73.9	22.3
No	Count	15	24	41	80
	Row Percentage	18.8	30.0	51.3	77.7
	Column Totals	15 14.6	30 29.1	58 56.3	103 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 6.04 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0489

Cramer's V = .24

TABLE 4-51

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Conduct Monthly Formative Staff Evaluations

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Yes	Count	2	14	7	23
	Row Percentage	8.7	60.9	30.4	22.5
No	Count	28	34	17	79
	Row Percentage	38.4	43.0	21.5	77.5
	Column Totals	30 29.4	48 47.1	24 23.5	102 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 6.14 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0465

Cramer's V = .25

H_{27} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{28} There will be a significant positive and direct relationship between perceived sense of authority and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Due to the poor scattering of scores on authority (the scores were very high -- see table 4-53) no analysis was possible.

The hypothesis was not testable with the present data.

TABLE 4-52

The Relationship of Professional Development Programs in Clinical Supervision or Teacher Evaluation to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Perform Clinical Supervisory Functions

Professional Development Program		Perceived Responsibility			Row Totals
		Weak	Average	Strong	
Yes	Count	1	13	9	23
	Row Percentage	4.3	56.5	39.1	22.3
No	Count	15	51	14	80
	Row Percentage	18.8	63.8	17.5	77.7
	Column Totals	16	64	23	103
		15.5	62.1	22.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 6.28 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0433

Cramer's V = .25

TABLE 4-53

The Perception of Authority Over the Instructional Program Held by Elementary Principals

N = 103

		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
No Authority	1	1	1.0	1.0
	2	4	3.9	4.9
	3	16	15.5	20.4
	4	39	37.9	58.3
	5	33	32.0	90.3
Complete Authority	6	10	9.7	100.0

MEAN = 4.25 Standard Deviation = 1.02

MODE = 4.0

MEDIAN 4.28

H_{29} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

H_{30} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived sense of efficacy and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

Due to the poor scattering of scores on sense of efficacy (the scores were very high -- see tables 4-54, 4-55, 4-56), no analysis was possible.

The hypothesis was not testable with the present data.

TABLE 4-54

The Perceived Effects of Principals on Student Learning as Reflected by Test Scores

Category Label		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cummulative Frequency
No Effect	1	0	0	0
	2	0	0	0
	3	8	7.8	7.8
	4	17	16.5	24.3
	5	50	48.5	72.8
Great Effect	6	28	27.2	100.0

MEAN = 4.95 Standard Deviation = .87

MODE = 5.0

MEDIAN = 5.03

TABLE 4-55

Principal Perception of the Difference Teachers Make in Student Learning

Category Label		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cummulative Frequency
Not at All	1	0	0	0
	2	0	0	0
	3	1	1.0	1.0
	4	8	7.8	8.7
	5	49	47.6	56.3
Very Much	6	45	43.7	100.0

MEAN = 5.34 Standard Deviation = .66

MODE = 5.0

MEDIAN = 5.03

TABLE 4-56

Principal Perceptions of Teacher's Ability to "Get Through to" the Most Unmotivated Child

Category Label		Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
Not at All	1	1	1.0	1.0
	2	4	3.9	4.9
	3	6	5.8	10.7
	4	19	18.4	29.1
	5	40	38.8	68.0
Very Much	6	33	32.0	100.0

MEAN = 4.86 Standard Deviation = 1.11

MODE = 5.0

MEDIAN = 5.04

TABLE 4-57

The Relationship of Role Perception to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct Pre-Observation Conferences

Role		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Clinician	Count	4	9	9	4	12	7	45
	Row Percentage	8.9	20.0	20.0	8.9	26.7	15.6	46.4
Evaluator	Count	14	11	8	11	4	4	52
	Row Percentage	26.9	21.2	15.4	21.2	7.7	7.7	53.6
	Column Totals	18 18.8	20 20.6	17 17.5	15 15.5	16 16.5	11 11.3	97 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 13.46 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0194

Cramer's V = .37

H_{31} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The perceived role of a principal is related statistically to variables of perceived clinical supervisory expertise in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.2121
2	Formative Evaluations	.0980
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0194*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.3480
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.4675
6	Analyze Data	.1832
7	Keep Appointment	.5232
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0291*
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.2828
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.0446*
11	Help with Time on Task	.2677
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.2175
13	Help with Active Participation	.1593
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.3231
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.7243
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.3931
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.3869
18	Supervise Monthly	.3705
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.8946
20	Establish Positive Climate	.7270

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship - .1772

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-57, 4-58, and 4-59.

The hypothesis is accepted for three variables.

TABLE 4-58

The Relationship of the Perceived Role Assumed by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Lead Teachers in an Analysis of a Teaching Skill

Role		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Clinician	Count	0	1	11	19	9	4	44
	Row Percentage	0	2.3	25.0	43.2	20.5	9.1	45.8
Evaluator	Count	7	7	11	12	9	6	52
	Row Percentage	13.5	13.5	21.2	23.1	17.3	11.5	54.2
	Column Totals	7	8	22	31	18	10	96
		7.3	8.3	22.9	32.3	18.8	10.4	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.90 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0243

Cramer's V = .37

TABLE 4-59

The Relationship of the Perceived Role Assumed by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers Match Instructional Materials to Instructional Goals

Role		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Clinician	Count	0	0	4	16	15	9	44
	Row Percentage	0	0	9.1	36.4	34.1	20.5	45.8
Evaluator	Count	2	7	4	9	22	8	52
	Row Percentage	3.8	13.5	7.7	17.3	42.3	15.4	54.2
	Column Totals	2	7	8	25	37	17	96
		2.1	7.3	8.3	26.0	38.5	17.7	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 11.76 -- 5 degrees of freedom, significance = .0383

Cramer's V = .35

H_{32} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived role as a clinician and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The perceived role of a principal is related statistically to the perceived responsibility of principals to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1633
2	Formative Evaluations	.0816
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.2263
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.4857
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.9878
6	Analyze Data	.4880
7	Keep Appointment	.5851
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0774
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.3147
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.3457
11	Help with Time on Task	.1775
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.1401
13	Help with Active Participation	.4224
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0663
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.8069
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.4594
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.0198*
18	Supervise Monthly	.1143
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.4419
20	Establish Positive Climate	.9757

Total Responsibility Relationship = .2685

* Significant at the .05 level - See Table 4-60.

The hypothesis is accepted for one variable.

TABLE 4-60

The Relationship of Role Perception to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Help Teachers Self-Evaluate and Self-Improve Their Teaching

Role		Perceived Responsibility: No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Clinician	Count	0	20	25	45
	Row Percentage	0	44.4	55.6	45.5
Evaluator	Count	7	27	20	54
	Row Percentage	13.0	50.0	37.0	54.5
	Column Totals	7 7.1	47 47.5	45 45.5	99 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 7.84 -- 2 degrees of freedom, significance = .0198

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-61

The Relationship of the Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Conduct Pre-Observation Conferences.

Perceived Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise: Very Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	7	1	0	0	1	0	9
	Row Percentage	77.8	11.1	0	0	11.1	0	8.9
Seldom	Count	7	11	9	8	3	1	39
	Row Percentage	17.9	28.2	23.1	20.5	7.7	2.6	38.6
Often	Count	5	8	10	6	10	7	46
	Row Percentage	10.9	17.4	21.7	13.0	21.7	15.2	45.5
Always	Count	1	0	0	1	2	3	7
	Row Percentage	14.3	0	0	14.3	28.6	42.9	6.9
	Column Totals	20 19.8	20 19.8	19 18.8	15 14.9	16 15.8	11 10.9	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 40.75 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0004

Cramer's V = .37

H_{33} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived frequency of use of a clinical supervisory model and perceived clinical supervisory expertise.

The factor of how often a principal perceives using a system of clinical supervision is related statistically to variables of perceived expertise to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1909
2	Formative Evaluations	.1408
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0004*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0009*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.1307
6	Analyze Data	.2012
7	Keep Appointment	.2392
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0682
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.0012*
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.0059*
11	Help with Time on Task	.1091
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.0581
13	Help with Active Participation	.0946
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.1790
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.0947
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.0871
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.0001*
18	Supervise Monthly	.0151*
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.2188
20	Establish Positive Climate	.1225

Total Perceived Expertise Relationship = .1263

* Significant at the .05 level - See Tables 4-61, 4-62, 4-63, 4-64, 4-65 and 4-66.

The hypothesis is accepted for six variables.

TABLE 4-62

The Relationship of the Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision to the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Observe Teaching at Agreed-Upon Times

Perceived Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	5	1	1	0	0	2	9
	Row Percentage	55.6	11.1	11.1	0	0	22.2	8.9
Seldom	Count	1	7	9	10	11	1	39
	Row Percentage	2.6	17.9	23.1	25.6	28.2	2.6	38.6
Often	Count	4	7	6	14	9	6	46
	Row Percentage	8.7	15.2	13.0	30.4	19.6	13.0	45.5
Always	Count	0	0	0	3	2	2	7
	Row Percentage	0	0	0	42.9	28.6	28.6	6.9
	Column Totals	10	15	16	27	22	11	101
		8.9	14.9	15.8	26.7	21.8	10.9	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 38.00 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0009

Cramer's V = .35

TABLE 4-63

The Relationship of Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Suggest Instructional Methods to Teachers

Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	2	0	3	0	2	2	9
	Row Percentage	22.0	0	33.3	0	22.2	22.2	9.0
Seldom	Count	0	3	3	10	15	8	39
	Row Percentage	0	7.7	7.7	25.6	38.5	20.5	39.0
Often	Count	0	0	4	12	16	13	45
	Row Percentage	0	0	8.9	26.7	35.6	28.9	45.0
Always	Count	0	0	0	1	2	4	7
	Row Percentage	0	0	0	14.3	28.6	57.1	7.0
	Column Totals	2	3	10	23	35	27	100
		2.0	3.0	10.0	23.0	35.0	27.0	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 37.20 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0012

Cramer's V = .35

TABLE 4-64

The Relationship of Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers Match Instructional Materials to Instructional Goals

Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	2	1	2	2	1	1	9
	Row Percentage	22.2	11.1	22.2	22.2	11.1	11.1	9.0
Seldom	Count	0	6	3	8	16	6	39
	Row Percentage	0	15.4	7.7	20.5	41.0	15.4	39.0
Often	Count	0	1	4	13	18	9	45
	Row Percentage	0	2.2	8.9	28.9	40.0	20.0	45.0
Always	Count	0	0	0	3	2	2	7
	Row Percentage	0	0	0	42.9	28.6	28.6	7.0
	Column Totals	2 2.0	8 8.0	9 9.0	26 26.0	37 37.0	18 18.0	100 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 32.26 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0059

Cramer's V = .33

TABLE 4-65

The Relationship of Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Help Teachers Self-Evaluate and Self-Improve

Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	3	1	2	2	0	1	9
	Row Percentage	33.3	11.1	22.2	22.2	0	11.1	8.9
Seldom	Count	0	9	6	15	7	2	39
	Row Percentage	0	23.1	15.4	38.5	17.9	5.1	38.6
Often	Count	0	3	8	16	16	3	46
	Row Percentage	0	6.5	17.4	34.8	34.8	6.5	45.5
Always	Count	0	0	2	4	1	0	7
	Row Percentage	0	0	28.6	57.1	14.3	0	6.9
	Column Totals	3 3.0	13 12.9	18 17.8	37 36.6	24 23.8	6 5.9	101 100.0

Raw Chi Square = 44.46 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0001

Cramer's V = .38

TABLE 4-66

The Relationship of Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision by Principals and the Perceived Expertise of Principals to Supervise Teaching for Formative Reasons at Least Monthly

Perceived Frequency of Usage of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Expertise						
		Very Weak	Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Row Totals
Never	Count	7	1	0	0	0	1	9
	Row Percentage	77.8	11.1	0	0	0	11.1	9.0
Seldom	Count	14	13	8	3	0	1	39
	Row Percentage	35.9	33.3	20.5	7.7	0	2.6	39.0
Often	Count	11	7	8	12	5	2	45
	Row Percentage	24.4	15.6	17.8	26.7	11.1	4.4	45.0
Always	Count	0	3	1	2	1	0	7
	Row Percentage	0	42.9	14.3	28.6	14.3	0	7.0

Raw Chi Square = 29.22 -- 15 degrees of freedom, significance = .0151

Cramer's V = .31

H_{34} There will be a significant direct and positive relationship between perceived frequency of use of a clinical supervisory model and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

The factors of how often a principal perceived himself or herself using a system of clinical supervision is related statistically to the perceived responsibility of principals to perform clinical supervisory functions in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.1772
2	Formative Evaluations	.0132*
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0157*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0483*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.2472
6	Analyze Data	.3175
7	Keep Appointment	.3933
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.7241
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.0746
10.	Help Match Materials to Goals	.2988
11	Help with Time on Task	.6627
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.3083
13	Help with Active Participation	.4213
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0951
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.2119
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.3438
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.1298
18	Supervise Monthly	.0876
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.0983
20	Establish Positive Climate	.5571

Total Responsibility Relationship = .1125

* Significant at .05 Level -- See Tables 4-67, 4-68, and 4-69

The hypothesis is accepted for three variables.

TABLE 4-67

The Relationship of the Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Separately Evaluate Teachers for Formative Reasons

Perceived Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Never	Count	2	3	4	9
	Row Percentage	22.2	33.3	44.4	8.7
Seldom	Count	1	23	16	40
	Row Percentage	2.5	57.5	40.0	38.8
Often	Count	1	14	32	47
	Row Percentage	2.1	29.8	68.1	45.6
Always	Count	0	3	4	7
	Row Percentage	0	42.9	57.1	6.8
	Column Totals	4	43	56	103
		3.9	41.7	54.4	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 16.10 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0132

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-68

The Relationship of the Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Conduct Pre-Observation Conferences

Perceived Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Never	Count	3	6	0	9
	Row Percentage	33.3	66.7	0	8.8
Seldom	Count	10	20	9	39
	Row Percentage	25.6	51.3	23.1	38.2
Often	Count	5	20	22	47
	Row Percentage	10.6	42.6	46.8	46.1
Always	Count	1	1	5	7
	Row Percentage	14.3	14.3	71.4	6.9
	Column Totals	19	47	36	102
		18.6	46.1	35.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 15.66 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0157

Cramer's V = .28

TABLE 4-69

The Relationship of the Perceived Frequency of Use of Clinical Supervision to the Perceived Responsibility of Principals to Observe Teaching at Agreed-Upon Times

Perceived Use of Clinical Supervision		Perceived Responsibility			
		No Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	Primary Responsibility	Row Totals
Never	Count	1	2	6	9
	Row Percentage	11.1	22.2	66.7	8.7
Seldom	Count	5	19	16	40
	Row Percentage	12.3	47.5	40.0	38.8
Often	Count	7	9	31	47
	Row Percentage	14.9	19.1	66.0	45.6
Always	Count	2	0	5	7
	Row Percentage	28.6	0	71.4	6.8
	Column Totals	15	30	58	103
		14.6	29.1	56.3	100.0

Raw Chi Square = 12.69 -- 6 degrees of freedom, significance = .0483

Cramer's V = .25

H_{35} Variables of perceived responsibility assumed by principals for clinical supervision will be directly and positively related to variables of perceived clinical supervisory expertise singly and collectively.

Variables of perceived responsibility are statistically related to variables of perceived expertise in the following manner:

Factor	Description	Significance of Relationship
1	Teach Terminology	.0667
2	Formative Evaluations	.0075*
3	Pre-Observation Conference	.0000*
4	Observe Teachers on Schedule	.0001*
5	Schedule Meeting for Analysis	.0000*
6	Analyze Data	.0114*
7	Keep Appointment	.0784
8	Lead Teaching in Skill Analysis	.0000*
9	Suggest Instructional Methods	.0009*
10	Help Match Materials to Goals	.0000*
11	Help with Time on Task	.0000*
12	Help with Higher Level Thinking Skill	.0002*
13	Help with Active Participation	.0001*
14	Help Teachers Acquire Proven Skills	.0001*
15	Help Teachers Acquire Discipline Methods	.0001*
16	Help Teachers Acquire Classroom Management	.0614
17	Help Teachers Self-Evaluate	.0273*
18	Supervise Monthly	.0000*
19	Obtain Criticism of Supervision	.0009*
20	Establish Positive Climate	.0002*
	Total Relationship = .0477*	

* Significant at the .05 level

Cramer's V - .22

The hypothesis is accepted for 17 individual variables, and overall

Discussion of the Analysis

Sex Differences in Regards to Clinical Supervisory Practices

Although only five variables of the relationships between sex and the various clinical supervisory skills, practices, and attitudes were significant at the .05 level, there appear to be some important findings.

In general female principals appear more apt than their male counterparts to incorporate clinical supervisory activities in the principalship.

Proportionately more female principals have taken advantage of professional development programs (33.3% to 19.5%). More women than men proportionately see themselves as clinicians (61.9% to 41%). Women are more inclined to perceive themselves responsible for one of the most vital indicators of clinical supervision, the pre-observation conference, and here the difference is significant at the .0162 level. Ninety percent of the women perceive as primary their responsibility to suggest methods of improvement for teachers when needed while only 79% of the male principals are so inclined. Whereas 33% of the male respondents assumed no responsibility for monthly formative evaluations, only 14.3% of the women denied this responsibility.

One third of the female principals scored high on perceived actual expertise; their male counterparts could muster only 17.1%.

Age Differences

While age did not relate significantly to clinical supervisory perceptions of principals, some important findings are worthy of mention. Proportionately, 55% of the male principals were 45 years of age or younger but only 33.3% of the females were under 45. This statistic seems to support some of the literature which reports that the principalship is becoming an even stronger male bastion.[226]

A full 20% of the principals under the age of 36 perceived themselves as having complete authority over the instructional program; only ten principals of all ages from the entire survey perceived themselves having this authority with the younger principals contributing three of this number.

Principals in the mid-age range, from 40 to 50, accounted for 52.8% of those who perceived themselves responsible for pre-observation conference; the younger and older categories accounted for an almost identical division of the remaining number.

In an anlysis of total responsibility assumed for clinical supervisory activities, 56% of those rated as strong were in the 40 to 50 age category.

Younger principals were far more apt to perceive themselves using a clinical supervision model often. (.0282 level)

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[226] ibid.

Responsibility Factor (Principals Having Two or More Schools)

The NAESP has reported a trend toward making principals responsible for more than one school[227] Does this practice have an adverse effect on a principal's performance in clinical supervisory activities? More than one school principalships occurred in about 15 percent of this sample.

Principals having responsibility for two or more schools also reported that they were twice as likely as those principals with only one school to be assigned extra systemwide responsibility in addition to their duties as a principal. Those with one school reported an almost equal division on this question (48.8 percent had extra responsibility and 51.2 percent did not). For those with two or more schools, the percentages were 68.8 percent having this extra responsibility and 31.3 percent left to concentrate more fully on the principalship.

The number of schools supervised also has a marked effect on whether or not a principal would report having had a professional development program in clinical supervision. Only one of the sixteen principals from a multi-school principalship had enjoyed such a program, whereas 22 of the 87 principals having one school to supervise reported they had engaged in such an undertaking. This could be an important point in that professional development was found by this

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[227] ibid.

research to be closely related to clinical supervision attitudes and practices.

In analyzing the overall responsibility assumed by principals for clinical supervisory activities, only 12.6% of the principals with one school were categorized as being weak in this dimension, but almost one third, 31.3% of those principals having two or more schools were placed in this category.

While the same essential statistics are true for the analysis of perceived expertise to perform clinical supervision in regards to the low skilled principals, 14.9% of the one school principals were ranked as weak as opposed to 31.3% of the two or more school principals, 37.5% of the principals with more school responsibility were labeled as perceiving themselves as high in these skills whereas only 17.2% of those principals with one school responsibility were so labeled. This fact was significant at the .0214 level.

School Size (Student Population of School or Schools)

It was hypothesized that school size would be directly related to clinical supervision in an inversely positive manner, but little evidence was found to support this hypothesis. Principals with schools in the mid-range of student population, 351-450, were far less likely to have participated in a professional development program in clinical supervision, only 6.7% had done so, significant at a .0384 level.

There were no significant differences found in the supervisory

practices of principals with various sized schools and also no significant differences in whether or not they perceived of themselves as a clinicians. There was also no significant difference between principals of varying school sizes in the use of a clinical supervision model.

However, principals with small schools, 250 or less, were significantly (.0081) more apt to view as their responsibility the analysis of the data they obtained from classroom visitations. They were also more apt to view their responsibility for leadership in the analysis of a teaching skill to be their primary responsibility (.0279).

Principals with smaller schools, 350 or less, were also more likely to accept overall responsibility for clinical supervision activities (.0399 level).

Proportionately, more principals with very small schools viewed themselves as very strong at conducting separate evaluations for formative reasons alone. (.0540 level)

Experience Factors (Years of Teaching Experience)

The years spent as a classroom teacher were not significantly related to any factor of clinical supervision in a significant manner.

Tenure as a Principal

Tenure as a principal appears to have no relationship to

clinical supervisory activities. There were no items which were even remotely related to tenure as a principal discovered in this study.

District Enrollment

Principals in larger districts are far less likely to have extra systemwide responsibilities (.0003 level) and they are far more likely to have had an opportunity for a professional development program in clinical supervision (.0418 level).

Professional Development Program Influences

Principals who reported that they had participated in a professional development program in clinical supervision or teacher evaluation were more likely to accept the overall responsibility for clinical supervision activities. Four variables of perceived responsibility assumed for clinical supervisory activities were significant at the .05 level.

In addition, four variables of clinical supervisory expertise were likewise related to this factor of professional development.

Professional development programs in clinical supervision for principals appear to have a strong influence on the perceived attitudes and practices of the principals polled in this study.

Role Perception Influences

Principals who view themselves as clinicians as opposed to evaluators were far more likely to accept responsibility for clinical supervisory activities and definitely view themselves as

possessing more ability to perform clinical supervisory functions. Perceived clinicians were more likely to evaluate for strictly formative reasons (.0076 level); they were more likely to feel strong in their ability to perform a pre-observation conference (.0194) level; in the post-observation analysis (.0291 level; and in the perceived ability to help teachers match materials to goals (.0446 level). Principals who perceive themselves as being clinicians were far more apt to use a model of clinical supervision more frequently than others (.0002 level).

Frequency of Use of a Clinical Supervision Process

Principals who perceived themselves as frequently using a system of clinical supervision were more likely to accept responsibility for clinical supervisory activities and also were more likely to perceive themselves as possessing expertise to perform clinical supervisory functions.

The following factors were significantly related to the perceptions of principals regarding frequency of use of a clinical supervision model:

Responsibility for Clinical Supervision

1. Evaluate for formative reasons alone -- .0132 level
2. Conduct a pre-observation conference -- .0157 level
3. Observe teaching at agreed-upon-times -- .0483 level

Expertise in Clinical Supervision

1. Conduct a pre-observation conference -- .0004 level
2. Observe teaching at agreed-upon-times -- .0009 level
3. Suggest methods for instructional improvement -- .0012
4. Help teachers match instructional materials to goals -- .0059 level
5. Assist teachers develop a process for self-evaluation -- .0001 level
6. Supervise teachers monthly for formative reasons -- .0156 level

Formative Versus Summative Evaluations

As hypothesized, the vast majority of principals in this study do not appear to separate formative from summative evaluations; the number of formative evaluations was almost identical to the number of summative evaluations. This finding was confirmed at the .0267 level.

Extra Teaching Responsibility

Only three principals (2.9%) of the sample were required to teach in addition to assuming their role as a principal. Due to the small number of such cases, no attempt was made to determine any relationships to clinical supervisory activities.

Actual Versus Ideal Perceived Expertise to Perform Clinical Supervisory Functions

As expected, principals expressed feeling a need for improving their expertise in the ability to perform clinical supervisory

functions. Dissonance was discovered to exist for every individual variable of clinical supervision between the present ability of principals and their ideal ability.

Perceived Responsibility as Related to Perceived Expertise

It was hypothesized that principals who perceived themselves as being responsible for clinical supervisory functions would also perceive themselves as possessing more ability to perform clinical supervisory activities. This relationship was found to significantly exist in seventeen of the twenty variables of this study.

Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of this study; a description of the sample was first presented comparing it with national and state perspectives of the principalship and a general description was made of the responses given by the sample group which constituted the independent variables of the study.

This was followed by a systematic analysis of each hypothesis with supportive evidence presented where it was deemed to be appropriate. A discussion of the analysis was provided to synopsize the major findings by category.

PLEASE NOTE:

Pages 230 and 231 are missing in number only. Text follows.

UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS INTERNATIONAL.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to discover if certain variables existing in the role of the principalship were perceived by principals to relate to instructional leadership. Basically, this research intended to discover what factors might influence a principal to perceive himself or herself as a clinical supervisior. Specifically, the investigation centered on the relationship which exists between given characteristics of the principalship and the perceived responsibility felt to exist by principals to perform functions involved in clinical supervision.

Another major emphasis of the study was to determine what principal characteristics related to the self-perceived expertise of principals' supervisory skills. Lastly, this research was designed to determine the amount of dissonance principals feel about the difference in their present supervisory skills and their ideal supervisory expertise.

A review of the relevant literature was presented in Chapter II. The major theme in the literature was the idea that the improvement of instruction and the leadership required to accomplish this feat is the highest form of achievement for principals. Included in the chapter was a general look at the school effects research, a more concentrated view of the effects of the principal on school outcomes, followed by a concentrated analysis of the research done on the subject of clinical supervision.

A total of 103 principals responded to the ILQ from a total selected sample of 200 elementary principals from the Michigan population. The sample appeared well suited to accomplish the purposes of the research.

The Chi Square analysis was used to test the thirty five hypotheses of the study using the SPSS Program for statistical testing at the Michigan State University Computor Center.

Findings

Thirty five hypotheses were offered for testing; four of the thirty five were not testable with the data collected. In general, the findings of the hypotheses testing revealed the following:

1. Principals wish to become more skilled at clinical supervisory functions.

2. Sex was found to have a significant impact on the perception of principals regarding their supervisory expertise and the responsibility assumed by them for supervision; females perceive themselves as more skilled than males perceived themselves and as having more responsibility for supervision.

3. Age did not correlate with either responsibility or expertise functions of principals to perform clinical supervision.

4. The number of schools a principal administors was unrelated to perceptions of clinical supervisory expertise and to only two variables of perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

5. There was no relationship found to exist between school enrollment and clinical supervision expertise or felt responsibility.

6. Teaching experience did not relate in any manner to clinical supervision expertise or felt responsibility.

7. There was no relationship found to exist between the number of classroom teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory skills or perceived responsibility assumed for clinical supervision.

8. There was no relationship found to exist between the total number of teachers supervised and perceived clinical supervisory skills or perceived responsibility for clinical supervision.

9. There was no relationship found to exist between district size and perceived clinical supervisory skills or perceived responsibility for clinical supervision.

10. There was no relationship found to exist between principal tenure and perceived clinical supervisory expertise or perceived responsibility for clinical supervision.

11. There was no relationship found to exist between extra district wide responsibility assigned to principals and perceived clinical supervisory expertise or perceived responsibility for clinical supervision.

12. The amount of summative evaluations required to be performed by a principal were found to be statistically equal to the number of formative evaluations performed by principals -- principals perform formative and summative evaluations together.

13. The amount of formal education principals have received in the supervision of teaching was found to be unrelated to perceived clinical supervision expertise and perceived clinical supervisory responsibility assumed.

14. Principals who had received a professional development program in clinical supervision perceived themselves as being more expert in four of twenty factors and also in four of twenty factors for the responsibility assumed for clinical supervision.

15. Principals who perceived of themselves as a clinician (clinical supervisor) scored significantly higher than others in three of twenty variables related to perceived expertise to perform clinical supervision and for one variable of perceived responsibility to perform clinical supervision.

16. Principals who used a system of clinical supervision perceived themselves as more expert in six variables of clinical supervision and in three variables related to the responsibility assumed to perform clinical supervision.

17. There was found to exist in seventeen of twenty variables a significant relationship between the responsibility felt by principals to perform clinical supervisory functions and the perceived ability of those principals to perform clinical supervisory functions.

Conclusions

On the basis of the information collected from this sample of elementary school principals from the State of Michigan, this researcher concludes that (1) many principals do not appear to be actively involved in the improvement of instruction in a systematic fashion; (2) many principals do not appear to be knowledgeable about the teaching/learning process; (3) many principals do not appear to possess effective supervisory skills designed to improve the instructional skills of teachers; (4) most principals desire to improve their instructional leadership skills; and (5) females may be more inclined to become clinical supervisors.

It was concluded from the survey data gathered and the analysis performed that elementary principals desire to significantly improve their instructional leadership skills from their present level of accomplishment. This conclusion supports those found by other

researchers, especially Marmion.[228] Principals are dissatisfied with their ability to perform in the instructional leadership role.

Relatively few aspects of the principalship appear to have a direct correlation to a principal's acceptance of the responsibility to get involved in the instructional process or in the perceived development of that principal's expertise to perform those functions. Age, tenure as a teacher or principal, the amount of responsibility delegated to a principal, the size of the school or school system, and formal education in supervision appear to be relatively unimportant considerations in regards to the prevailing attitudes and practices of principals in regards to clinical supervision.

Female principals do appear to be more inclined to accept the responsibility for clinical supervision and also to perceive themselves as possessing more of the skills necessary to function in this capacity. Although many of the relationships were not found to exist at the .05 level, this fact may be due more to the relatively small number of female principals included in the study than any other factor.

The perceived role of the elementary principal was discovered to be correlated to his or her perceptions of the responsibility accepted for and the ability ot perform functions of clinical supervision; principals who perceived of themselves as clinicians tended to be more

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[228]Marmion, Roland D. A Comparison of Actual and Ideal Instructional Leadership Roles for Urban Fringe Elementary Public School Principals in Michigan, Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1977.

inclined to accept the responsibilities of clinical supervision and to perceive themselves as being more able to perform the functions involved in this supervisory process.

The principal who perceived himself or herself as a clinician was also far more likely to evaluate teachers for strictly formative reasons. This conclusion was supported at a very high level.

Likewise, principals who perceive of themselves as using a system of clinical supervision often were more apt to accept responsibility for and perceive of themselves as possessing greater expertise to perform clinical supervisory functions. Thus, principal role assumption and role performance are congruent in this study. This finding was highly significant.

A main conclusion of this study is that a professional development program is potentially an extremely valuable process in bringing about a change in the attitudes and perceived involvement in supervisory activities related to the improvement of instruction. This factor was significantly related to four individual variables of responsibility and to the overall acceptance by principals of responsibility to perform clinical supervision. Principals in this study having had such a program of professional development were eight times less likely to rank low in perceived supervisory skills and almost twice as likely to perceive of their expertise to be strong.

The strength of the relationship between the informal training of principals in clinical supervision and perceived expertise would perhaps have been even more enhanced statistically should there have been a greater number of them with which to compare the others. (Only twenty three of the 103 principals in this study reported having had such a professional development program.)

It should be noted, however, that the mere involvement in a professional development program could hardly be expected to do more than arouse a sense of responsibility on the part of the participants to perform clinical supervision in his or her school. Only successful practice of the knowledge gained through this informal education process in the actual instructional setting is likely to produce a feeling of expertise on the part of the principal, let alone a demonstrated proficiency to perform this instructional leadership function. In view of this, it was surprising to this researcher that such a strong relationship was found to exist between a professional development program in clinical supervision and the perceived expertise of principals to perform clinical supervisory activities; the professional development programs in which they were involved must have been far more than informational sessions, involving some skill development perhaps. The only known programs of clinical supervision of which this researcher has knowledge to have occurred within the past five years in the State of Michigan has been the Instructional Theory Into Practice (I.T.I.P.) summer workshops

sponsored by MEMSPA and those in two independent school districts, Saginaw and Berkley.

Implications for Practice

As indicated in the introductory chapter, this study was intended to serve a useful purpose for educational practitioners, especially those in a position to effect changes in the profession. It is for this purpose that this section is intended.

This research has clearly demonstrated that:

1. Many principals lack an understanding of the teaching/learning process;
2. Most principals lack clinical supervisory skills;
3. Principals desire to improve these skills;
4. Professional development programs appear to be the only viable means to accomplish this feat; and
5. Women appear somewhat better suited than men to effectively perform clinical supervisory activities.

A prudent practitioner, interested in improving the on-going instruction that occurs in his or her school system should reasonably be able to put the information gleaned from this study to good use. Clearly, the focus of the change should be to improve each school, individually. This focus should be concentrated on the key factor for success or failure in a school, the school principal. The blueprint for action could possibly follow this format:

1. Boards of education should, through policy, stress the importance of the clinical supervision of staff, <u>separate from the required summative evaluation</u>;
2. It should not be expected that principals would have received training in clinical supervision;

3. An extensive, on-going program of professional development should be undertaken to provide principals with the opportunity to learn about the teaching/learning process, clinical supervision, and time management;

4. On-the-job follow-up should be undertaken with principals by the professional development instructors to assist in the development of proficiency in the newly acquired skills;

5. Principals should receive the same type of clinical supervision as advocated for the teaching staff;

6. Those in a position to hire principals would do well to consider hiring more women.

Implications for Further Research: Recommendations

The findings in this study support the idea that instructional leadership is a desired role for elementary school principals. The study has demonstrated that principals can greatly benefit from a professional development program that leads to a perception on the part of principals that they are clinical supervisors and that they more often perform the supervisory functions in a clinical manner. However, because this study was necessarily limited in scope, generalizations should be limited to the described or similar population. In this light, the following recommendations are made:

1. Additional research should be undertaken to verify, refute, and/or complement the findings of this study;

2. Instruments should be developed that will measure instructional leadership in the supervision of instruction without relying exclusively on the perceptions of principals;

3. Studies should be undertaken to explore the congruence of the principals' and teachers' perceptions of the effects of clinical supervision;

4. A study should be undertaken to investigate the need for a clinical supervisory skill competency preparation program for career principals and corresponding state certification;

5. Variables and conditions such as leadership style and staff morale should be investigated in buildings where the principal serves as an effective clinical supervisor;

6. In view of the evidence which indicates a decreasing trend of employing women in the position of elementary school principal, and in view of the findings of this study which appear to indicate a superior ability and willingness on the part of female principals to become clinical supervisors, other studies should be undertaken which use greater numbers of female principals to determine if this finding is accurate, and if so why this is true. What are the reasons for this fact? In addition, studies should also be made on how to enable a more representative number of female principals to enter the principalship;

7. Due to the rather ineffective manner in which this study was able to investigate the relationship between the authority of a principal to make instructional decisions in his or her school and the instructional leadership of the principal, further studies need to be persued which will explore this relationship;

8. More refined research must be conducted to determine the relationship between the sense of efficacy of the principal and variables of instructional leadership;

9. Some gaps in our knowledge of supervision and supervisory effects can be filled by studying each phase of the clinical supervisory cycle. Specifically, we must learn more about how principals can conceptualize and conduct the pre-observation conference. How can rapport be more easily established between teachers and principals? Are principals, with their power to recommend dismissal of teachers, in a position to effectively separate the summative from the formative evaluations of teachers? What sort of contract or agreement between teacher and principal is necessary or desirable to effect this separation of evaluative functions? If supervision of this nature produces anxiety over that which is normal or optimal, how can such anxiety be alleviated? Can principals change their supervisory practices? Of greatest importance, however, is the on-going question of whether or not the clinical supervisory process can really help improve teaching behavior and student outcomes.

Concluding Statement

The evolution of the principalship has appeared to have taken its toll of the instructional leadership exerted by the principal. It would appear from the data of this study that relatively few teachers are receiving assistance from the principals on how to improve their teaching skills. This unfortunate conclusion is offered with the sincere hope that the present situation can be reversed, for if it is not, than other means must be undertaken to insure that teachers receive the assistance they obviously need to continually sharpen and resharpen their teaching expertise so as to better help children learn. A change of this magnitude would be costly for education and would forever change the foundations of the principalship.

The poor, overweight and overburdened principal is, indeed, in a "great tightness" as Pooh might say; unfortunately, this research is not the "sustaining book", such as will alleviate the problem. Perhaps, however, this study may cause some additional uneasiness which will result in an ultimate improvement.

APPENDIX A

LETTERS

MICHIGAN ELEMENTARY and MIDDLE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATION
Affiliated With The National Association of Elementary School Principals
ROOM 9, MANLY MILES BLDG. • 1405 S. HARRISON RD.
EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48823 • PHONE 517 353-8770

A STUDY OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP OF MICHIGAN'S ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Dear Principal:

Your cooperation is needed to carry out this MEMSPA sponsored research study to determine the present status, viewpoints, practices, and attitudes of elementary principals with regard to instructional leadership.

The survey data being collected are expected to have direct benefits for you and your profession. When the results are published, they should serve to assist us in enchancing the status of our profession.

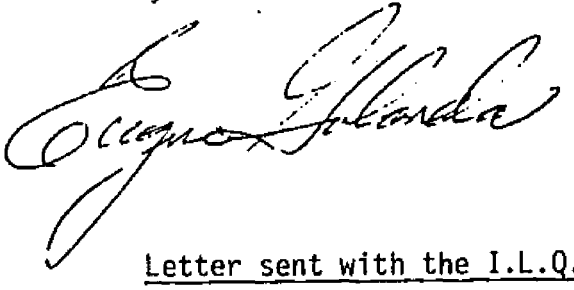
The deadline for insuring that your response will be included in the study data is November 30, 1981. Although you will find the questionaire quite comprehensive, most questions can be answered with a single check mark.

Please note that you are not to sign your name and that the survey is not coded in any way which will permit identification. This fact will, we hope, encourage forthright answers. Every individual response is really important to assure the necessary accuracy and validity of the results.

A self-addressed stamped envelop is enclosed for your convenience in returning this survey. Please set aside a 15-20 minute period of time in your busy schedule to complete and return the questionaire.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Eugene Golanda
Study Researcher



William Mays, Jr.
Executive Secretary
MEMSPA

Letter sent with the I.L.Q.

EDMONDS SCHOOL DISTRICT 15

EDUCATIONAL SERVICES CENTER

3800 196th S.W., LYNNWOOD, WASHINGTON 98036 (206)771-0614

Dr. Robert K. [illegible]
Assistant Superintendent for
Instructional Services

Daniel Duncan
Staff Development Manager

Bill Curtis
Cliff Nelson
Dorothy Wright
Staff Development Specialists

November 10, 1981

E. L. Golanda
Neff Elementary School
Grand Ledge Public Schools
950 Jenne Street
Grand Ledge, Michigan 48837

Dear Gene:

I enjoyed the opportunity to read over your survey form and it does reflect the Clinical Supervision Process. I jotted a few comments in the margin but mainly as questions to consider. You seem to list some of the elements by name - active participation, Bloom's Levels - is there a reason for not naming the other elements? Also, I didn't catch anything about meeting individual differences, learning styles, or needs.

In the part on perceived present expertise do you want to have anything on the principals perceived level of understanding of the elements of effective instruction? Also, one area that is important is knowing the teacher and being able to determine the type of conference to conduct whether it would be a direct, collaborative, or nondirect approach.

Your information will be interesting. I'm looking forward to the results.

Regards,

Cliff

Cliff Nelson
Staff Development Specialist

CN:gvd

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENT

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONAIRE

General Information

1. Sex:

   Male _____

   Female _____

2. Age _____

3. For how many schools are you responsible? _____

4. How many students are enrolled in your school(s)? _____

5. How many years of teaching experience have you had? _____

6. How long have you been an elementary principal? _____

7. What is the student enrollment in your district? _____

8. How many classroom teachers do you supervise? _____

9. How many other certified teachers do you supervise? (e.g. music, special education, physical education, etc.)

   _____

10. How often are you required by your superintendent, or the collective bargaining agreement, to evaluate your tenured teachers?

    _____

11. How much formal education have you acquired in the supervision of instruction or teacher evaluation procedures? Please state whether term or semester hours.

    _____

12. Do you have extra systemwide responsibilities? (e.g. Title I, (Compensatory education), special education, career education, etc.)

    Yes _____

    No _____

13. Are you required to teach for one hour or more daily?

Yes _____

No _____

14. Within the past five years have you been involved in a comprehensive staff development program on the subject of clinical supervision or teacher evaluation? (Comprehensive here means a program involving ten or more hours of instruction.)

Yes _____

No _____

15. The term "summative evaluation" is used to describe an evaluation process used for continuing the employment of a teacher, as a basis for recommending tenure, as a basis for merit pay or commendation, or for detecting an unsatisfactory teacher; the term "formative evaluation" refers to those direct attempts by a principal to improve the instructional skills of teachers as instruction proceeds. How often on the average do you evaluate your tenured classroom teachers for strictly formative reasons?

_____

16. As a principal do you primarily: (choose one)

_____ a. act as a clinician; i. e., visit the classroom confer with and counsel teachers, and in general assist teachers improve their teaching.

_____ b. act as an organizer to establish a system or procedures which uses resources from within the school for evaluative purposes, i.e. collegial evaluation and/or student evaluation.

_____ c. act as a facilitator to establish the use of evaluators from outside the school; i.e., arrange for consultative and other types of assistance from the central office, other schools, a college or university, the teachers, association, etc.

_____ d. act as a "trainer" or organizer of training in evaluative skills so that the teachers themselves can carry out the evaluative function.

_____ e. evaluate teachers myself, but usually only to the extent called for in the master agreement using the format called for in that agreement; i.e. summative evaluations done annually or every other year.

_____ f. assign the responsibility for evaluation to an assistant.

For the following questions, please circle the number of your choice on the continum from one extreme to the other as indicated. (Please do not make a circle between any numbers.)

17. How much authority do you feel you actually have in making decisions involving the instructional program in your school?

No Authority — Complete Authority

1 2 3 4 5 6

18. Do you believe that your involvement as a principal can have a positive effect on student learning as reflected by standardized test scores?

No Effect — Great Effect

1 2 3 4 5 6

19. When it comes right down to it, do you believe that teachers can make much difference in what and how much children learn, considering that most of a child's motivation to learn and perform seem to depend primarily on the home environment?

Not at All — Very Much

1 2 3 4 5 6

20. Do you believe that if your teachers <u>really</u> try hard they could actually get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated child?

Not at All — Very Much

1 2 3 4 5 6

21 The term "clinical supervision" was chosen by Dr. Morris Cogan to describe a particular method of supervision of teaching; it has to do with face-to-face relationships of teacher and principal up close; it is supervision of actual teaching activity -- practitional behavior; it is usually characterized by the following ongoing and continuous supervisory practices; a pre-observation conference, classroom observation, post-observation analysis and planning, post-observation conference and a post-conference and analysis.
Do you utilize a system of clinical supervision with your staff?

Never — Always

1 2 3 4 5 6

Part II Analysis of Responsibility of Supervisory Activities

For the purpose of this survey the responses will be defined as follows:

Primary Responsibility - In my position this activity is my responsibility and has priority claim on my time and attention.

Secondary Responsibility - In my position this activity will receive my attention after primary responsibilities have been discharged.

No Responsibility - In my position I have no responsibility for this activity.

Directions: Please indicate in the spaces provided in the left margin your assessment of your present degree of responsibility for each of the following activities.

	Perceived Responsibility			
	Primary Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	No Responsibility	
1.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I help teachers understand the learning process using commonly defined terminology.
2.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I separately evaluate teaching for formative (i.e. improvement) purposes alone.
3.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I regularly meet with teachers in advance of classroom observations to mutually determine what teaching actions will be specifically observed, what the teacher expects students to learn, and how these actions and effects will be recorded for analysis.
4.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I observe classroom teaching at agreed upon times for formative (i.e. improvement) purposes only using agreed upon means of data collection.
5.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I schedule appointments with the teacher to mutually analyze the teaching that occurred during the classroom visitation as soon after the observation as possible.
6.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I carefully analyze the data collected from the classroom observation and categorize the data for mutual analysis.
7.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I meet with the teacher at the scheduled appointment time and present the data and offer praise when appropriate, for specific teaching skills observed.

	Primary Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	No Responsibility	
8.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I lead the teacher through an analysis of the teaching skill under consideration.
9.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I suggest instructional methods, when appropriate, which would help to make a teaching lesson more effective.
10.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I help teachers, when appropriate, to match instructional materials with instructional goals.
11.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I help teachers to insure that students spend an appropriate amount of time on task.
12.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I help teachers to provide all students with opportunities to learn higher level thinking skills, (i.e. application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).
13.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I assist teachers to provide active participation by all students.
14.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire teaching skills and practices proven by research to make a difference in what and how much children learn.
15.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire effective student discipline methods.
16.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire effective classroom management skills.
17.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I assist teachers to develop the ability to self-evaluate and self-improve instructional techniques.
18.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I supervise each teacher's teaching for formative reasons (i.e. improvement) at least once monthly.
19.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I establish a process to acquire constructive criticism and encouragement of supervisory activities.
20.	_____	_____	_____	As a principal, I create an environment in which the staff feels free to consult with me regarding instructional weaknesses or needs.

Part III Perceived Expertise in Clinical Supervision Activities

For the purposes of this survey, on the continuum beneath each question labeled Perceived Present Expertise, please evaluate your present ability to perform this function by circling the appropriate number from one to six, one representing very weak to six representing very strong. On the other continuum, beneath the question, labeled Perceived Ideal Expertise, please circle the number representing the degree to which you would ideally like to possess this ability. (Note: Please do not circle between numbers on the continuum.)

1. As a principal, I help teachers understand the learning process using commonly defined terminology.

Perceived Present Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

Perceived Ideal Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

2. As a principal, I separately evaluate teaching for formative (i.e. improvement) purposes alone.

Perceived Present Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

Perceived Ideal Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

3. As a principal, I regularly meet with teachers in advance of classroom observations to mutually determine what teaching actions will be specifically observed, what the teacher expects students to learn and how these actions and effects will be recorded for analysis.

Perceived Present Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

Perceived Ideal Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

4. As a principal, I observe classroom teaching at agreed upon times for formative (i.e. improvement) purposes only using agreed upon means of data collection.

Perceived Present Expertise

Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

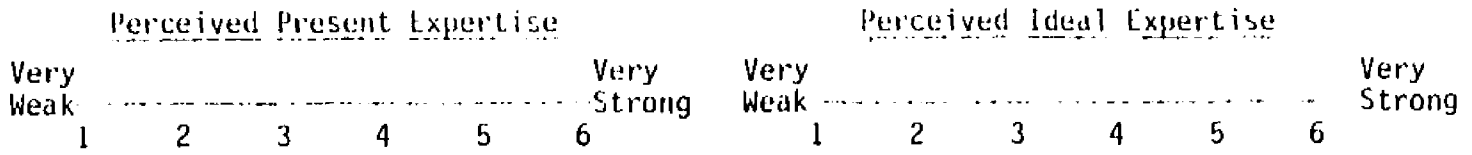
1 2 3 4 5 6

Perceived Ideal Expertise

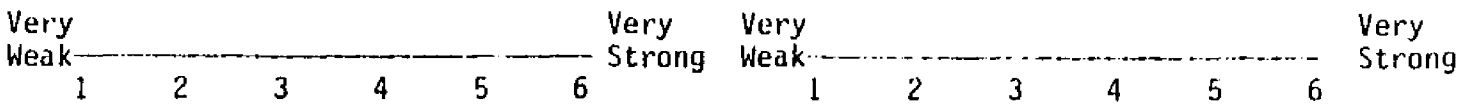
Very Weak ——————————— Very Strong

1 2 3 4 5 6

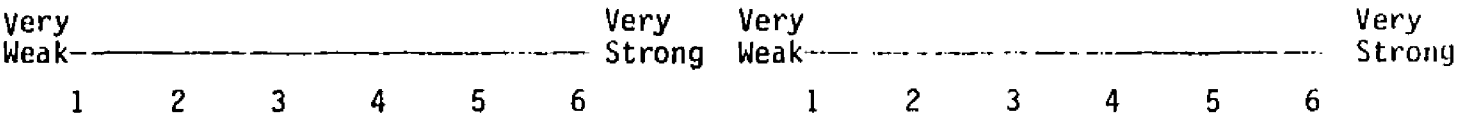
5. As a principal, I schedule appointments with the teacher to mutually analyze the teaching that occurred during the classroom visitation as soon after the observation as possible.



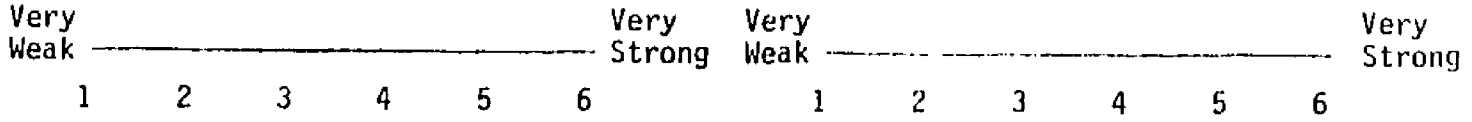
6. As a principal, I carefully analyze the data collected from the classroom observation and categorize the data for mutual analysis.



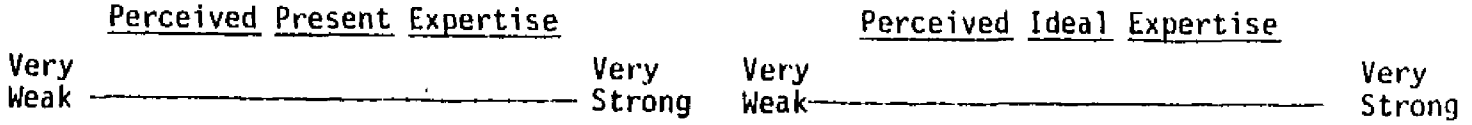
7. As a principal, I meet with the teacher at the scheduled appointment time and present the data and offer praise, when appropriate, for specific teaching skills observed.



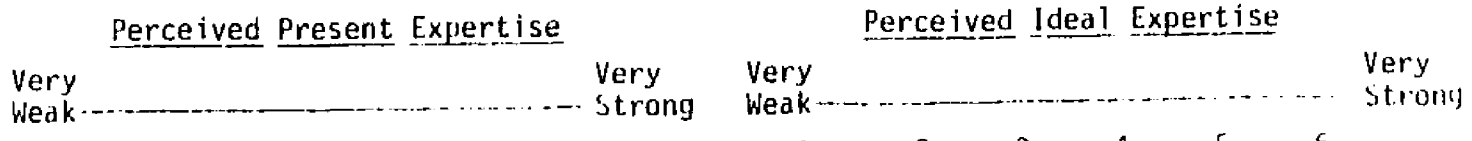
8. As a principal, I lead the teacher through an analysis of the teaching skill under consideration.



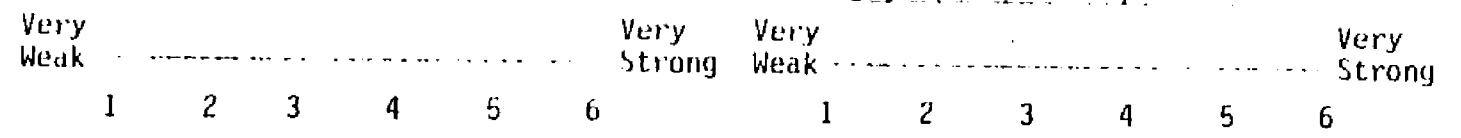
9. As a principal, I suggest instructional methods, when appropriate, which would help to make a teaching lesson more effective.



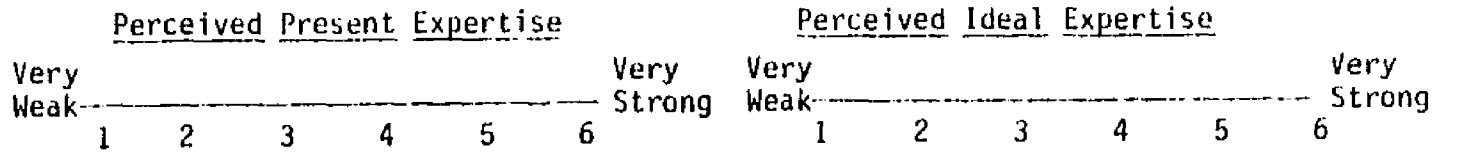
10. As a principal, I help teachers, when appropriate, to match instructional materials with instructional goals.



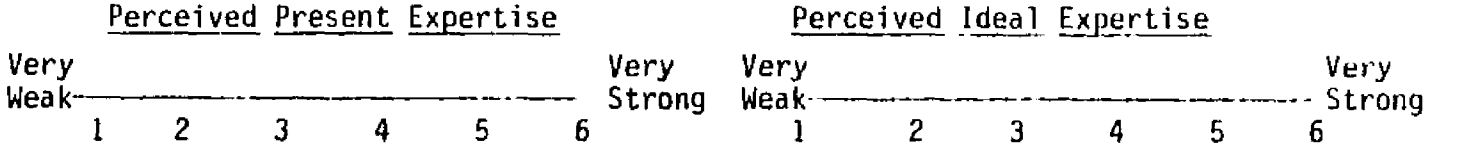
11. As a principal, I help teachers to insure that students spend an appropriate amount of time on task.



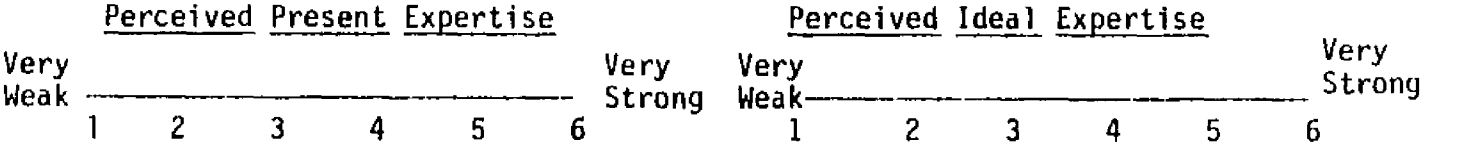
12. As a principal, I help teachers to provide all students with opportunities to learn higher level thinking skills, (i.e. application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).



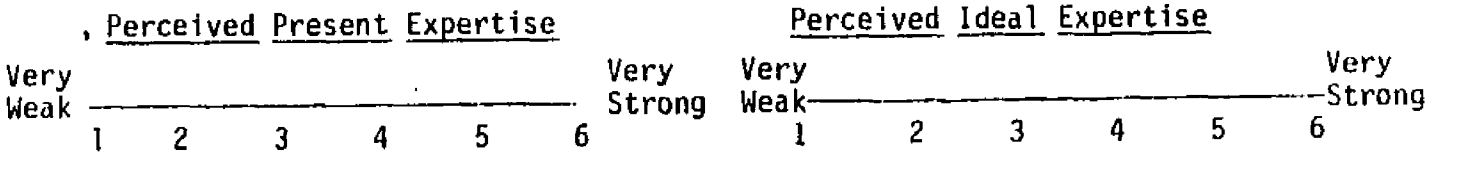
13. As a principal, I assist teachers to provide active participation by all students.



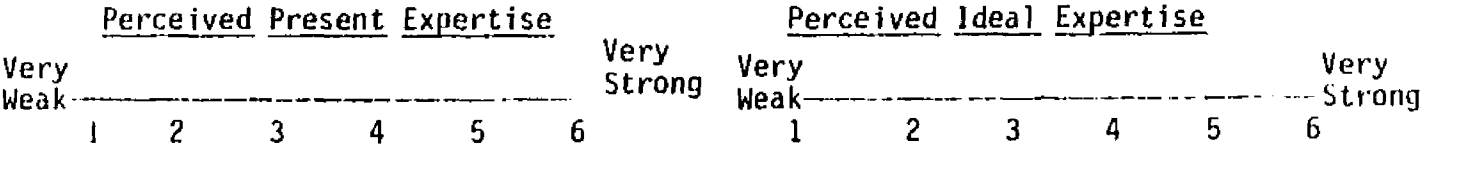
14. As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire teaching skills and practices proven by research to make a difference in what and how much children learn.



15. As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire effective student discipline methods.



16. As a principal, I assist teachers to acquire effective classroom management skills.



17. As a principal, I assist teachers to develop the ability to self-evaluate and self-improve instructional techniques.

Perceived Present Expertise							Perceived Ideal Expertise						
Very Weak						Very Strong	Very Weak						Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6	

18. As a principal, I supervise each teacher's teaching for formative reasons (i.e. improvement) at least once monthly.

Perceived Present Expertise							Perceived Ideal Expertise						
Very Weak						Very Strong	Very Weak						Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6	

19. As a principal, I establish a process to acquire constructive criticism and encouragement of supervisory activities.

Perceived Present Expertise							Perceived Ideal Expertise						
Very Weak						Very Strong	Very Weak						Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6	

20. As a principal, I create an environment in which the staff feels free to consult with me regarding instructional weaknesses or needs.

Perceived Present Expertise							Perceived Ideal Expertise						
Very Weak						Very Strong	Very Weak						Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6	

Thank you for your cooperation! Please return this questionaire, unsigned, in the self-addressed envelope provided for this use which was included with the materials.

The results of this survey will be advertised in the MEMSPA Journal.

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